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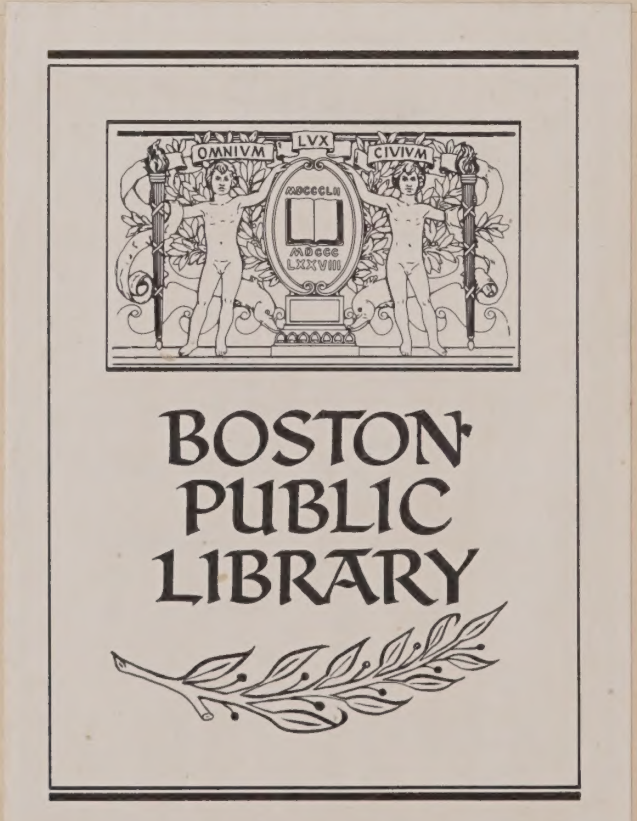

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The Week.

THE reflections of the newspapers on the old year, in this city at least, are much less sentimental and much more narrative than usual, and perhaps for this reason more cheerful. It is hardly possible for anybody who has reached the age of most of those to whom the work of reviewing the year is committed in a newspaper office, to utter any reflections on it which will not be a little melancholy. There is hardly any mature person who can look on a past year without a touch of gloom. If things have gone well with him, he is sorry it is over, and doubtful whether the next will be as happy. If they have gone ill with him, it is full of painful or disagreeable memories, and has so shaken his confidence in his good fortune that he looks forward to the new year with misgiving. So that on the whole the New Year's article is hardly ever as cheerful reading as the Christmas article, which must, in fact, be essentially a hopeful and encouraging composition.

If anybody will take the trouble, however, to go back to the new and old-year articles of bygone years, he will be struck by the close resemblance which, after all, one year bears to another. It is only very rarely, perhaps not over once in twenty-five or thirty years, that an old year turns out to have been what reviewers are fond of calling an "annus mirabilis" or an "annus terribilis." The year of the French Revolution, 1789, was a wonderful year, and so was the year 1848—and by wonderful years we mean years which are perceived to be wonderful at the time, and not years in which events occur which long afterwards are perceived to have been very important. The year in which Luther nailed his theses to the church door, and the year in which the Declaration of Independence was issued, were, we now see, great years; but very few thought so then. The reason of it all is that human society, as well as Nature, does but little by leaps and bounds. The race on the whole jogs on, rather than jumps forward, and has about the same allowance of wars, earthquakes, famines, as well as gains, advances, discoveries, and inventions every year. Moreover, the events of each year are the consequences of those of the preceding year, and are therefore seldom new or startling. So that the work of reviewing a single year is one of little difficulty, and generally is but slightly instructive. It takes ten or more to make great changes visible, and show the rate at which the world goes down "the ringing grooves of change."

The San Francisco *Chronicle* has made public an interesting series of letters from Mr. C. P. Huntington, the Central Pacific Railroad millionaire, written between 1874 and 1877 to one of his managing men, whom he addresses as "Friend Colton." The correspondence is valuable chiefly as presenting with entire candor a record of transactions and suggestions relating to the world of railroads and politics such as it would probably be impossible to match. It is pity that we cannot have "Friend Colton's" letters also, to fill out the vacant spaces in the canvas. But there is enough as it stands to give an excellent idea of the political side of "railroading," and the sort of management of legislation which the power of Congress over great corporations produces. There is not a trace of shame in Mr. Huntington's letters, nor any evidence that he regards himself as worse than other men in the business. Of many of them, in fact, he has a low opinion, while he speaks of himself as occupying "high ground." Gould he declares to be "the worst man to do anything with I ever saw," and the late "Tom" Scott he criticises severely for his want of sincerity. In 1875, he tells Colton that Scott is "getting every little gathering in the South to pass resolutions favoring the Texas-Pacific bill," and making reckless promises to get it passed. At this he is naturally indignant, but his fertile mind at once suggests a way of blocking Scott's wicked plot, as follows:

> "If we had a franchise to build a road or two roads through Arizona (we controlling, but having it in the name of another party), then have some party in Washington to make a local fight, and asking for the guarantee of their bonds by the United States, and, if that could not be obtained, offering to build the road without any aid, it could be used against Scott in such a way that I do not believe any politician would dare vote for it. Cannot you have Safford call the Legislature together and grant such charters as we want at a cost of, say, $25,000? If we could get such a charter as I spoke to you of it would be worth much money to us."

The Huntington–Colton correspondence, as far as published, brings Mr. Huntington's operations in Washington down to 1878. It unquestionably puts in the shade everything of the kind that had appeared before. Jay Gould, whatever he may have done, or have been suspected of doing, has taken considerable pains to leave no record of his dealings with lobbyists, legislators, or Congressmen "to leap to light"; and when we recall the indignation and astonishment of the country over the Crédit-Mobilier exposures, the long investigation which followed, and the ruin which seemed to overtake the Congressmen who were found guilty of receiving stock dependent for its value on their votes, it seems as if that not very remote period must have been one of pure Arcadian simplicity and probity. The Huntington letters show, in fact, that the Crédit Mobilier served as a sort of cover for his operations. Public indignation at corruption and corruptionists cannot be kept alive very long; it exhausts itself, and is followed by a reaction, a period of indifference and lassitude, by which men of real nerve, like Mr. Huntington, profit. Something of the same sort is believed to have occurred in this city after the movement against the Ring, when certain residuary legatees of Tweed continued, as reformers, the plunder which they had begun in a different capacity. In somewhat the same way Mr. Huntington was all the better able to carry on his business in Washington, because the reserve of public indignation has been exhausted, and a considerable period of time must elapse before exposures of any kind would be likely to again awaken much interest.

The struggle between Scott and Huntington was long and fierce, and in these letters we see exactly how they must have looked upon the agents they employed or suspected each other of employing. Huntington reviews the California delegation, speaks of one member as a "good fellow," and "growing every day," of another as a "scavenger" and "hog," and declares that the latter must "be defeated at almost any cost." Another he speaks of as a "wild hog," in 1875, but in 1876 asks that he be sent back to Congress, there having evidently been a good deal of "growth" in the meantime. In one of his letters he tells Colton that Scott has "switched" (*i. e.*, off the Huntington and on to the Scott track) Senator Spencer, of Alabama, and Walker, of Virginia, but adds consolingly, "you know they can be switched back with the proper arrangements when they are wanted." Free passes cut a great figure in all the arrangements; indeed, Mr. Huntington's faith in the efficacy of passes is quite as great as has ever been expressed by their most extreme opponents. In a letter written in 1876 he asks: "Is it not possible to control the agent of the Associated Press in San Francisco?" "Scott," he continues, "has a wonderful power over the press, which I suppose he got by giving them free passes for many years over his roads." The letters furnish a picture of legislative railroad business such as we have not had since the Crédit-Mobilier exposures, but it is not as an exposure that it is chiefly important. The means taken by Huntington to get legislation are forced upon men who are in his position by the character of the agents through whom they act; and the real lesson of such revelations is the frightful state to which we should be brought by any further extension of the power of Congress, or the "hogs," "wild hogs," and "growing" men in it, over the railroad system of the country.

Speaker Carlisle displays unnecessary nervousness over the Republican attempt to show that he has "organized Congress in the interest of the solid South." The composition of the committees shows that he has done nothing of the kind, and the charge can safely be left to die of its own weakness. A much more serious matter for the Speaker to explain is his composition of the Committees on Banking and Currency and on Coinage. The latter committee is about as badly constructed as it could possibly be. Mr. Carlisle not only put Mr. Bland, the originator of the silver-dollar act, at its head, but gave him five members who share his views, thus securing a majority who are known to be in favor of continuing the coinage of silver, and of forcing it into circula-

tion by withdrawing the one and two-dollar greenback notes. At the head of the Banking and Currency Committee he placed Mr. Buckner, of Missouri, one of the most hopelessly unsound of the greenback statesmen. If Mr. Carlisle can explain these appointments satisfactorily he will do his party a great service. As they stand, they confirm the prevalent impression of the Democratic party's indisposition, or inability, to deal intelligently with financial questions; and this impression is likely to cost them a great many more votes than the nearly defunct sectional issue.

Mr. Bland, the Chairman of the Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures, has apparently, unlike Mr. W. D. Kelley and others, lost none of his faith in the great silver idea. Most of his old co-laborers have seen the error of their ways, and wish to stop coining silver, but he wants to coin more than ever. Not only would he add the trade dollars to our existing circulation, but he would start a new mint in the Mississippi Valley—say at St. Louis—so as to give the West a fair share of the good things that are going. This is all the pluckier because the old silver-men's argument that we were going to be ruined for want of silver money has been destroyed in a most crushing manner during the last three years. If we had since 1879 been running on a single gold standard, the prolonged depression in trade would have kept scores of silver prophets writing bi-metallic pamphlets, and lifting up warning voices about the danger to business of reliance on gold. But we have had such a grand period of depression under the double standard, and with our vaults and drawers choking with the fathers' dollars, that a deep silence has settled on most of them, and the others are asking to have the past forgotten, and be allowed to live in peace for the rest of their days.

The interview reported Friday morning between Mayor Harrison of Chicago and some of the business men of that city—whose standing, however, does not appear—reads like a scene from the opéra bouffe. They asked him to stop the police from making raids on gambling houses in a certain locality, on the ground that the closing of the gambling houses would seriously affect the retail trade in the neighborhood, because the gamblers "made the business lively." The Mayor declined to comply, on the ground apparently that the frequenters of the gambling houses were boys and workingmen. We suppose this is one of the numerous signs of the badness of the times. The retailers, in their distress, are ready for anything which is likely to work off their goods.

There is another sign very like it, namely, the enormous number of fires, particularly in those branches of trade and manufacture which are most depressed. We believe it is a fact that the claims on some insurance companies in this city, during the past month, have been larger in amount than ever before, except after such exceptional calamities as the burning of Chicago and Boston and Portland; and they have come from the trades which are now most distressed, in such numbers as to make it appear as if arson was often the last resource of the distressed trader. That a model tariff which was to make such crises as that through which we are passing—not a sharp panic, but a prolonged and dreary depression—impossible, should end in that way after twenty years' trial, is most disappointing. The country, as far as one can see, might just as well have been running under a tariff for revenue only or any other hideous device of the free-traders. Business could hardly, under the worst scheme of the Cobden Club, have been brought to so low a pass as to need the aid of gambling houses and incendiary fires.

The State Convention of Ohio liquor-dealers have adopted a series of resolutions declaring unequivocally that the "Scott law is in direct violation of the wise provisions of the Constitution of Ohio," and that in their opinion it ought to be repealed by the Legislature. This brings them in direct conflict with the Supreme Court of the State, which has decided that the law is constitutional, and a division of judicial opinion is created which can be little less than painful to every patriotic citizen of the State. The chances are, however, that the decision of the court will be considered the more binding of the two. There is nothing for the liquor-dealers to do in this event except to secure the election of some of their own men to the bench. In this city, for example, the Liquor-Dealers' Association has for its President a member of our Board of Aldermen, and as the membership of the two bodies consists largely of the same men, there is little danger of a conflict of opinion between them.

The New Jersey Labor Congress has framed a prison-labor law which probably represents fairly the demands of all the non-convict interests on the subject. It provides that no more than twenty prisoners shall be employed in any one branch of business, and that a board consisting of two workingmen, two "business men," and one "merchant," with the warden as advisory member, shall fix the price of all products so as to prevent the convict-made goods from going on the market at less than market rates. There is a difficulty in the convict-labor problem which no legislative machinery can meet. As long as convicts are employed in industry of any kind, and the products disposed of for what they are really worth, the market for the goods they produce must be affected by it at some point. The Labor Congress recommends that as many prisoners as are necessary shall be employed in producing articles for State use; but if the articles are really needed by the State, then the State will only get them directly from the prisons, instead of going into the market for them. But this withdrawal of the State as a purchaser would in so far tend, by a decrease of demand, to lower the price of the article; so that the final effect on wages and prices would be pretty much what it was before.

The Hebron church discussion over the conduct of its clergyman, in aiming a sermon on "Polygamy" at the head of a member who had been divorced from three wives and was living with a fourth, has resulted in the discomfiture of the clergyman. The church has adopted a report censuring him for improper conduct, and declaring him deserving of a "reprimand." When this action had been taken the polygamous member arose, and said that he was so delighted with the handsome conduct of his brethren that, if they would go a step further, and by a unanimous vote declare him a member in good standing, he would move back into town, and, like a good Christian brother, withdraw the suit for slander which he had begun against his pastor as a "liar and a hypocrite." The vote was passed, and everybody was made happy except the minister, who was not present. It is believed that the "rebuke" is so severe that he will be obliged to "go."

President Taylor, who discusses the Mormon question with Governor Murray in the current number of the *North American Review*, makes some good points for the Mormons, though the main interest of his remarks lies in the calm and temperate tone with which he discusses the matter. He mentions a curious fact with regard to the Edmunds Act, which seems to merit attention from Congress. The Act provides that no polygamist, bigamist, nor "any person cohabiting with more than one woman," shall have the right to vote in Utah. The Commissioners under the Act, however, in the test-oath which they introduced, required the voter to swear that he *had never* simultaneously lived with more than one woman (thus giving the law a retroactive or *ex post facto* effect) "in the marriage relation." Laws of this sort are always strictly construed by the courts, and to make this one apply to past acts, and to except from it all persons cohabiting without going through the form of marriage, is going to the opposite extreme. No great moral movement is likely to be much helped by such distortion of the law as this. Again, Mr. Taylor very justly complains of the disposition among the Gentiles to confound polygamy with the crime of bigamy. The wickedness of bigamy does not mainly consist in the act of marrying two women, but in the gross fraud and deception practised on the second wife. In other words, the second wife does not marry voluntarily. This is, to be sure, only a different way of putting the argument that plural marriages are unobjectionable because the women like them, and know beforehand that a number of wives is a part of Mormon family life.

The *Tribune* on Monday tried to console the manufacturers over the existing depression here by pointing out to them that France and England are suffering from it too, and maintained that in all these cases the cause is the same, namely, overproduction. But how does this tally with the orthodox doctrine that whatever goes wrong in a free-trade country is due to free trade, and that whatever goes wrong with a protectionist country is due to the fact that the tariff

is not high enough? Several high-tariff men in the United States hold this view so strictly that they even ascribe the decline of the Ottoman Empire to low duties on imports. Surely, under these circumstances, it cannot be true that the Yorkshire and Lancashire manufacturers are closing their mills and blowing out their furnaces for the same reason that is producing these same phenomena in Pennsylvania and New England. The time has come for the high-tariff men to get up a really water-tight theory, that will float in any weather, and bear collision with every class of facts. Every good Protectionist should be able to tell at a moment's notice what ails him if he is not feeling very well.

After all the discussions of the currency problem during the last twenty years, it is rather disheartening to find a gentleman of Mr. Jackson S. Schultz's clear-headedness and long business experience declaring, as he does in the *Journal of Commerce*, that "although a hard-money man, he could never understand why the paper circulation should not have been issued by the National Government instead of by private corporations. By law the Government is made responsible for the security of the bank notes. Why then should not the Government reap the advantages of that circulation?" He added that he did not think "that among the majority of business men there were two opinions on that question." This subject was thoroughly and, it seemed then, exhaustively discussed in 1873 after the panic, when the Government was so urgently pressed to come to the relief of the business community by the reissue of greenbacks. Mr. Schultz's remarks seem to show that the greenback movement is so completely dead that even men who follow the political discussions of the day with close attention, like Mr. Schultz, have forgotten the arguments by which it was successfully resisted. The principal of these arguments was that to charge the Government with the duty of issuing paper currency was substantially to ask it to engage in the business of banking on an immense scale. This is really what Mr. Schultz now calls for, though his own object is concealed or disguised, even to himself, by the phrase, "Why should not the Government reap the advantages of the circulation?"

The paper circulation is not, however, primarily or mainly designed either for the advantage of the banks or the Government, but of the public, and the reason why the issue of paper money is left to the banks by all solvent governments is, that it is only through banks that the exact amount of paper money the country needs can, in commercial communities, be properly ascertained. Banks can only put out as much currency as business men call for; as soon as they put out too much it comes back on them, either in the shape of deposits, or demands for redemption, or in the falling off of applications for discounts. If the Government were to issue the paper money without doing a regular banking business of deposit and discount, the amount of circulation needed by the country would have to be determined either by the votes of Congress or by the simple fiat of the Secretary of the Treasury. Of the fitness of Congress to determine what the proper volume of the currency ought to be, we need hardly speak. To allow the Secretary of the Treasury of his own notion to make money tight or easy is something which, we believe, even the Greenbackers have never proposed.

It is evident that the question of the purchase of the Adirondack region will enter early into the discussions of the Legislature. Unusual interest is shown in the matter in all parts of the State. The question of State ownership involves State supervision and careful guardianship against fires and still-hunting. The objection which has been raised in some quarters, that it will be expensive business for the State to purchase the lands because the owners of them will demand exorbitant prices, is disposed of by the fact that the State can take them by the right of eminent domain, on the payment of a fair price. Senator Warner Miller, in a recent speech, recommended the appointment of a Forestry Commission of scientific and practical men to whom the Legislature can refer the whole subject and on whose recommendation it can act. This Commission can first investigate and decide upon the necessity for the State to purchase more of the lands than it holds at present, and afterwards decide upon the best means for preserving and supervising the lands. Such a Commission, if rightly constituted, would undoubtedly be of great service. It would, at least, enable the Legislature to act intelligently.

The Civil-Service Commissioners of this State have got over the difficulty about the mode of promotion, in their 31st Rule. This difficulty, as has often been pointed out, lies in the fact that if you leave promotion wholly to the discretion of heads of departments or of bureaus, you open the door to favoritism and to the use of political influence. If, on the other hand, you make it dependent on competitive examination, you diminish the responsibility of the chief, and enable him to excuse shortcomings in his office by saying that he could do no better with the employees which the new system had put into high places. The New York Commission has managed, however, to give reasonable play to his discretion by providing that while, as a rule, vacancies in the higher grades shall be filled by the promotion of those in the lower grades of the same subdivision by competitive examination, yet if, in the judgment of the officer or officers having the power of appointment, there is no fit person to be found in the lower grades, the vacancy may be filled by competitive examination among outsiders. Moreover, promotion is in all cases to be based on the positive merit of the person promoted, and upon his superior qualifications as shown by his previous service; and proper comparative records are to be kept, in every department, office, and institution, "of the efficiency, punctuality, and general good conduct of all persons employed therein."

The 33d Rule also provides, following in this the example of the English service, that a recommendation for promotion emanating from any one but the candidate's official superiors, in the regular course of duty, shall be considered an unwarrantable interference with the public service, and the candidate may be required as a condition of promotion to show that the recommendation was not made at his request or by his connivance. Another excellent provision is to be found in the 34th Rule, guarding against an evasion of the law which has already made its appearance at more than one point in the Federal service. We mean the appointment of persons for "temporary employment," who are unable to pass the examinations necessary for permanent employment. This is sometimes simply a mode of getting workers into the service who do not possess the necessary qualifications, and of course, once in, means are readily found not only of retaining them permanently, but of promoting them. The New York rule forbids absolutely the temporary employment of anybody who is not fit for permanent employment, except that in prisons, reformatories, and asylums, temporary substitutes may be appointed for not exceeding thirty days, in case of disability through sickness or otherwise, and such temporary appointments can be made only once. The working of the New York rules will be watched with all the greater interest because unpleasant stories are afloat about evasions of the Federal law, which seem to indicate, if true, a want of good faith and sincerity in its administration on the part of people in high places. Such evasions are signs of bad politics as well as bad morality, for in this State, at all events, nothing is more certain than the popular determination that the law shall be obeyed, and that playing tricks with it shall be punished.

The Mahdi is now reported as "marching on Khartum," and likely to get there about the 4th of January. Mr. John Morley, in addressing his constituents in England, urged the Government to withdraw from Egypt promptly, and said the Mahdi would not invade Egypt because of the distance and the unwillingness of his wild followers to leave the desert. But the *Spectator*, which hates to give up the Mahdi as a great modern wonder, maintains that this is all wrong, because "Oriental armies cross vast distances, and Arabs, as far as known, will go anywhere for plunder." Oriental armies have in bygone times traversed immense distances, under the "Almoradives" and "Almohades," for instance; but the Oriental problem to-day consists almost wholly in the fact that Oriental armies will not do now what they once did. If they would, the Sultan, the Shah, and the Great Mogul would still be the terrors of Christendom. Moreover, Arabs nowadays, no matter what their former state of mind may have been, will only "go anywhere for plunder," if they think they will get there. What dampens their zeal in our time, is the abundant experience they have had of the difficulty of getting to the places where the plunder is without being killed on the way.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 26, 1883, to TUESDAY, January 1, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

SPEAKER CARLISLE'S Congressional committees have given pretty general satisfaction in his own party, though a number of malcontents have been reported. Mr. Morrison, Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, is reported to have said to a gentleman who suggested that the composition of that committee evidently indicated that the Democrats would make the tariff the issue in the Presidential campaign: "The issue is not to be avoided and it is welcomed. The Republicans have invited this contest in the call of their National Republican Committee, and we cheerfully accept it. It is the issue upon which we shall go to the people in the Presidential campaign of 1884, and upon which we expect to win. But if the protection Democrats shall choose to unite with the Republicans, it will not be possible for us to pass a bill even through the House." This programme, it is said, will meet with opposition from the high-tariff Democrats, and there are some who predict a serious split in the party in Congress.

Mr. Randall, who is at the head of the Appropriations Committee, proposes to proceed with the appropriation bills as rapidly as possible, and to have an early adjournment of the session.

Mr. Abram S. Hewitt on Saturday published an open letter in the Albany *Argus* urging the necessity for tariff reform. He concludes as follows: "The Democratic party proposes to open the way to freer markets, fuller trade, and better wages, by abolishing the duties on raw materials, and removing the purely obstructive features of the tariff. If the Democratic House shall frame and pass a judicious measure of revenue reform, carefully adjusted to the actual condition of our suffering industries, and the Republican Senate shall refuse to concur, the issue will be fairly joined. The people can then decide whether the do-nothing party now in power shall be replaced by an administration which will remove the artificial barriers to healthy progress."

The publication of the list of Government pensioners has resulted in 10,000 applications for increase and only one discovery of fraud. The list was printed at a cost of about $55,000, and has not accomplished a saving of thousands of dollars to the Government.

The statistician of the Agricultural Department has completed preliminary estimates of the crops of the country for the year 1883, which show that potatoes, as well as all other roots, and oats have yielded abundantly. The average yield of corn for the year is nearly 23 bushels per acre, or a total of 1,551,066,835 bushels.

The commercial agent of the United States at Nottingham, England, has made a report to the Department of State showing that the exports from that district to the United States for the year ending Sept. 30, 1883, were valued at $8,381,570, a decrease of more than one million over last year. The decrease of exports of lace goods was $2,037,942, but there was an increase in almost every other article. The increase in hosiery was $434,572.

The United States Consul at Sheffield, England, reports that the total amount of trade with the United States for the year ending September 30, 1882, was $6,217,748. The total for the year just closed is $3,947,767, showing the large decrease of $2,269,981. This decrease occurs principally in the two items of steel and Bessemer rails, the falling off in the former being $205,549, and in the latter, $1,750,185.

There has been an improvement in the Maine ship-building industry this year. One hundred and seventy-four vessels have been built against 168 last year. The aggregate tonnage was less.

The vigorous canvass for the Speakership and Clerkship of the New York Assembly was practically closed on Monday night by the Republican caucus, which nominated Mr. Titus Sheard, of Herkimer Co., for Speaker. An effort was made to have the nomination made *viva voce*, but was defeated—47 to 25. Mr. Littlejohn, of Oswego, then withdrew from candidacy in favor of Mr. Sheard, and Mr. Erwin, of St Lawrence, withdrew in favor of Mr. Roosevelt, of New York. Mr. Sheard was nominated over Mr. Roosevelt by a secret ballot of 41 to 29. Mr. Sheard is considered to be an able man with a clear record. Mr. Roosevelt represented the Young Republicans who led the revolt against the Machine in the last Legislature. Mr. Chickering, of Lewis Co., was selected for Clerk, and other minor offices were filled with nominees. The Democrats nominated Assemblyman Rice, of Ontario, for Speaker. The Republican Senatorial caucus nominated Mr. McCarthy, of Onondaga, for President pro tem. of the Senate. The Democratic nominee was Senator Jacobs. Tammany Hall was refused even the empty honor of the Democratic nominee for the Clerkship.

The Legislature of 1884 was formally opened at 11 o'clock on Tuesday morning. In the Assembly the caucus nominees of the Republicans were all elected. Mr. Sheard, in assuming the office of Speaker, said: "It is not for me to attach any significance to your choice of a Speaker, but I am at liberty to so far construe it in accordance with my own convictions as to believe that it means the determination of the majority of this body that no legislation of doubtful character, of questionable expediency, of extravagant tendency, or of purely partisan, selfish, or personal end shall pass unchallenged. In my capacity as your presiding officer, I shall deem it my duty to exert whatever power the chair legitimately possesses to check any legislation which may be fairly construed as contrary to the best interests of the whole people."

The new State Senate was addressed by Lieutenant-Governor Hill, who delivered a eulogy on the last Democratic Legislature. The Republican caucus nominees were then elected.

Governor Cleveland's annual message, which was read in both houses soon after their organization, is a very long document, summarizing the present condition of State affairs. He appeals to the Legislature for persistent work and argues against local and special bills. It is shown that the total State debt, on September 30, was $5,978,301.81, the reduction during the year $407,054.49, the available surplus at the beginning of the fiscal year $4,249,567.97, and that an extraordinary reduction in the tax-rate can be safely made for the coming year. The Governor believes that the burdens of taxation could be greatly lightened by placing real and personal property on the same footing, and abolishing all deductions for debts. The Governor believes that the free-canal system has been justified by results, and he would approve a system of constant and gradual repairs. He recommends regular stated examinations of savings banks, advises the purchase of the military camping ground at Peekskill, the appointment of a State Superintendent of charitable and reformatory institutions, the prompt execution of the law passed at the last session for reconstructing the Emigration Board, the attachment of the health officers at this port to the Quarantine establishment at a fair salary, the abolition of the office of the harbor-masters and the transfer of their duties to the Dock Department, the supervision of corporations, and the prompt completion of the new Capitol. Measures for preserving the Adirondack wilderness are suggested, but the wholesale purchase of those lands by the State is opposed.

The New York State Senate Committee on the Preservation of the Adirondack Forest will report against the purchase of the woodland in bulk by the State. They find that this would result in an enormous job, and that the price of land almost worthless would be run up to $100 an acre. They say the State is rapidly acquiring the land through non-payment of taxes.

The Board of Estimate and Apportionment of this city, in considering the city budget on Thursday, reduced the estimates for the Department of Public Works by about $500,000, and the estimates in the Park Department by $135,000.

Commissioner Hubert O. Thompson, of this city, on Thursday evening sent to Mayor Edson a long reply to statements published in the *Tribune* concerning the alleged mismanagement of the Department of Public Works. He asserts that under the opinions of the Corporation Counsel he had no choice but to accept "unbalanced bids." He thinks it is not surprising that mistakes were made in estimates, and holds that experienced contractors can make better estimates than any engineer. He states that the percentage of actual cost over estimated cost for the total of contracts made during his administration is extremely small. The practice of granting $999 orders he defends as legitimate and in the interest of the city.

General Grant, while alighting from a coupé, at his residence in this city on December 24, slipped and fell on his left side, sustaining a serious injury in the leg, about four inches below the hip-joint. The surgeons say that no bones are broken, and the supposition is that a bruise of the sciatic nerve has been sustained. He will be confined to the house for some time.

The testimony for the defence still continues in the Feuardent Cesnola case. Among the witnesses during the week was William C. Prime.

A State Convention of Colored Men was held in Columbus, Ohio, during the week. Resolutions were adopted to petition the Legislature to pass laws for their protection; to repeal all the old statutes against them; to improve the facilities for the education of colored youth, and asking both State and national aid for colored schools; recommending coöperation among colored people by the formation of joint-stock companies in business, and taking steps for the formation of civil-rights leagues. A similar convention was held at Norwich, Connecticut, on Thursday.

A State Convention of Ohio Liquor Dealers, held at Columbus on Thursday, adopted a resolution requesting the Legislature to repeal the Scott Liquor Tax law, and to enact "a judicious and constitutional law" in its place.

The biennial session of the Socialist Labor Congress met in Baltimore on Wednesday and continued in session three days.

Four negroes in jail at Yazoo City, Miss., for killing the Posey brothers and young Nicholls were lynched by an armed mob on Saturday evening. Two of them were hanged and two were shot.

A severe gale did considerable damage in New England on Thursday. It was preceded by a thunder shower.

Brigadier-General Mackenzie, the Commander of the Department of Texas, has been relieved of his command temporarily because afflicted with serious mental trouble, occasioned by nervous prostration.

The wife of General W. S. Rosecrans, of California, died in Washington on December 25.

Brigadier-General Andrew A. Humphreys, U. S. A. (retired), died suddenly at his residence in Washington on Thursday night, about 10:30 o'clock, from an attack of angina pectoris. He had a brilliant record both military and civil. He was especially conspicuous for bravery at Gettysburg. He held the

office of Chief of Engineers from 1866 until his retirement in 1879. Several military and historical books have been published from his pen.

Mr. Joseph Longworth, one of the wealthiest citizens of Cincinnati, died on Sunday in his seventieth year. He founded the School of Design in that city, giving it $100,000.

George W. Lane, President of the Chamber of Commerce in this city, died on Sunday morning at the age of sixty-five. He was a prominent citizen, and trustee of many important institutions.

The Rev. Dr. Benjamin Nicholas Martin, Professor of Logic and Intellectual and Moral Philosophy in the University of the City of New York, died on Wednesday, at his home in this city, aged sixty-seven. He was the author of many theological essays and of several books.

By the will of George Oakes Clark, of Milton, Mass., his estate, valued at $300,000, is left in trust for the benefit of his family, and after their decease and that of all his relatives the remaining portion of the estate is bequeathed to Harvard College.

The will of Professor Sophocles leaves the bulk of his estate, valued at about sixty thousand dollars, to Harvard College, to be kept as a permanent fund, and called the Constantius Fund, in memory of his uncle, applying the income in two equal parts, one to the purchase of Greek, Latin, and Arabic books for the College, and the other to publishing the catalogue of the College library.

A despatch was received from Hanover, Germany, in Albany, on Thursday announcing that Col. Henry R. Rathbone had shot and killed his wife and then attempted to commit suicide. It is probable that he may survive. The deed was committed while he was suffering from melancholia. Mrs. Rathbone was a daughter of United States Senator Harris of Albany, and Colonel Rathbone was a cousin of ex-Adjutant-General John F. Rathbone. Colonel Rathbone and Miss Harris were present in the box at Ford's Theatre with President Lincoln the night of the assassination. Colonel, then Major, Rathbone attempted to seize Wilkes Booth, and was severely wounded in the arm by the dagger of the assassin.

FOREIGN.

It was reported in Paris on Thursday that the French Government had urged Admiral Courbet to follow up his victory at Sontay with the utmost promptness. It is expected that he will make an attack upon Honghoa, some twenty miles above Sontay, before he marches his forces against Bacninh. It was rumored on the Bourse, on Friday, that a French force had landed upon the island of Hainan, which is opposite the mouths of the delta of the Red River, and commands the Straits of Hainan, through which all commerce via the Gulf of Tonquin passes to Hong Kong. The rumor was not confirmed. On Saturday it was also rumored that China, acting under the advice of the European Powers, had withdrawn her troops from Bacninh.

The London *Times* on Monday asserted that it had the best authority for saying that China wants peace, and that if France will return to her original policy in Tonquin, and abstain from further hostile action on the Red River, a pacific agreement is almost certain; and that China will abate some of her first pretensions if France will show a conciliatory spirit. The *Times* added: "The rejection by the French of these offers must result in the triumph of the anti-foreign party in Pekin. China's desire for peace being sincere, the Powers interested should offer their mediation collectively."

A scheme for the revision of the French Constitution as prepared by M. Ferry, Prime Minister, chiefly aims at the abolition of the office of Life Senator and the restoration of the *scrutin de liste* system of voting. It is believed that the party of the Right will support the latter proposition.

A decree prohibiting the importation into France, except at three specified ports, of American salted meats was published in Paris on Saturday. Marseilles, Havre, and Bordeaux are the three exceptions. All importations of hog meats were absolutely prohibited after January 20, 1884.

The anniversary of the death of Gambetta was observed in Paris on Monday. A memorial tablet was erected at his residence at Ville d'Auray, and wreaths were deposited upon his tomb at Nice.

Jean Baptiste Cicéron Lesueur, a French architect, and member of the Institute, is dead. He was born in 1794. About 1840 he took part in the enlargement and completion of the Paris Hôtel de Ville. He was a professor in the School of Fine Arts in that city in 1852.

The supporters of Señor Sagasta, who form a majority in the Spanish Chamber of Deputies, are more than ever opposed to the programme of universal suffrage and reform of the Constitution. The rupture between the different Liberal groups is complete. On Monday it was telegraphed from Madrid that Gen. Lopez Dominguez, the Spanish Minister of War, having insisted that the reply of the Cortes to the speech from the throne should bind the Liberal majority to approve of universal suffrage, the revision of the Constitution, and a dissolution of the Cortes, conciliation had broken down and Señor Sagasta had the Cortes and the country with him.

A decree was gazetted in Madrid on Thursday abrogating Article 5 of the decree of the 12th of March, 1868, whereby goods from the United States pay duty in Cuba as if they had been brought in foreign ships, even when arriving under the Spanish flag.

Intelligence was received in this country on Thursday of the arrival at Oporto, Portugal, of fifty-three men who were on board the Belgian steamship *Plantyn*, which sailed from New York November 11 for Antwerp, and had not since been heard from. The vessel was disabled by a hurricane on November 17, but was kept afloat until December 6 by hard work at the pumps. On that day the passengers and crew were rescued by a British brig.

King Humbert of Italy has consented, in accordance with the wishes of the Pope, to erect the proposed tomb of the late King Victor Emmanuel in a side chapel of the Pantheon at Rome, instead of in the centre of the structure.

The American Bishops remaining in Rome deny that any agreement has been arrived at by them concerning the attitude of the Catholic clergy of the United States toward Fenianism.

A commission which has been sitting for many months preparing a reform of local administration for Russia has completed its task. Count Tolstoi, the Minister of the Interior, however, opposes its conclusions so strongly that a conflict between the Commission and the Minister has arisen, and the Emperor has been appealed to.

Lieutenant-Colonel Sudeikin, of the Russian Gendarmerie, was enticed into the Rathoff building near the Moscow Railway station, on Friday night, by false information that a Socialist meeting was to be held there, and was then killed by several Nihilists. A despatch says: "The assassination had a most depressing effect on the Czar, who was on the point of making constitutional concessions, but is now said to be firmly resolved on the most stringent and unbending measures." It is believed that the murderers were agents of Sudeikin who were secret Nihilists. They left letters behind saying that their next victims would be Count Tolstoi and General Gresser, chief of the St. Petersburg police.

There appears to be a revival of attempts to destroy life and property by the use of explosives. There was an explosion at Birkenhead, England, on the night of the 25th, and a dynamite cartridge was exploded in Barrack Street, Strabane, Ireland, on Wednesday, destroying the roof of a house.

About 20,000 people attended the meeting of Orangemen at Dromore, County Tyrone, on Tuesday, and about 2,000 people attended the Nationalist meeting at the same place. At the Orange meeting the Government was accused by the speakers of endeavoring to secure the Parnellite vote by prohibiting loyal and allowing Nationalist meetings. Resolutions were passed opposing home-rule in Ireland. The usual speeches supporting the objects of the League were delivered at the Nationalist meeting. Large bodies of cavalry, infantry, and police kept the rival parties separate during the speaking, but at the close of the meetings a collision occurred. A serious fight was waged between the two parties for some time, during which the cavalry and infantry charged several times. Revolver shots were exchanged, stones were thrown, and sticks were freely used. The fight ended only after the hussars and lancers had charged across the fields and wounded a number of Orangemen. The infantry, with fixed bayonets, escorted the Nationalists beyond the reach of the Orangemen.

A reunion of representative Scotch-Irishmen will be held at Belfast, Ireland, on July 4, 1884, at about the time of the Pan-Presbyterian Council.

A bill drawn by Mr. Justice Ilbert, and designed to give the same authority and jurisdiction to native judges in India, under the Criminal Jurisprudence Act, as have been and are now exercised by English judges, has created much comment and opposition among the European residents. They declare that it will create race antagonism. The native press oppose any compromise on the bill. The London *Times* has editorially condemned it.

Mr. Charles Bradlaugh, Member of Parliament for Northampton, England, announces that it is his intention to go to the House of Commons on the day of the opening of Parliament, the 5th of February, alone, and do his best to take his seat.

Heavy failures were reported from England on Monday. Among them were Alexander and Henry Brogden, iron masters, but not partners, whose liabilities aggregate more than $7,000,000. Ten minor failures in the iron trade were reported in Birmingham on Tuesday.

Mr. Lowell has decided to resign the Lord Rectorship of St. Andrew's University, the technical objections to the office being held by a foreign minister proving more formidable than he anticipated. The resignation is offered to relieve the authorities from the necessity of deciding the points that have been raised.

It was reported in Cairo on Wednesday that El Mahdi was advancing with his forces from El Obeid, and was expected to reach Khartum in ten days, but later advices alleged that El Mahdi had gone to attack Sennaar, and that he intended afterward to attack Khartum and then consolidate his forces and march northward.

The Haytian Minister to the United States has received the following despatch from his Government: "Jeremie has capitulated, and advises Jacmel and Miragoane to do the same. Miragoane has asked to capitulate."

A formidable riot occurred at Harbor Grace, Newfoundland, on Wednesday evening. The Orangemen of the city turned out in procession, with their regalia and flags, when they were attacked by the opposite faction, and five men were instantly killed and eighteen mortally or severely wounded.

MR. HEWITT ON TARIFF REFORM.

THE admirable letter which Mr. Hewitt has sent to the Albany *Argus* is the first clear and intelligent effort that any Democratic leader has made to define the present attitude of his party on the question of the tariff. There is no quibbling and no dodging in it. Mr. Hewitt was asked to give his views of the causes and the effect of the present depression in the iron industry, and the relation of that depression to existing tariff conditions. He responds frankly that the depression is largely due to the fact that the war tariff imposed higher duties than were needed for protection, thus giving excessive profits to the manufacturers in a period when the profits would have been large enough without such high protective duties; and that we are now suffering from the unnatural stimulation which the trade thus received. Starting from this general position, Mr. Hewitt gives expression to his views on the whole question of tariff legislation, and states his position with a clearness and force which ought to have a bracing effect upon the timid majority of his party, who seem to think that the only way to meet the tariff issue is to demand a "tariff for revenue, with incidental protection," and then explain that they don't really mean anything by that. Mr. Hewitt, speaking not only as a Democrat, but as one of the largest iron manufacturers in the country, says the lesson to be derived from experience is that the duties on all kinds of iron should never exceed the lowest possible point which, in time of depression, will protect the domestic market from a flood of foreign iron. "Such rates of duty, provided they are specific, will, on the average, yield the largest amount of revenue, because, when the price rises and the producer no longer needs protection, the consumer, who does need protection, can then supply his wants at a fair price in the foreign market without paying an increased duty, if he cannot get equally fair terms at home."

Passing from the iron industry to all industries, he says that the reduction of extra-protective duties to a reasonable standard of specific duties is the only practical means of avoiding an unhealthy expansion of business when it is active. "Extra-protective duties," he declares, "merely result in over-production, in the general derangement of industry, and in consequent suffering to workingmen by the loss of employment and the reduction of wages." On the point of wages in their relations to the tariff Mr. Hewitt's letter contains a few luminous and sound observations which sweep away completely the fallacious protectionist argument that high duties are always accompanied by high wages, and that low duties mean a reduction of American laborers to the level of the "pauper labor" of Europe. If other Democratic leaders would make Mr. Hewitt's arguments their own and use them fearlessly at all times, it would be a good deal more difficult for the protectionists to "fool" the workingmen on this point hereafter. The protectionists had a partial success with this issue in 1880 only because the Democrats were afraid to argue it with them; even then that success was so artificial that if the campaign had lasted a month longer it would have almost entirely vanished by election day.

Concerning the policy for his party to follow, Mr. Hewitt is specific and straightforward. So far as relief can be provided by legislation, he says the remedy must be found, "first in freeing raw materials from all duties, and, secondly, in imposing rates of duty on manufactured products not more than sufficient to make good the difference in the amount paid for labor, in the production of any given article in this country, as compared with the amount paid for the same labor in other countries with which we compete. For this purpose the incidental protection afforded by revenue duties will, as a rule, be found sufficient when any protection is needed." This he lays down as the Democratic programme, and endeavors to pull his party up to its performance by advancing strong arguments in favor of a manly policy as being in the long run both the best and most successful. "The mere politician," he says, "follows public opinion; the true statesman instructs it. His constant aim should be to make clear to those who depend upon their daily labor for their daily bread the real basis upon which their welfare rests, and then to trust to their intelligence and votes for support. Success on any other condition would be dishonor. Any party which expects to get power by playing the game of 'hide and seek' in politics does not deserve, and will not gain, the confidence of the country." All of that is as true as it can be, but whether the Democratic party will be able to realize it as such and act upon it is another matter. Mr. Hewitt speaks of his attitude as if it were the attitude of his party, which is very far from being the case now, though it may prove to be before the next National Convention meets.

At a recent date we called the attention of the Democratic leaders to the extreme desirability of their taking some definite position on the tariff in order that the country might know where they stood. Mr. Hewitt's letter is in direct accord with our remarks at that time, and cannot fail to have an effect upon other leaders who believe as he does, but who lack his courage and far-sightedness.

THE NEW STANDARD OF EMIGRATION.

THE determination of the Connellsville coke miners in Pennsylvania that the Hungarians who have attempted to settle among them "must go," shows that the feeling in favor of raising the standard of emigration is steadily gaining ground. It first showed its strength on the Pacific slope in the anti-Chinese movement. This was the first organized attempt in the history of the country to exclude foreigners from the country on the ground of their want of a high standard of life. The Californians objected to the Chinese, to be sure, as Mongolians, but mainly because they eat cheap food, and little of it, and work, in the mean Mongolian way, for very low wages. A very little experience satisfied the Californians that these habits made it impossible for them ever to become genuine Americans, and that they must consequently go. The movement excited attention on account of its novelty. The old theory of emigration was that the United States gave a welcome to all comers, especially the industrious poor, for their own sakes, if they saw any way to better their condition here, and for ours, as we needed more population. But the objection to the Chinese is that they are too industrious and too saving, the new Pacific slope standard evidently requiring that no alien should be allowed to settle here unless we can have some assurance that he will never work harder, eat less, nor save more than the average American. The Chinese do all these things in the most abandoned way, and, therefore, the Chinese "must go."

The new theory next found expression in the protest raised last summer against the "assisted" emigrants. It was strongly urged, by those engaged in developing the new doctrine, that no man or family ought to be admitted to the privileges of American life who came here by means of "assistance"—that they ought to come, if at all, in a dignified way, and not resort to the low practice of receiving money to pay for their passage. A careful examination of several ship-loads of "assisted" emigrants at Castle Garden revealed the suspicious circumstance that they had in most cases a small sum of ready money, and a railroad ticket to the West, which at once raised the question what they were going to do when they reached the West. According to their own account, they intended to work, but there was no satisfactory proof that they would not soon stop working, and thus blight the future of the whole Western country.

Indeed, the fact of bringing money from the other side raised a strong presumption that the emigrant was coming over here for the purpose of pauperizing America, on pretence of coming here for work; and the Secretary of the Treasury was strongly urged to send back all emigrants found with sums of money and railroad tickets in their possession as paupers in disguise. When it was discovered that the Secretary had no power to do this, it was suggested that Congress had better change the law. Those who opposed the admission of all assisted emigrants did not state exactly what class of persons they would allow to land, but the drift of their argument appeared to be that all but first-cabin passengers, or those who had no money at all, must go; so that, taking this in connection with the anti-Chinese movement, the new standard of admission seemed to involve the idea of a dislike of excessive toil, a love of dear food, and a disinclination to save, and also the habit of travelling first-class or travelling without money.

The Connellsville coke reformers have taken another step in the development of the theory. Their reasons for insisting that the Slavonians "must go" are numerous. Not only do these wretched barbarians fail to come up to the Coke standard in the same way that the Chinese fail to come up to the Pacific slope standard, and that the assisted emigrant fails to come up to our standard on the Atlantic seaboard, but their morals are not pure enough for Connellsville—their "marriage customs" being productive of much confusion as to

family relations—and their personal habits are unclean. Not to mince matters, what the Connellsville people say is, that the Hungarians do not wash thoroughly or often enough, and are consequently "filthy." This adds two new and important features to the standard. Not only must the emigrant eat expensive food and plenty of it, and work and save no more than the native laborer himself works and saves, but he must also be pure in life and clean in person.

What additions may be made to the standard hereafter no one can tell. As it stands it is a high one. As soon as it is put in a statutory form those here who do not conform to it "must go," and those abroad who do not conform to it will, we trust, to save trouble, not be permitted to land, for it is easier to keep undesirable people out than it is to expel them after they have once come. All that we should have to do would be to make the standard known through an act of Congress, and to require those now in the country who did not conform to it to go, and to exclude hereafter not only the Chinese, and all who work too hard and save too much, but the assisted, the impure, and the unclean. But the difficulty is that there are many signs of the growth of another standard, for domestic purposes, which, if applied generally, would lead to some curious results. In our own national life, every one knows that the moment a man goes to the other extreme and raises the standard too high, he is viewed with just as much suspicion as is the Asiatic or European whose standard is too low. In Connellsville, for instance, it is probably thought just as wrong for a man to wash himself too much or too frequently as it is for him to wash too little or too seldom; and even excessive purity and refinement are apt, in some parts of the country, to make the citizen a marked man. If we put the degraded and filthy Slavonian at one end of the scale, we are confronted at the other by the "daily bath and kid glove" American, the man who plays tennis in knickerbockers and a jersey, who hunts, who has a dog-cart or a coach. Everybody knows how often this class is reminded that it does not conform to the standard of American life. It is not told that it "must go," for to its credit it should be said that it is far less obstinate than the heathen Mongolian, or the filthy Slavonian, or the Italian "brigand." It does go whenever it can, and stays as long as it can, and so fond is it of going that, with a very little more pressure, it would perhaps stay away altogether.

It is obvious that the new standard, if adopted, will lead to important changes in the whole condition of American life. Great numbers of people who have come over here under the mistaken idea that the theory of emigration was a general welcome to all, will have to go. The new standard, avoiding all extremes, is apparently a sort of golden mean, which only needs now some precise definition by law. And this suggests the problem, involved or implicated with the question of who "must go," and which will no doubt shortly come up for discussion—Who is going to have permission to stay? For it will never do to discriminate unfairly in the application of a new standard. As to washing, for instance, this is particularly important. What is the golden mean in this respect? How much do the Connellsville critics of the Slavonians wash themselves? Would a bath a week with Castile soap be about right, or should such a matter be determined in every State by local option, like the question of licensing liquor saloons? The regulation and determination of the standard evidently calls for the spirit of compromise. It is apparently going to be high—though not too high.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

THE discussion which has been carried on by correspondents of the *Evening Post* for some weeks past, on the difficulty of getting good domestics, and on the reluctance of young American women, and, in fact, of all women who can get any other kind of employment, to accept employment in the kitchen, treats a very old topic. It is now fifty years at least since American families began to complain of the difficulty of getting proper "help," owing to the unwillingness of the native-born to serve in that capacity. For the last forty years they have been complaining of the badness of the substitute furnished by the Irish immigrants. Now, it would appear that even the Irish, such as they are, are not to be had, in the country districts at least, even on the seaboard, and that attempts to import them for household work in such districts are likely to be failures. As the Irish immigration is falling off somewhat rapidly, it would indeed not be at all surprising if we should before long find magazine writers on this theme referring to the period between 1840 and 1880 as at least the silver age of the kitchen, only inferior to the golden age of native American help which preceded it, and lamenting the Irish servant-girl as a lost source of household comfort.

All discussion of social and political topics we hold to be good, even if it does not seem immediately profitable; so that we will not affirm that any of the time spent over the "servant-girl problem" has been wholly wasted. But we think it would in many cases be more fruitful if it were remembered that this problem is not peculiar to the United States, though its solution may seem more pressing here than in the Old World. The difficulty of getting good servants, and especially of getting them in the country, is felt with greater or less intensity everywhere, and for three reasons. One is, that there is everywhere a rapid drift of the laboring population into the great towns; another is, that the great increase and cheapness of the means of locomotion has made the class which lives by its hands just as restless as every other. The third is, that every class dislikes all employments and occupations which have about them any traditional mark of social inferiority. In fact, nothing strikes one more curiously in these discussions about the difficulties of domestic service than the apparent unconsciousness of the writers that the traits and tendencies in the laboring class to which these difficulties are ascribed, are fully as marked in the employers. For instance, the reluctance of Irish household servants to live in the country, which has made anything like isolated country life so difficult for housekeepers in the United States, is indisputably just as marked a characteristic of nearly all classes of native Americans. It makes every young man and woman starting in the world eager to get to New York or Boston. It has left scores, if not hundreds, of beautiful country houses on the Hudson River desolate, because the owners prefer Newport, or Bar Harbor, or some other place where there is more going on, in summer, and the city in winter. Moreover, the restlessness which makes servant girls frequently quit even good places, apparently without any adequate motive, is simply, in a cruder form, that which every year sends their masters and mistresses to Europe or elsewhere, if they can afford it, and sends them to theatres and concerts in the evening, to amuse themselves, instead of staying at home and reading good books.

We think, too, that the disinclination of young women to take service in families when they can get work in stores or factories, would not seem so puzzling as it does, if the writers who wonder over it asked themselves why *they* would dislike household service. Self-interrogation is often, in social investigations, a solvent of remarkable power. There is no class in our time that does not feel the passion for equality, which seems in this democratic age to be almost the greatest of the social forces. It affects all circles as well as kitchen circles. Everybody either resents an assumption of social superiority on the part of his fellows, or avoids as far as he can all situations in which he is likely to be exposed to it; and, consequently, the occupations in which there is least contact with it are those most eagerly sought after. Kitchen employment is not only that in which a woman is most frequently reminded of her social inferiority, but that in which the traditions of the earlier period, when all laboring for hire was an admission of insignificance and incapacity, is still the strongest. Nearly every other occupation has passed out of this status into the contract stage—that is, is filled by persons who sell their labor as they would sell potatoes, and owe nothing more to the purchaser. Domestic servants, on the other hand, are still expected, besides rendering faithful work, to make daily and hourly acknowledgment of their social inferiority both in their speech and in their behavior. They have, too, no refuge from this necessity except their beds, and even there they are exposed to the word of command, and are expected to answer with deference, whether they feel it or not. They are the only class of the community, in short, from which politeness is, under all circumstances, expected, and which is occasionally punished for the want of it.

In what manner household work is to be satisfactorily done, is apparently still one of the secrets of the democratic age. Consequently, we do not profess to be able to produce any immediate remedy for the undoubted evils of the present situation. We think we see that there is not likely to be much good got out of preaching to the mill girls and the "sales-ladies," that they

would do better to take places in families, as long as the preachers are not themselves ready to set the example, and in fact feel, themselves, about hired kitchen work, exactly as the mill girls and sales-ladies feel. These latter, like all the rest of us, are the creatures of their time. The breezes both of the moral and intellectual air are, in our day, felt more or less in the basement as well as in the parlor. It will probably be a long while before the relations of the householder and his domestics are adjusted on the new basis. That there will always be a class devoted to household work is just as certain as that there will always be division of labor. But there will be a change in the way in which the mistress and maid think about each other and speak to each other, though it will probably take a long stretch of what some people call a "transition period" to bring this change to a final and satisfactory conclusion. Probably the most suggestive question anybody can ask to-day with reference to this topic is, why the manners of workingmen and women are not as good as those of anybody else. Why are they not as polite and considerate in social intercourse as their employers? Why are they not as clean and neat in their persons, out of working hours? In short, why have not working men and women as good manners and, out of working hours, as agreeable an exterior as clerks, or ministers, or lawyers, or governesses, or authoresses, or musicians? The answer to this question would probably throw more light on the kitchen question than any other. The next great social revolution will undoubtedly be the disappearance of the ancient connection between manual labor and boorishness and coarseness. There is no formidable reason, after all, why the man or woman who works with the hands should not be externally as polite, have as pleasant a voice, speak as good English, make as good a bow, and be as considerate and careful about other people's convenience, and comforts, and feelings, as those who work with their brains, or live on their investments. It is a matter of youthful training simply, working on the self-respect of which every civilized human being has at least the germ.

EVANGELINUS APOSTOLIDES SOPHOCLES.

HARVARD COLLEGE has lost one of her most remarkable men. Probably no one connected with her academic society has left so vivid a personal impression on the graduates of the past forty years as the venerable Greek who has just passed away. Such a character as Professor Sophocles seldom finds his way even into the academic circles of our Western world. He was as rare a phenomenon among us as a monk of the middle ages, or even an ancient Greek, would have been. His peculiar dress; his slow, deliberate walk; his solemn, oracular utterance; the peculiar mixture of childish simplicity and biting sarcasm in his casual remarks; and his half-genuine, half-affected cynicism, were all familiar to the many classes who passed under his instruction while he was tutor in Greek to the Freshmen. Even in later years, when only a few special students enjoyed his teaching, every member of the College knew him well, and often looked with curiosity and wonder upon him as he walked to and from his room in the west entry of Holworthy. This room had been his abode since 1847, and it had generally served him for a kitchen as well as sleeping-room and study. Here he prepared his frugal meals, except when he gave his friends the rare privilege of his company; and when his dinner was ready he pushed aside the tomes of the Christian Fathers from his little table to make room for his plate. Nothing could induce him to change his hermit's cell for a more social mode of existence, and he would have been positively unhappy if he had been compelled to conform to the common rules of domestic life. He did not choose this solitary and inexpensive life from motives of economy, for he died a comparatively rich man; nor from any spirit of meanness, for he was one of the most benevolent men in the community, giving away quietly and unostentatiously every year more than would have sufficed to maintain him in elegance and luxury. He probably retained to the last some of the monkish spirit which he brought in his youth from the monastery of Mt. Sinai, in which he spent several years before he came to this country, and much of his peculiarity of manner must have come from the same source.

If one were to write a biography of Sophocles which should be in perfect keeping with his character and his wishes, he would disclose absolutely nothing of his history. His feelings on this point were strong and strongly expressed. When he was asked to correct the life of himself which now appears in Allibone's 'Dictionary of Authors,' he replied: "I shall tell them nothing; and if they publish anything, I shall always say it is a lie." We may perhaps venture to say that he was born in the village of Tsangarada, in Thessaly, on the slope of Mt. Pelion, in the early part of this century; that he spent several years in the Sinaitic monastery, partly on the Holy Mountain itself and partly in the branch at Cairo; that the death of an uncle, who was a high official in the monastery, caused him to emigrate to the United States, and prevented him from remaining as one of the brethren of Mount Sinai; that he entered as a Freshman at Amherst College in 1829, but remained only part of a year there; that he afterwards lived at Hartford and at New Haven, and came to Cambridge as tutor in Greek in 1842, remaining there until 1845, and, after an absence of two years, returned in 1847, since which year he had been identified with Harvard College. He remained tutor until 1859, when he was made Assistant Professor of Greek; and in 1860 he became University Professor of Ancient, Modern, and Byzantine Greek. His most important published works are his Greek Grammar, which appeared in two editions, and was very widely used; a Romaic or Modern Greek Grammar; a Catalogue of Anomalous Greek Verbs; a History of the Greek Alphabet and Pronunciation; and a Greek Lexicon of the Roman and Byzantine Periods, which was a larger edition of his Glossary of the Later and Byzantine Greek, published by the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Professor Sophocles was a scholar of extraordinary attainments. His knowledge of the whole length and breadth of the Greek literature, from Homer to the present day, could hardly be surpassed, and he had much rare and profound erudition on points on which most Western scholars are ignorant. But he was, on the other hand, little acquainted with modern German scholarship; and the works of the great masters of classic philology in Germany, except so far as they were written in Latin or translated into English, were almost unknown to him, as he never learned German so as to read it with any facility. But much which others learned with toil seemed to come to him by intuition, and many things in his books which might appear to be borrowed from others are really original with him. He was as eccentric in his teaching as in everything else that he did. He had much of the Socratic way of asking questions to show a pupil his ignorance, and then leaving him to help himself as best he could. He often asked a question, especially if a visitor was in his class-room, merely to open the way for a joke or a sarcasm. He once passed a question about a peculiar Greek accent entirely round a class, eliciting various crude guesses, and then dryly remarked: "It is a misprint." Many will remember his question as to what was done with the Persians who were killed at Thermopylæ. This called out various answers, to which he replied by a shake of his head; but when one hopeless Freshman replied that he did not know, he answered: "That is right; nobody knows." These anecdotes, with a thousand others, both historial and mythical, are very characteristic of his style of teaching, which did not always follow strictly scientific methods.

He had a great hatred of impostors of every kind, and it was not very safe for any such to approach him. A man recently called on him with some manuscripts, professing to be autographs of some of the early Fathers of the Church. He exposed the pretensions of several without losing his composure; but when at last the original manuscript of the Athanasian Creed, in the writing of St. Athanasius, (!) was produced, he called his visitor's attention to a large club in the corner of the room, and pointed significantly towards the door, by which the terrified man made his escape with some precipitation. We may venture to mention here a piece of history for the benefit of future historians of Harvard College. In the spring of 1858 it was proposed to abolish the barbarous custom of having morning prayers at six o'clock in the spring and summer. Mr. Sophocles had already given his vote for the change, but before the result could be announced by the President, the not infrequent excitement of a small bonfire on the steps of University Hall interrupted the proceedings of the Faculty. After the bonfire he changed his vote, and the six o'clock prayers were kept another year by a majority of one. On hearing the result he intimated that early rising would keep people out of mischief at night, and he certainly felt that six o'clock prayers would be unpleasant to the makers of the bonfire. Let us hope that they were!

If any one judged by his stern and often forbidding manner that he was really harsh or unfeeling, it was an utter mistake. No man ever had a more tender heart, although he sometimes seemed anxious to conceal it. Nobody who ever saw him the centre of a group of children could doubt his kindness or his human sympathies. In his declining years, when his books were less attractive, and when it sometimes seemed as if his solitary life occasionally oppressed him, he devoted his attention to a poultry yard, in which every chicken was named (generally for his special friends) and treated with personal consideration. His grief at the loss of a favorite chicken was truly affecting, and an invalid in his yard was nursed and tended as carefully as a child. Chickens were forbidden food to him after he thus became interested in their race. Although Professor Sophocles was a man of great benevolence, he studiously avoided most of the ordinary charities, and seldom or never put his name to a subscription paper. But in his own way, and often when it was least suspected, he used the greater part of his annual income in gifts of kindness. Many are the poor who will miss his charity now that his room is vacant.

In later years he had renewed his relations

with the monks of Mt. Sinai, and as his strength failed, his mind wandered more and more to the home of his youth. In February last he received a letter from the delegation of the Sinaitic brethren resident at Cairo, which cheered and comforted him in his weakness and depression. They write:

"We returned only yesterday from Mt. Sinai. We ascended to the monastery, where, with our Archbishop and all our brethren there resident, we celebrated solemnly and with all the forms and ceremonies of the Church the annual festival of our holy Saint, and offered fervent prayers and supplications to the God who descended upon Sinai that he might, through the intercession of our patron Saint, graciously grant to us your complete restoration to health, and we directed that your honored name should be expressly mentioned each day in the religious services."

The same brethren in Cairo sent him their congratulations by telegraph on his last Saint's-day. It will be a long time, we fear, before such messages will be again sent to Harvard College.

AMONG THE "MATERIALIZERS."

BOSTON, December 26.

SPIRITUALISM has taken something of a new departure lately, and it is noticeable enough to be worth describing. The process called materialization, by which what appears to be a form from spirit land manifests itself to believers still in the flesh, has been known for many years, but during the last year or so it has been improved and extended so as to assume quite a novel character. This new form which the séance has taken is said to be confined as yet to the great seaport cities, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia; but it is so successful there that it is pretty certain to spread.

At the present time there are in this city at least five mediums who are giving these séances four or five times a week each; so that if we compare the frequency of their meetings with those of most of the other sects, the spiritualists seem among the most active. The audience is necessarily small, but even the less successful ones are crowded, and seats have to be engaged long in advance; and the money taken in would support half a score of country ministers. The sitters are limited to a couple of dozen or so, in order that each may have a good position and receive a special revelation, for much of the popularity of these meetings is due to the interest that each one takes in an entertainment in which he has a personal share. The entrance fee once paid, a special spirit is pretty sure to be provided for the sitter, and generally one of an extremely affectionate, not to say demonstrative, disposition. He may not recognize the supernatural visitant, but at least he can feel its embraces, and every effort is made to make him have a good time and come again.

Most of the sitters seem to be Americans of the middle class. I have met a number of Germans, but very few Irish. Once or twice I encountered a party of well-dressed people, the youthful portion of which had come apparently for a lark, and I saw one or two people who looked fast; but generally the circle was made up mostly of simple elderly folk—retired sea captains, speculatively inclined mechanics, and the like. An introduction to one's companions did not seem to be required as a preliminary to conversation with either sex. Probably the close physical contact of the several members of the circle—who are usually arranged with alternate men and women—the music, the dim light, and occasional excitement all inspired ease; but I may mention that in the more expensive ones it was not considered good form for the men to sit in their shirt-sleeves. The general tone was one of earnest credulity, with a deceptive flavor of judicial inquiry, and some occasional light-hearted chaff. The precautions taken against fraud were extremely slight, indeed only nominal. The sitters were evidently convinced that, as Whittier says:

> "The sphere of the supernal powers
> Impinges on this world of ours,"

and no one wanted to disturb his own portion of the contact by any rude cavilling.

Thus the new revelation was accepted on very easy terms. One man was strongly affected by being addressed by a spirit by his first name (Calvin), although his next neighbor had called him by it audibly enough only a few minutes before. Another man spoke of the curious freaks of some musical spirits at a previous séance (*see-ance*, by the way, seemed to be the popular pronunciation), where certain instruments, fastened up outside the cabinet, were played upon while the medium was supposed to be within the curtains, and some fresh paint with which the instrument had been daubed was found on the medium's fingers afterwards. This showed, he said, the tricky character of the spirits, who thought it was a great joke to drum on the instrument and make it appear that the medium had done it. Another man spoke with easy confidence of the facility with which spirits imitated the voice, form, and carriage of the medium when they materialized (*mate-erllized* was the way in which I usually heard this word pronounced). Once an unhappy individual rose and asked if he might go into the cabinet; but this was considered as disturbing the meeting, and we had to wait with joined hands for five minutes before there came another manifestation. The occasional exposures have no effect on such an audience.

But let us go to one of the séances and see the details. It is in the part of the city given over to cheap boarding-houses. The room is an ordinary one of some twelve or fifteen feet square, with a double row of chairs round three sides of it, and on the other the usual dark cabinet. In some cases, an alcove, or a small room curtained off from the one where the circle is held, takes the place of a cabinet. After the audience has assembled, the gas is extinguished, leaving only one lamp, which is screened by a curtain, so that there is barely light to show one's features to those who are close at hand, but not enough to show anything but the form a few feet off. Against the dark cabinet curtains figures clothed in black can hardly be distinguished, but the white forms are very clear. We look around and count twenty-three persons, including one or two men who sit or stand by the cabinet, partly to act as ushers or masters of ceremonies to the spirits, and partly to guard against awkward accidents. One of them has a music box with which he fills the pauses in the singing. We are told to keep our feet on the floor and not to cross our legs; but there is seldom any pretence of holding hands in the old way; and we dispose of ourselves in as easy a posture as the hard chairs will allow, and join in the singing. "In the sweet by and by," "There are angels hovering around," and "Beulah-land" seem the favorites, but we have occasionally more commanding ones, "Nearer, my God, to Thee," or lighter ones, like "Auld lang syne." From an artistic point of view they cannot be called entirely successful, but they keep us amused in the pauses, and, for some curious psychological reason, most people feel more like singing in the dark, in a crowd, and are put at their ease by it.

We do not have to wait long. In a few instants there is a mysterious gleam of something white before the dark curtain behind which the medium has gone in her trance; the music pauses, and the more susceptible lean forward and draw long intense breaths. The white gleam becomes a veiled woman who advances into the room; and I feel my next neighbor tremble, and see the big drops of sweat start out on his forehead, and the woman on the other side leans heavily against my shoulder. The spirit beckons to some one; and a series of inquiries by the various members of the audience, "Is it me?" "Is it me?" presently shows that a young man is wanted who goes forward nearly to the curtain and is whispered to, embraced, and very audibly kissed; and the spirit then goes back behind the curtain, but reappears again for a moment to exchange some more kisses. Then a similar performance is gone through by another spirit with another sitter, a young woman this time, who is so excited that she nearly faints away, the kissing being very animated and prolonged again—then and indeed all through the evening. The next phantom seems that of a little child, a mere baby, but it does not entirely emerge from the curtains. Then appears a female form in white tulle, which seems the favorite spiritual travelling costume even in wintry weather, and this one has a phosphorescent gleam in her hair and belt like imprisoned fire-flies, which is really very pretty in the dusky light. Another very neat little performance is that of materializing flowers. The spirit takes your hand and makes a series of little pats and passes, and presently you find a flower between your fingers, which you are told is fresh from spirit land. The rose I receive must have been a good while on the way, from its faded condition; but the mysterious effect was very well arranged.

Then comes a short delay, and a figure in man's clothes emerges from the cabinet and seats himself affectionately in the lap of a young woman and kisses her warmly. And we learn that he was a friend of her father's who has regained his youth in the other life to a degree very comforting to some of the members of our party. The young woman never knew him in the flesh (recognition seems very difficult in a large proportion of the manifestations), but that counts for nothing in the happy abandon of spiritualism. Then come other forms, including a boy who dances round and balances a chair on his chin; and a very devotional nun. Presently a white-veiled woman summons one of the members of our party, whom she kisses and calls her darling, in longing whispers, somewhat to his embarassment, as he is not aware of having before had the pleasure of her acquaintance—a brunette he afterwards describes her, with a firm, warm clasp of the hand, full clinging lips, and sleepy eyes. She wears very, very little clothing except her veil, and seems not only very human, but strikingly like a young woman whom he has since seen in the flesh. Presently she retreats to the curtain and "dematerializes" directly in front of it. This is one of the cleverest feats, as the form appears to grow gracefully shorter and fainter until it becomes a mere glimmer and melts away, leaving nothing but a rapidly disappearing white puddle of muslin against the opening in the curtains; and it adds very much to the effect of the scene.

Another of our party is less fortunate. No doubt sundry mocking whispers have shown his incredulity too plainly, for when his summons comes he has to go shamefacedly back to his seat without any response. A little later another one is rapped for, and one of the shutters at the side of the cabinet quickly flies back, and in the window appears a white face which reminds him so strongly of a familiar barber's

block that it is hard for him to keep his countenance when he is asked if he recognizes it. It must be confessed that the medium gets the better of him a little later, however, when she comes out to deliver some messages from the departed; for then she explains that the spirit has assumed an appearance like that of our friend whom she addressed, in order to communicate more easily with him. This was plainly a fair hit, but she was not so successful when she suggested that it was the spirit of his father, as that gentleman is still in the flesh. She then went on to say that this would-be paternal spirit wished to be his guide in life. Some might call him his guardian, but he called himself his guide; but his guide was his guardian, and his guardian was his guide. He had come to tell him of the Beulah-land. If he would be happy he must be good, and especially he must yield to the spirit guidance; and so on at considerable length. To another of us she said that she saw a bell over his head, shutting him in as it were, and warning him with a tongue of foreboding. The effect of this was injured by a jocose inquiry from another young man if she meant a belle with an *e*; but the medium brought down the house by a simple rejoinder that she always spelt bell with an *e*. Before this I should have mentioned that the spirit of the little boy Billy made a prayer, in which his petition for daily bread was interrupted by an interlude of chaff with one of the audience, who wanted to know what he wanted of bread when he hadn't any bread-basket. But Billy held his own, and after a little repartee finished his prayer with great cheerfulness.

Altogether about a score of spirit forms appeared, so that each visitor got his money's worth. The difference in height showed that if the spirits were of human origin at least two persons must have been concerned; but they seemed to come in assorted sizes of only two dimensions. The various spirit voices and songs were not beyond the power of a single flexible voice to imitate. Looked at from any point of view, it was very cleverly done, however, and was at times quite thrilling.

There are many slight variations at the different séances. Some are solemnly dull, and some very lively. Sometimes the sitting ends with spirit messages, and sometimes not. One medium holds her séances in pitchy darkness, the spirits appearing with a phosphorescent light illuminating their white garments, which is very weird and phantasmal. Even here, though, where the supernatural effect was strongest, the audience was very light-hearted and jocular. There seems to be nothing left of the blood-curdling horror with which the old-fashioned ghost was greeted. Much fun was made by slang addressed to the shades between the hymns, and answered in a spirit of unworldliness so extremely guileless as to greatly amuse the hearers.

Underlying these minor variations, there is a great likeness in general effect, and that effect is both exciting and amusing; but it is undeniably a little profane and very vulgar. An entertainment which gives a dozen or two of such affectionate spirits for fifty cents or a dollar is not extravagantly high priced, but it must be confessed that it is not a very convincing or edifying one. It is not as bad as the private séances, which are often a mere cover for crime. It is not as silly as the physical séances, where one is slapped on the back or boosted on to the table in the dark, with a chair on one's head. It is indeed very well suited to attain its object; and the number of people who go regularly to these meetings time after time to meet some lost friend shows their success. But there is no intellectual substance to the revelation, and it is easy enough to see the traces of that free love which taints the whole literature of spiritualism and arrests its progress. Evidently the Quaker poet was far too hopeful when he wrote:

> "The power is lost to self deceive
> With shallow forms of make-believe."

H.

THE PARNELL BANQUET—JURY PACKING.

DUBLIN, December 15.

IT appears desirable that I should interrupt the consideration of the local government of Ireland to refer to some matters of perhaps less, but more immediate, importance. The event of the week has been a banquet to Mr. Parnell upon the completion of the "Parnell Tribute." The amount that fund has reached (£37,000) has been a surprise to many, and the fact that most of it has been collected in Ireland tends to remove the stigma cast upon her—that she is so ready to rely upon outside assistance for the furtherance of her desires. The success of this fund is most significant both as regarding Ireland's estimate of Mr. Parnell, in opposition to Mr. Forster's charges, and as a protest against Papal interference in politics.

The banquet was not paid for from the collection, but by a charge of twenty-five shillings per guest. I do not know to what extent such displays prevail with you. Here they seem to be a somewhat uncivilized, expensive, and wasteful way of honoring an individual and forwarding a cause. The civic banquets in London and Dublin, enjoyed by the few, are paid for by the many; and it is a hopeful sign that, now that the municipality here has fallen into the hands of the Nationalists, the wastefulness and absurdity of such entertainments are beginning to be protested against. That so much money should be here spent upon such an occasion is rather inconsistent in those who protest loudly against landlords amusing themselves while there is so much distress in the country. If the banquet did not equal the brilliant descriptions of National journalists, neither did it merit the sneers cast upon it by the London *Times*, nor the cynical congratulations of the Irish Conservative press, regarding the judgment with which the committee had selected the guest roll from among the overwhelming numbers of "cattle-boughers," "assassins," and "dynamitards," who must have applied for tickets.

However the company was composed, it was a pretty fair representation of those who in the future are likely to be the governing classes in this country, and as such the spectacle is worthy our serious consideration. There were present some twenty members of Parliament and the mayors of several towns. Upon the whole, the impression of the occasion is disappointing to those who had hoped that Irish agitation was entering upon a higher plane, where all could heartily join. There was occasionally manifested in the speeches a vagueness, a bitterness of tone, and a want of gentlemanly feeling that was discouraging. It would appear so easy to be determined and yet dignified in a good cause. Perhaps, considering the history and present condition of Ireland, we seek for more than we ought to expect. Bitterness and ungentleness are perhaps common to all effective struggles against wrong. This must be realized and allowed for; but where these sentiments are preëminent in a movement, it is impossible to secure the continued hearty co-operation of men of a certain training and turn of thought. The demonstration gave proof of no mere passing emotions; abiding force of some kind, leading somewhere, was there. But what that force really is, and whither it is tending, it is difficult to decide. Mr. Parnell, in his apparent impassiveness and haughtiness, is not at all the leader we should have looked for in Ireland. That he is able to live as he does in London, and to keep aloof, so far as we see, from passing Irish interests—even avoiding, as he did upon a late occasion, addressing his constituents—and yet that he should retain his hold upon the Irish people, is indeed striking. In the course of his speech he did not directly utter a word of thanks for the fund just presented to him. Yet I doubt whether any Irish leader was ever more generally loved and trusted. He is thoroughly believed in. In all he does he is supposed to be acting from some deep motive, perhaps unknown to all but himself, and for which not even he is to be asked to account at present. It is a strange and might be almost an unsupportable position—the reckoning might be so bitter in the end. But he seldom appeared better than he does at present. He is handsomer and has more light in his face than when he entered upon politics ten years ago.

His was the only really striking speech of the evening. It is much to be regretted that some passages appeared so unnecessarily antagonistic. Portions of this address will not soon be forgotten by those who heard them—his denunciation of the imprisonment of the Harringtons; his reference to Mr. Trevelyan, commencing with, "But what shall we say of Mr. Trevelyan, a distinguished radical, the good nephew of his great grand-uncle?" and leading up through a not too severe exposure of the conduct of the Government regarding the Northern meetings to these words: "Mr. Forster used to have a trick of overwhelming us by saying that his great ambition was to enable everybody in Ireland to do what they had a legal right to do; but Mr. Trevelyan's great ambition seemed to be to prevent anybody in Ireland from doing what they had a legal right to do."

A speech that gave rise to painful considerations was Mr. Sexton's. He claims to be one of Mr. Parnell's foremost lieutenants. He has at times, in the House of Commons and elsewhere, made speeches of considerable power and brilliancy. But certainly on this occasion he did not show any Christian wisdom or statesmanlike conception of facts. He implied that we should regard England with "holy hatred," and that the sole purpose of government here is "plunder." He gravely declared to a cheering audience that "England is no longer preëminent in manufactures or in commerce: England no longer claims to be mistress of the seas, and if England to-day pretended that she was able to take an equal place at the council board of Europe with the military nations of Europe, her claim would be flouted with scorn." Mr. Davitt's presence and remarks belied the impression that there was not a good understanding between the two great leaders, at least in essentials; while the steady utterances of Mr. Gray, M. P., editor of the *Freeman's Journal*, a paper which at first was by no means entirely favorable to the Land League, were a striking proof of the overmastering influence of Mr. Parnell in Irish affairs.

But if the considerations raised by the Parnell banquet were discouraging to some who are impelled by their convictions to take a part in Irish politics, what has been passing in the court-house at Green Street should convince them that great efforts are indeed required for a modification of the present régime. The dock there has this week been again crowded with respectable-looking frieze-coated peasants. Those who appear there at present are on trial for the commission of a barbarous murder—that of Mrs. Smythe, in the County Westmeath, in March, 1882. There is no reason to suppose that this or any other murder was instigated by the

Land League. When poor Mrs. Smythe's brains were spattered over the faces of her brother and Lady Monck, who sat in the carriage with her, the League had been suppressed, and Mr. Parnell, the leaders, and the other suspects had been in prison for many months. Still we cannot deny that the deed arose from the way in which the land question is viewed by the peasantry; and, with the shadow of this murder so clearly brought home to our consideration, it is difficult to understand how Mr. Parnell could have declared in his speech, that "even in association" with the late movement there was "such an utter absence of crime."

The trial of these men is not yet concluded; the jury wait only the judge's charge—all the evidence having been given. There is nothing in it that would lead me to convict the prisoners. But if they are not guilty, others of their class are, and with several individuals near at the time of the occurrence there are none to give evidence but men of apparently the worst character, and who expect large Government rewards, representing to them permanent fortune. The dock in which the prisoners stand is that from which in 1798 scores of the United Irishmen were sent to the gallows: it is that from which Emmet, one of the most chivalrous characters in Irish politics, delivered his famous speech before sentence and execution; it is the dock which from those days to the present has been the central one of many all over the country from which, through assizes, and jail deliveries, and special commissions, have been sent thousands to imprisonment and death (imprisonment often worse than death) for crimes which could arise only in a badly regulated country.

And then the means by which it is now sought to bring punishment home to these men, if guilty! Until within some fifteen years ago the summoning of juries in Ireland, for both civil and criminal cases, was practically in the hands of the crown officials, and was carried out in a grossly unfair manner. The few citizens were victimized, the many escaped scot free from service. In civil special juries, where twenty-one shillings per juror, per case, is allowed when a decision is arrived at, a class of "guinea pigs" grew up who almost made a living by the business, who were believed to bribe the Sheriff's officers to summons them, and who were careful to commend themselves to the court and the bar by not giving much trouble in arriving at decisions. In criminal cases, culprits had little chance of ever being tried by their peers. This was all changed by Lord O'Hagan's Act, and for many years everything went admirably. Jury service was spread over the whole tax paying community, every one was called to service only in rotation, and there was no possibility of juries being unfairly selected. But the land agitation arose, and it was often found impossible to secure the conviction of the most undoubted criminals, where the crime could be in any way connected with the occupation of land or with politics; and of course from that the gradation was easy and natural to a lenient view of all crime. One of the chief provisions of the last Coercion Act was therefore to permit change of venue, and a reversal in criminal cases, where so desired by the crown, to the old plan of selecting juries. In that a larger number of jurors are summoned upon a definite basis, it is fairer than the state of things that existed before O'Hagan's Act; but in that this larger number belong in the main to a caste imbued generally with inimical feelings towards the class from which Irish agrarian offenders are drawn, and in that the prisoner can challenge peremptorily without cause only twenty in capital and six in other cases, while the crown has unlimited right of challenge, the present system amounts to selection by the crown and cannot work fairly. And still, only for some temporary change, society would hardly have held together. The strenuous opposition of Nationalists to all such interferences with the ordinary law is of course based on the conviction that, if certain radical changes were made in the government of the country, such drastic and disturbing measures would be no more necessary in Ireland than elsewhere. Under the present system I feel little doubt but that some innocent men have been sent to the scaffold and several into penal servitude. Except for appearances, trial before a bench of judges without a jury would be fairer. Certainly an innocent man would prefer to be so tried. It is most painful to see men going into the jury-box to try those against whom they are hopelessly prejudiced.

An analysis of the connections and probable proclivities of jurors summoned up to a certain period was some time ago privately circulated over Ireland. It was suppressed by the police, and very properly, for it was issued with the evident intention not of condemning the system so much as of subjecting to opprobrium and perhaps violence the jurors who had served under it. Reference to other statistics, however, exemplifies how the system has been worked. The population of the County of Dublin is composed of 10 Protestants to 32 Catholic. The prisoners to be tried were all Catholics. Upon some important cases some months ago two panels were summoned from which to select jurors for the trial of a number of capital cases. The panels were found to consist of sixty-three Protestants and thirty-seven Catholics, and fifty-two Protestants and forty-eight Catholics, respectively. There were five juries empannelled. The first was all Protestant, the second all Protestant, the third all Protestant, the fourth all Protestant, the fifth all Protestant. It can easily be imagined what effect these proceedings have upon a Catholic country: all law is brought into contempt, and the mass of the people are inclined to sympathize with every criminal. This general demoralization is the worse result.

And then justice is not only liable to be perverted, but it is delayed under the present procedure. One of the main points of Magna Charta was that justice should neither be denied nor delayed. The men now being tried are in custody since May. Many of those tried and convicted on the clearest evidence within the past years would have escaped free if they had not been detained in prison until evidence was forthcoming upon which a jury was likely to convict. So it was with Poole, now under sentence of death. He has been, if I mistake not, more than a year in custody. But, on the other hand, some men have been kept in prison for months, and in some cases over a year, by adjournment after adjournment, at the desire of the crown, and have then been shown to be entirely innocent of the charges brought against them. In a recent murder case the crown itself, after its first witness had been examined, entered a *nolle prosequi*, the prisoner having been detained ten months awaiting trial. Moreover, it is reasonable to suppose that these large rewards for conviction (£2,000 in Mrs. Smythe's case) should develop a class of witnesses whose untrained minds become unduly influenced by police suspicions, and possibly suggestions, and warped by the hope of immediate gain, and who are ready to stop at nothing in securing convictions. So affairs go their round. Misgovernment and procrastination of reform lead to fierce agitation. Fierce agitation inevitably develops crime; and then we have political prosecutions and punishments. As the *Pall Mall Gazette* writes regarding the banquet: "We gave them the plank bed, the solitary cell, and prison fare. They give us in return 'vulgar obloquy' and 'truculent abuse.'"

No thoughtful person who has the best interests of Ireland at heart can help deploring the attitude often assumed by the leaders of the Irish people at the present moment; but, calmly considering the situation of the country and the facts of the case, we must conclude that the time has come to change the system under which we have hitherto lain, the fruitful source of misery and demoralization. D. B.

P. S.—Perhaps before this letter reaches you some correspondent will have drawn attention to a manifest blunder in my letter of November 3, where I stated that the Catholics of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught are to the Protestants as *thirty to one*. The proportion is *ten to one*.

SCHERER ON DEMOCRACY IN FRANCE.

PARIS, Dec. 7, 1883.

M. EDMOND SCHERER has been long known as a literary critic of eminence. He was for some time a minister of the Reformed Church of France, but he left the Church a long time ago, and there remains nothing in him of the minister except a certain force of argumentation, and a certain sort of "vis theologica" which is dangerous to his enemies. When his friend, Nefftzer, who was also brought up in the Protestant Church, founded the *Temps*, Scherer became, and has ever since remained, one of the principal contributors to this paper. Nefftzer's platform was what was then called the liberal union—the union of all the liberal forces against the Empire. In case the Empire should be overthrown by some accident, or by the will of the people, it was agreed between the founders of the *Temps* that it should support any government established on liberal principles, whether it was a republic or a constitutional monarchy. Scherer did not, therefore, enter politics as a theoretical republican. When the war of 1870 broke out it found him at Versailles, where he remained during the German occupation. As soon as the National Assembly was elected Scherer threw all his influence on the side of Thiers and of the Republic. His daily account of the discussions which took place at Versailles, while it was animated by the most intolerant party spirit, was full of eloquence, of passion; and it is not too much to say that his campaign against the monarchical party in the Chamber was conducted with the greatest talent.

Scherer is not an orator; since he entered the political assemblies (and he is now a Senator for life—what we call an *inamovible*), he has not once ascended the tribune. He is shy, he somewhat disdains all rhetorical effects, his voice is thin and inaudible; but as a writer he has had no equal among the Republican journalists. Nobody did more than he to bring over to the Republican cause the wavering French bourgeoisie, the enlightened classes. He has never addressed himself to the people; he understood that the Republic was to make converts in the higher classes in order that the people should have leaders. At the moment when the form of government was still undecided, and depended upon a single vote, he was incessant in his appeals to the bourgeoisie; he succeeded, the Republic was voted by a majority of one, and this vote was given by a gentleman who had always been a Royalist. The constitutional laws which form the present Constitution of France were in reality the work of a monarchical assembly; since they have been enacted, France, with its usual logic, has accepted all the consequences of the new régime.

The Government *de facto*, after a period of agitation, always becomes stronger and stronger, and the people are not slow to understand the consequences of a principle. These consequences have developed themselves with much rapidity; the republican Government, finding under its hand all the instruments of a monarchical past, has used these instruments without even attempting to change them. The prefects of the Republic wield as much power as the prefects of the monarchy, or of the Empire; they have as much patronage, they walk surrounded with as much pomp and ceremony, they meet with the same generals, the same officials, the same mayors appointed by the Administration, the same Government engineers, the same commissioners of police, the same gendarmes. They are unknown to the country, as the intendants used to be: heaven-born, they fall from the political Olympus. One comes, another goes; they are all alike, all invincible, all irresistible. The Republic, from patriotic motives, has been obliged to increase the army. M. Grévy, the President, is the nominal chief of an army of more than a million of men. There used to be a sort of provincialism left in the magistracy: the judges remained in their native province, and the courts, while they administered the same law, had local traditions—they were the heirs of the ancient *parlements*. The suspension of the irremovability of the magistrates has allowed the republican Minister of Justice to strike a great blow at these old traditions. The men of the North have been sent to the South; the men of the South have been sent to the North. The magistracy has been levelled, it must feel its dependence upon the state. Centralization has never been stronger, more complete, than it is now. The officials (and their name is legion) are spread like dust all over the country; the ministerial will can make tornadoes in these clouds of dust. But what is the ministerial will? It is the will of Parliament. And what is Parliament itself but a collection of men, chiefly unknown, creatures of universal suffrage, unconscious as universal suffrage is often, led by instincts, by fears, by jealousies, more than by reason?

It would be unjust to throw the responsibility of this situation on the Republic; it would be throwing it on a mere word. For if monarchy were reëstablished to-morrow, the situation would hardly be altered fundamentally. What we see is only the development of forces which have been at work since the principles of social hierarchy were eradicated in 1789. M. Scherer has suddenly taken alarm at the state of France; he has written a pamphlet on democracy. But it is a long time since M. de Serre wrote "La démocratie coule à pleins bords." The dangers of democracy are not new; they were known in the Greek republic, in the Italian cities. We have seen democracy at work in the United States and in Switzerland. In the United States democracy has its remedy in the federal principle. If France is ill-governed in one department, it is ill-governed in the eighty-six departments; while in America one State may be a hell and the other almost a paradise. The functions of the Central Government, important as they are, in the United States, do not affect all the relations of life. In France we feel the Central Government in the smallest village; we are never, nowhere, out of its reach. And the terrible feature of this situation is the fact that, in the long run, the Central Government, whatever the institutions may be, is always inspired by Paris—by a nervous, excitable, irritable, corrupt, irreligious city, which thinks itself sincerely the citadel of truth and of right, the centre of the thinking world, the Jerusalem of liberty. M. Scherer voted for every one of the measures which have brought about the situation which now alarms him; but, to do him justice, he cast his vote against the law which brought the Government back from Versailles to Paris. He is not a Parisian; he is a Versaillais.

M. Scherer begins with the history of universal suffrage in France. I remember very well how it was introduced. The Revolution of 1848 was made with the cry of "Electoral Reform"; but those who proclaimed in 1848 the right of universal suffrage, little knew themselves what democracy was. The Revolution of 1848 was a sedition; it had a cry, and nobody understood the applications of the new formula. Neither the chiefs of the new government nor the electors themselves showed much respect for the new right. The correspondence of Mme. Sand well shows how disappointed and angry the republicans were when the new electoral masses gave their votes to conservatives. We must, she says, "launch the election in a republican direction"; we must "sweep away whoever has the bourgeois spirit"; we must try to "have an Assembly against which we shall not be obliged to employ force." There was no real respect for the majority, no regard for the ideas opposed to the ideas of the men in power. The disappointment was intense when universal suffrage virtually abdicated into the hands of Napoleon III., and gave him a plébiscite over and over again. But universal suffrage has now prevailed in France since 1848; and in 1870, when everything was in question, no party, no statesman dared to propose any limitation to it.

M. Scherer thinks that this respect for universal suffrage has its dangers. "Universal suffrage, if we believe a certain school, is not a political institution, it is the foundation of all rational society; the competency of the masses is not exhausted by the choice of representatives, it embraces everything." This school has made so much progress that we have placed no limitation on, no obstacle to, the right to revise the Constitution. One of its principal articles, the choice of the political capital, has already been revised; a majority of one can dispose of every article of the Constitution, as well as of any article of the most ordinary law. Universal suffrage will suffer no contradiction, no temporizing; it will take no precautions against its own caprices or passions. There is, in fact, no respect for the Constitution; it is not regarded as a covenant, an agreement tying two generations together. The nation, as a whole, is looked upon as independent of any written document, any treaty, any abstract definitions. "Universal suffrage is the depository of a superior wisdom. It is invoked as the organ of reason and the arbiter of justice. These new Egyptians have found their Apis; these Anamites have found their white elephant."

A new phrase is beginning to be substituted even for the phrase universal suffrage. We hear much about the "nouvelles couches" (the new strata), the "couches profondes" (the deep strata). Gambetta first used the word, as if political wisdom was not on the surface—in the educated classes—but in what in England would be called the *residuum*. M. Scherer is very hard on these profound strata: "What intemperance of logic, or, if you prefer, what power of abstraction is not necessary to consider capable of governing, or even of taking care of their material interests, these populations of France, which we know to be in their lower parts so backward, so ignorant, so egoistical, often so corrupt—devoid of any public spirit, alien to all general and generous ideas, knowing only labor and the salary of labor, or idleness, intrigue, and agitation?"

The conclusion of these reflections is not cheerful; for on one side M. Scherer proves that democracy tends to be more and more the arbiter of the country, and on the other side he shows it to be incapable of governing, of rational and profound ideas. He describes the political life suited to democracy, or created by it, in very dark colors. He draws a good portrait of the professional politician: "Politicians belong to the liberal or semi-liberal professions. They have some education, some facility of speech, social habits, a taste for politics, and naturally for advanced politics. The same ardor which induces them to play a part induces them to enter the Opposition. Against whom shall their turbulent instincts turn, if not against authority?" The electoral committees are composed of such men; their programmes are rhetorical and vague; they determine the elections; the candidates become their creatures. Once elected, the deputy or the senator becomes the slave of these committees. They keep a sword of Damocles over his head. All his votes are dictated by them. "Such is," says M. Scherer, "the situation to which France has been brought—the local committee naming and governing the deputy, the deputy giving his vote to the Government only upon satisfaction of his personal ends, the electoral interests understood in the most narrow and material sense. . . . A great evil and a great shame!" The consequences of such a state of things are already visible, and I will soon follow M. Scherer in his analysis of their development.

Correspondence.

THE MORMON PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a reader, though not a subscriber, will you permit me to make a suggestion as to the remedy for the Mormon question, now discussed in your valuable columns?

The law as it now stands is sufficient, I take it, to suppress Mormonism, *if enforced*. The difficulty is in the enforcement (as it would be with any other law), by reason of the sympathy and bias of juries. Is not this so? If it is, is not a simple remedy to provide for "informations" by the district attorney instead of "indictments" by grand juries; and that if the district attorney shall state that the Government cannot get a fair trial, by reason of local prejudice, etc., the judge shall remove the cause for trial to the U. S. District or Circuit Court of an adjoining State or Territory? This would insure fair trial and an enforcement of the law.

Yours truly, Walter Clark.

Raleigh, N. C., December 26, 1883.

[The trial, under the Constitution, would have to take place in the State and district ("which district shall have been previously ascertained by law") in which the crime shall have been committed.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Two years ago, in correspondence with Mr. Willits of Michigan, then a leading member of the Judiciary Committee of the United States House of Representatives, I anticipated your remedy of solving the Mormon problem—by stopping the influx of Mormon recruits from abroad—by some such bill as that which was enacted soon afterwards as to pauper immigrants. Mr. Willits answered me, that he had no doubt my proposed remedy would work a cure; but he thought a bill to that effect could not be passed. Perhaps it might be looked upon now

with a more favorable eye, seeing the utter failure of the Edmunds bill.

But another measure ought to be united with all attempts at forcible repression. There is another problem that is now troubling the people of the United States: it is the surplus—what to do with one hundred or one hundred and twenty millions of dollars a year, needed neither for Government expenses nor for interest on a national debt, of which the principal is not due? Wharton Barker and, in a measure, James G. Blaine want to distribute this surplus among the States. President Arthur would put it into ironclads; Randall and Dana get rid of it by means of free whiskey and tobacco. I suggest, Could the surplus revenue for three months be put to any better use than buying out the Mormons? The details of the buying-out business cannot well be discussed in detail, but if Congress can find a commission of three men of sufficient honesty to be intrusted with the handling of twenty-five millions of dollars, polygamy within the borders of the United States can be gotten rid of within twelve months from the passage of the act appropriating the money. The alternative is some sort of a war, and that will cost a great deal more.

This suggestion is by no means intended for sport. The writer makes it in the best of good faith.—Respectfully, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., Dec. 27, 1883.

COMMITTEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The United States might be most correctly described as under a government of committees. Whether this was the purpose of the framers of the Constitution may be doubted, but of the fact there can be no question. On looking over the creations of that autocrat, the Speaker, I find that there are forty-three standing, four select, and one joint committees, the smallest having four and the largest sixteen members. The whole number on the standing committees is 477, giving an average of 11. Every member of Congress is therefore on one, and some on two or three committees, so that the body itself disappears, or, in other words, "we can't see the forest on account of the trees." The struggle for position on these committees seems to be severe—one does not exactly see why; and from the high dudgeon manifested by Messrs. Cox and Springer, one can fancy that, after all, the Speaker does not have a very lovely time of it. Members with proper self-respect, however, should feel that a man's place is what he makes it, and that the smallest fraction of the smallest committee, if he is only thick-skinned and persistent enough, can make himself disagreeable, and can block the business of the country almost as much as the chairman of the most important.

How many people in the country seriously reflect that here are forty-three distinct bodies, every one with exactly as much right to the time of the House and of the country as any other, the proportion which it really gets being dependent on its skill in intrigue, or on the voluntary concessions of the others; that the whole forty-three work at cross purposes, with no reference to each other, and no necessary connection with anything that has ever been done before; and what golden opportunities such a state of things offers to a professional lobby.

If only we could for a little while stop talking about the product and look a little at the machinery! If we could divert a little attention from the *ends* of tariff, coinage, and civil-service reform to the *means* of getting at them by organization, leadership, and decent common sense in the methods of doing business; could set ourselves to compel Congress to remember that in every regiment there must be some privates, and that all cannot be captains! G. B.

BOSTON, Dec. 28, 1883.

"THE LOBBY AND ITS CURE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There may be reason in the unreasonable usages and institutions of mankind "G. B.," in the *Nation* (No. 964), shows some vexation because the lobby is not done away with by giving the Cabinet seats in Congress. In the *Contemporary Review* for December, Émile de Laveleye had an article on "The Prospects of the Republic in France." It was graphic and suggestive as to the weakness of mixed representative and Cabinet administration. His inference from that weakness is that "the nations of the present day must learn to live and to develop outside and independently of their governments." Illustrating what he means, he says ministerial changes and Cabinet crises are so frequent in Holland as often to make an end to government, but the advance of economic progress is not stopped; and that in Switzerland local authority, and even the Federal Government, is losing its power and playing a less important part in the life of the nation. Now, surely, in the United States our institutions and popular opinions about government are sufficiently democratic; nor is there need to make a goitre of and on our representative system in order to teach our people to rely upon themselves and not upon the Government. To give the Cabinet seats in Congress will tend to make it so that the Executive Department of our Government must change whenever there is a change in the political complexion of Congress. When a completely representative character is given to the Executive by seating it in Congress, then the one must become as unstable as the other, and both must be representative in the same way. And another result will be that when the difference between the Legislative and Executive Departments is thus broken down, it will increase the disposition of the people to look more and more to the Government to do things the people should do wholly outside of Government.

In any event, to read in the same hour "G. B.'s" note in the *Nation* and Laveleye's article in the *Contemporary* makes a keen feeling that we had better not risk too much to new devices, even to cure the lobby grievance. S. M. C.

KEOKUK, IOWA.

ERRORS OF THE REVISED CENSUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issues of the *Nation* for August 24 and 31, and September 7, 14, and 21, 1882, there appeared a series of letters calling attention to a number of more or less serious errors in the first part of the Population volume of the Tenth Census. A new edition of the volume then criticised has recently been published. Many mistakes pointed out in the *Nation* have been corrected. Others quite as gross and quite as clearly demonstrated are reproduced. Any one who will read the discussion in the *Nation* of August 24, 1882, of the errors in table I *d*, on page 5, will see that the blunders as to the number of inhabitants to the square mile in the District of Columbia were more serious and gave greater evidence of ignorance or carelessness than the error as to Connecticut. In the new edition the latter mistake is set right, while the figures for the District remain as they were. It will be remembered that General Walker said, in the *Nation* of October 19, that a ten-year-old boy in three minutes could correct the blunder of 10,000,000 in the hypsometric tables on page lii. It is to be regretted that the boy has not yet received an appointment in the Census Office, for the table is still 10,000,000 out of the way. There does not seem to be any indisposition to make changes. Thus, although General Walker stated that the criticism made in the *Nation* of August 24 upon the inconsistency between the charts and the tables as to the mean annual temperature of West Virginia was not justified, it will be found that in the lately issued edition the chart has been altered in accordance with that very criticism.

I have not space to go on with the enumeration of mistakes that should have been corrected and were not. It is only necessary to say that there are quite a number of them. They are, after all, by no means as interesting subjects of comment as are some of the attempts that have been made to straighten out admitted inaccuracies. One of the most curious blunders in the first issue was that by which, in the mean annual temperature tables, the figures for Missouri were all moved one column out of their places. They have now been put in their proper positions. But, as was pointed out in the *Nation*, the totals for the columns had been made up on the supposition that the figures for Missouri belonged just where they were printed. It therefore became necessary to change these totals in the second edition. The table on page 16 purports to give the population in 1870 of each of the mean annual temperature belts shown on the chart. The totals for the belts from 45° to 50° and from 50° to 55° are now given correctly, but the total for the belt having a mean annual temperature of from 55° to 60° remains just as it was in the old edition, while 5,754,297, which would be the correct total of that belt, is given as the total for the belt from 60° to 65°, and the total for this last-mentioned belt is moved over and stated to be that of the next higher belt, viz.: 65° to 70°: the effort to correct an old mistake thus results in making wrong something that was before right. As this is perhaps the grossest exhibition of carelessness that appears even in this volume, it will be worth while to contrast below the old figures, the correct figures, and the new figures:

Belts.	Old figures.	Correct figures.	New figures.
45°-50°	12,202,544	11,159,808	11,159,808
50°-55°	12,347,374	12,719,592	12,719,592
55°-60°	5,091,820	5,754,297	5,091,820
60°-65°	3,577,710	3,585,751	5,754,297
65°-70°	2,351,793	2,351,793	3,585,751

If any one had run an eye up the columns, the mistake would have been apparent.

In the *Nation* of August 31, 1882, it was shown that although Table 10, on page 27, did not place any part of Maryland in population group 5, in point of fact some six hundred square miles of its territory should properly be included within that group. In the new edition the correction is made, but the totals for the country are left unaltered, and consequently do not correspond with the detailed statements printed below them.

It is not worth while to take up your space with any more discussion of this matter. The examples that have been given prove conclusively that important parts of the work of compiling and publishing the Census have been committed to persons whose ignorance or whose carelessness is so great as to render untrustworthy anything with which they are concerned. I do not know what is the internal organization of the Census Office. It is sincerely to be hoped that a different set of clerks

have handled the other classes of statistics, and that the labors of those engaged upon the generalizations of the Population volume have been rigidly confined thereto. JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, December 22, 1883.

DEVONIAN SCENERY IN THE "CENTURY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The well-known signature of Francis George Heath is enough to compel attention to the opening paper of the *Century Magazine* for December. The author of the 'Fern Paradise' may well speak with authority of all things Devonian, for truly he knows the "fairest county of England" by heart. This makes it the more to be regretted that his article, instinct as it is throughout with feeling for the true character of the scenes he describes, should be illustrated by drawings so utterly inadequate to convey any true notion of their appearance. Take, for instance, that called "Clovelly from the Pier." Instead of the quaint and single village street, unique of its kind yet thoroughly English, here is a view the Spanish character of which is the most striking peculiarity. Then turn to the drawing bearing the title of "On the Dart at Dittisham," which, whether it be from nature or not (and the unnatural resemblance between the two trees in the middle distance is suggestive of a sketch from memory only), is certainly by no means calculated to give a true idea of the wild, romantic stream on its way from its birthplace on Dartmoor to the sea.

It is, indeed, matter for regret that those Americans who are unfortunate enough never to have visited the moors and glens of Devon should be put off with such misleading sketches as these, which are really worse than none, contradicting as they do the spirit of the text.

In the November number of the *Century Magazine*, in a paper on "Nature in England," is a series of drawings of a very different character, in which the grassy uplands, the low-lying meadows, the sheltered village homes, and many another distinctively English scene, are rendered with a skill showing long and familiar acquaintance with English country life. Alas that the fairest county of all should have been afterwards singled out for misrepresentation!

N. D'ANVERS,

Author of the 'Elementary History of Art,' etc.

HAMPSTEAD, LONDON, December 14, 1883.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have just published 'The Bread-winners,' which has been copyrighted both in England and in the United States, and is thus thought to be secure against Canadian piracy.

R. Worthington will issue immediately, by arrangement with the English publishers, the story of "Chinese Gordon," by A. Egmont Hake, author of 'Paris Originals,' etc., with portrait and maps.

Early this month Lockwood & Co. will publish 'Off-hand Portraits,' by Stephen Fiske.

Among the calendars of the new year we remark, for certain felicities in the colored and illuminated design, the Whittier Calendar (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.); and for its odd heart-shape, the Leap Year ("Cupid is King") Calendar, also a Boston production, with appropriate selections by Kate Sanborn.

The 'Connecticut Almanac' for 1884, edited by Prof. A. W. Phillips, of Yale College, and published at New Haven by Henry H. Peck, is, we take it, a new enterprise. It opens with a clear description of the "standard time" which now regulates the clocks and watches of the various divisions of this continent, illustrating the subject with a diagram—one of several which show also the rainfall and temperature of the State, etc. For its special public this almanac will be found very useful.

The 'Florida Annual' (New York: C. K. Monroe) has a friendly introduction from Mrs. Stowe, who vouches for the editor's qualification to answer by this method the innumerable questions about Florida with which both have been plied. It consists of a variety of contributed articles, mostly having a serious purpose to instruct, and of statistical tables which leave little to be desired. There is a chapter for sportsmen as well as for invalids, and a paper on "Adventures with Alligators." A new large-scale sectional map accompanies the present issue.

To the various secular and religious monthlies is now added the *Andover Review*, of which the first number is before us (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Its theological as well as ethical and practical purpose is declared to be expressed in the exhortation, "Let us learn to live according to Christianity." The editorial control of the *Review* will be in the hands of Professors Egbert C. Smyth, William J. Tucker, J. W. Churchill, George Harris, and Edward Y. Hincks, of the Theological Seminary. Progressive Orthodoxy is their denomination, and permits a warm welcome to Matthew Arnold in the present number. Besides contributed articles and editorials, there are archæological notes and book notices. The *Review* is beautifully printed.

Historians whose theme is the United States must, it seems, be prepared for pamphlets such as Bancroft's volumes have elicited. A controversy begun in the columns of the *Nation* as to the accuracy of Mr. McMaster's statements regarding colonial education in South Carolina, resulted in a paper read by Mr. Edward McCrady, jr., before the Historical Society of that State in August last, and this in a pamphlet entitled 'Education in South Carolina prior to and during the Revolution.' The historian seems to be convicted of some unguarded statements, but his critic can also be careless, since he falls into the error of naming 1607 as the date of the founding of Massachusetts, and reckoning from it (p. 21). The pamphlet is worth reading. An appendix, by way of vindicating the culture of South Carolina gentlemen, many of whom, like the Rutledges, Laurenses, and Pinckneys, were educated abroad, gives a list of family portraits by Reynolds, Copley, Gainsborough, West, Ramsay, Romney, and Gilbert Stuart.

Pach Bros., No. 841 Broadway, send us a well-lighted photograph of the three chiefs of the Corean Embassy, taken on board the United States steamer *Trenton*, just prior to their departure for Europe. The likenesses are excellent, and the accessories picturesque; indeed, the background of these quaint foreign figures is eminently typical of Western civilization.

The peculiar Continental form of charity which consists in getting out an illustrated paper for the benefit of the victims of floods, fires, earthquakes, etc., has been exemplified afresh in *La Hollande-Krakatau* (Paris: K. Nilsson; New York: F. W. Christern), apropos of the extraordinary catastrophe in the Straits of Sunda. The pictures are of all sorts—mostly Dutch—only one depicting the effects of the earthquake in question, and the rest entirely cheerful, as is not apt to be the case in French publications of this order. Autographs in facsimile abound, and there is an autographic page of musical compositions for the occasion.

It may be well to warn American readers interested in the story of the French stage against two books which have recently appeared in Paris, and which purport to be, one the 'Mémoires d'un Chef de claque,' and the other 'Souvenirs d'un Homme de théâtre.' The memoirs of a chief of claque might be very interesting, but they are not to be found in this book, which is a compilation from familiar sources, and the most of the few good anecdotes it contains suffer sadly in the telling. The other book pretends to be the recollections of Charles Séchan, the chief scene-painter of the Romanticist revival, but it is manufactured on the same principle, although with far more skill. Almost the only fact of even slight interest to be disinterred from either book is the discovery that Jouy, the author of the "Sylla," in which Talma "made up" for Napoleon, and of the libretto of "William Tell," served in America during the Revolution.

Just before and just after the fall of the Third Empire M. Louis Ulbach, then the editor of the *Cloche*, began the publication of a series of pen-portraits of living celebrities, starting off boldly with a vigorous outline of the character of Louis Napoleon. Ten of these portraits he has now reprinted in one volume, 'Nos Contemporains' (Paris: Calmann-Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), with emendations and with abundant qualifying and explanatory notes, in some of which he gives later and most interesting details of the people portrayed. The best are the sketches of the Emperor, of George Sand, and of Sainte-Beuve. Those of Lamartine and Victor Hugo are wholly uncritical in their unrestrained eulogy. The others are devoted to the Duc d'Aumale, Louis Blanc, Mazzini, Thiers, and M. Grévy.

— On Thursday and Friday, Dec. 27 and 28, a convention of professors of modern languages was held in one of the rooms of Columbia College, and steps were taken toward the establishment of a national association to be charged exclusively with the interests of modern philology (including English) in American colleges and universities. The preliminary convention was attended by about forty persons, representing the Johns Hopkins University Harvard, Yale, Michigan, Brown, Williams, Tufts, Columbia, Princeton, Syracuse, Lafayette, Vanderbilt, and a few other institutions. President Franklin Carter occupied the chair. The object of the meeting was to enable those who are occupied with the more advanced study and teaching of modern languages in the United States to confer with each other in regard to the various interests of their special work. Four sessions were held, and the convention did much discussing and but little resolving. The more prominent questions considered were whether the degree of B.A. ought ever to be conferred on students ignorant of both German and French; whether German or French, or both, should not be made a requirement for admission to the ordinary college course, and whether oral practice, *i. e.*, "conversation," is either practicable or desirable in college teaching. Of these questions the first two were tabled after considerable discussion; in regard to the other a resolution was finally passed without dissent, to the effect that in colleges and universities the "primary aims of instruction in the modern languages should be literary culture, philological scholarship, and linguistic discipline, but that oral practice is desirable as an auxiliary." The convention refused to commit itself to any sort of polemical attitude toward the classical languages. The secretary of the committee which will make all arrangements for the next convention is Prof. A. M. Elliott, of the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

—Mr. S. R. Koehler writes us, apropos of some comments of ours in our recent review of 'Original Etchings by American Artists' (*Nation*, No. 964, p. 513), that Hegel was the author of what seemed to us the incredible nonsense of saying, "that the subjective element in a work of art is simply the base peculiarity by the admixture of which its indwelling spirit is contaminated." He cites Hegel at second-hand in Theodor Mundt's 'Aesthetik' (p. 60 of the first edition, Berlin, 1845), as follows:

"Hegel's Verhältniss zur Bestimmung der Kunst charakterisirte sich ferner dadorch, dass er das Subjective im Kunstwerk nur als diejenige schlechte Besonderheit bezeichnete, durch deren Beimischung der Gehalt des inwohenden Geistes sich beflecke."

—When the plan of a new journal for the benefit of German librarians was published, Dr. Petzholdt, it will be remembered, suggested that the librarians would consult their own interest, as well as afford partial and inadequate compensation for his own life-long and ill-rewarded labor in the same field, by giving better support to his *Anzeiger*. Dr. Petzholdt more than deserves the credit which he claims for his disinterested devotion to the cause, but his point of view is antiquated, and it was much to be desired that there should be a German journal abreast of the time. We regret to say, however, that the subscriber to the *Anzeiger* who throws over that valuable (however improvable) journal for the new *Centralblatt für Bibliothekwesen*, the first number of which (January, 1884) lies before us, will lose more than he gains. It is very neatly printed, and the sheets are actually stitched, instead of being merely stuck together (in the usual slipshod fashion of German books, the *Rundschau* not excepted) with a bit of glue. But as to contents, it is behind the *Anzeiger* both in interest and in usefulness. It has the same style of antiquarian articles—which belong to the history of literature, or of the art of printing, or anything rather than *Bibliothekwesen*—as has also the *Anzeiger*, but it has not, except in very small measure, the bibliographical notes which constitute the useful feature of the latter. So far as he goes, however, the editor shows himself the friend of progress. He deprecates the practice (almost as common here as in Germany) of making the librarianship in universities the *avocation* of professors who can put into it neither their heart nor the best of their time. He advocates the consolidation, as at Strassburg, of Government and University libraries where such exist in the same town; and we infer from a guarded statement that he would not disapprove a policy which should make German libraries useful after the fashion of American, British, and French libraries. A contributor proposes also a coöperative index to periodicals which, he thinks, "might appear *soon* (!)—perhaps in twenty years." An item of news which will strike with joy all who have attempted to lead a literary life in Berlin, is the schedule of appropriations for the Royal Library for the fiscal year 1883–4, and which we commend to Congress for imitation: "For purchase of the Niederländisches Palais [which, we may remark, is situated Unter den Linden, next the King's palace], $650,000; for rebuilding the same for library purposes, $102,500."

—Three works of considerable importance have recently appeared in Germany on the organization of society in the middle ages. The first is Professor Gengler's 'Deutsche Stadtrechts-Altertümer,' an octavo volume of 515 pages. It is designed to give a picture of the interior life of the German cities during the period under review, and is perhaps the most important contribution to our knowledge of the subject since the appearance of Arnold's 'Verfassungsgeschichte der deutschen Freistädte' in 1854. Since G. L. von Maurer brought together the materials which have made his work so famous, a vast number of explorers have been engaged in search of new information in the same field. Only to mention the most prominent names, contributions to the literature of the subject have been made by Ennen, Frensdorff, Hegel, Heusler, Kriegk, Lörsch, Rosenthal, Schmoller, and Schönberg. Gengler has not only availed himself of the works of his predecessors, but he has discovered a vast amount of new material, and has wrought the whole into what the Germans, at least, would call a popular form. It may be described as a picture of the mediæval German city. In the first part, chapters are given to "Walls," "Gates," "Towers," "Streets," "Squares," "Bridges," "Mills," and other objects of strictly material character. The second part is devoted to the growth of municipal institutions, and consists of a series of discussions, nine in number, ranging all the way from the considerations that led to the location of the city to the organization of the several municipal and trade brotherhoods. Of especial interest and value is the eighth "excursus," in which the author discusses the rise of the merchant guilds. Though he has availed himself of information previously discovered, he has everywhere founded his conclusions on the solid basis of original materials. An Appendix, pp. 478–505, gives, in alphabetical order, a very copious list of the printed and unprinted sources used.

—Of similar import and thoroughness, though of far more limited scope, is the work of Gramich entitled 'Verfassung und Verwaltung der Stadt Würzburg vom 13. bis zum 15. Jahrhundert.' The author announces that his present production is merely a forerunner of an elaborate work on the constitutional and administrative peculiarities of that singular old city. The thin volume presented is largely devoted to an account of the organization and duties of the municipal council, but the discussion is so ably carried on as to give promise of a work of the first importance. A vast amount of new material has been brought to light. Of a very different nature from either of the foregoing is the posthumous volume of Professor Wilhelm Arnold. Though the work is entitled 'Studien zur deutschen Kulturgeschichte,' and is, from the circumstances of its publication, necessarily somewhat fragmentary, it is the ripest fruit of a very able and a very well furnished mind. It is made up of two groups of four essays each, the first having the general title of "Land und Stamm," and the second of "Stadt und Staat." Though the first four essays are not without considerable importance, it is in the second series that the investigator will find the largest rewards for his reading. Of especial value are the first and fourth studies of the second book—"The Rise of the Trades-Unions in the Middle Ages," and "The Reception of Roman Law and its Results."

—The 'Gilda Mercatoria,' by Dr. Charles Gross (Göttingen: Deuerlich), we understand to be a dissertation upon taking the doctor's degree by an American student in Göttingen. It is a thorough and luminous discussion of an obscure subject. The title-page calls it "ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der englischen Städteverfassung"; and the main purpose of the discussion may be called negative—to prove, against Brentano and others, that the English municipal government did not have its origin in the Merchants' Guild. This the author appears to have established, showing very clearly that, in the fully-developed municipal constitution, the guild and the municipality were distinct organizations; and if the evidence as to the origin of the municipality is not so complete, it may be noted that, assuming the other point to be proved, the burden of proof for the earlier period rests upon those who maintain the theory which he controverts. Nor is his positive evidence here scanty. He examines the two strongholds of the opposing theory—the *Judicia Civitatis Londoniæ* and the Berwick Statutes—and shows that they give fair support to his view. He controverts, and we think correctly, Brentano's opinion that England was "the birthplace of gilds," and, assuming that the Merchants' Guild was a creation of the period after the Conquest, maintains that it had no prototype in the Anglo-Saxon period, unless in the *Cnihtegilde*. He also emphasizes (p. 70) a point of the first importance in this branch of historical study, but which is frequently overlooked—that municipal history passed through very different phases in England and on the Continent: "There was in England no Commune as in France and Flanders, no development of a Conseil (*Rath*), and no contest between Patriciate and Craft-Guilds (*Zünfte*) as in Germany; no 'summum convivium' as in Denmark, and especially no Imperia in imperio as in Italy." Brentano's work, of course, remains the most complete statement in English of the history of guilds, and, in connection with Mr. Toulmin Smith's 'English Gilds,' of which it forms the introduction, must be the starting-point for any study of the subject; but Dr. Gross has criticised Brentano's conclusions on several points, and no student of the subject can afford to neglect this treatise.

—The centennial anniversary of the foundation of the Russian Academy was celebrated last November in St. Petersburg. This Academy was created by the Empress Catharine II., and existed as an independent institution, side by side with the Imperial Academy of Sciences, founded by Peter the Great, down to 1841, when Czar Nicholas merged it with the latter Academy and made it its Second Division, devoted to the Russian language and literature. The other two divisions are the mathematico-physical and the historico-philological. The Academy of Sciences, founded in 1724, but opened only in the beginning of 1726, after the death of Peter, was destined to become the seat of imported learning, represented chiefly by German scholars, and it remained so for more than a century. Among its foreign members who were assigned a pleasant sphere of activity in the Russian capital were the two Bernouillis, Euler, S. G. Gmelin, Pallas, Schlözer, and a host of other distinguished names. German, French, and Latin were the languages in which the works of the academicians were published. Among the native members was Lomonosoff, who was one of the first Russian writers to rebel against the leadership of foreigners in the highest spheres of intellectual, as well as governmental, life in the Empire. To call the domestic mental powers and energies of the nation into activity, by developing the latent capabilities of the vernacular, adapting it to the various scientific and literary purposes, and popularizing its products, as well as the history of the country, was the aim of Catharine II. in creating, in 1783, the Academy to which she applied the distinctive epithet Russian, while the older was to continue cosmopolitan in its purely scientific character. And to this day most of the greatest names of the Academy of Sciences are still non-Russian—witness I. J. Schmidt, Klaproth, Frähn, Castrén, Von Baer, Lütke, Böhtlingk—while the Russian Academy started with such popular national names as Derzhavin and Prince Shtcherbatoff, and in the earlier half of this century included among its members the

historiographer Karamzin, the poets Zhukovski and Pushkin, and the statesmen Speranski and Uvaroff. The first president of the Russian Academy was a lady, Catharine's versatile friend and helper in ascending the throne—the Princess Dashkoff. Paul I., however, banished the Princess to Siberia on account of her part in the catastrophe in which his father lost both throne and life, and deprived the Russian Academy of its resources. Alexander I. reorganized it, but Nicholas, by uniting it with the Academy of Sciences, in order to nationalize the latter, diminished its prestige. As Second Division of the Academy of Sciences, it has received few celebrities of the first rank. The number of members has dwindled down to less than a dozen.

—One of the first tasks of the Russian Academy was the elaboration of a Russian dictionary, which was to be for the Empire of the Czar what the 'Dictionnaire de l'Académie Française' was for France. The poets Derzhavin, Von Visin, and Kniazhnin were among the contributors, and the Empress Catharine herself wrote "supplementary remarks" to the first volume. The work was completed, after her death, in six volumes (1789-99), and contained forty-three thousand words. But it disappointed expectations, and had to be worked over during the reign of Nicholas. Among the other earlier publications of the Russian Academy were writings on Russian grammar and prosody, a Russian Iliad, collections of the Byzantine and west-European chronicles, and works of travel. Among the most active members under Alexander I. and Nicholas were the historians Karamzin and Ustrialoff, whose voluminous publications illustrated the earlier and some of the later periods of the national history. The despotic jealousy of Nicholas excluded from the institution all talents tainted with the suspicion of liberalism, and even under Alexander II. the election of the liberal literary historian Pypin as successor to the ultra-loyal Ustrialoff had to be undone, Pypin being requested to find a pretext for declining it. To the period of Alexander II. belong the philologist Vostokoff, author of a Church-Slavic dictionary and other works of great merit, and the Panslavic agitator Pogodin. Among the present members are the Slavist Grot and the grammarian Buslayeff. The Second is now considered the least distinguished of the three divisions of the Academy of Sciences. The celebration took place under the auspices of the Academy in general, in the presence of its President, Count Tolstoi—the Minister of the Interior—and of the members of all of its three divisions.

BOOKS ON SPAIN.

Spanish Vistas. By George Parsons Lathrop. Illustrated by Charles S. Reinhart. Harper & Brothers. 1883.

Seven Spanish Cities, and the Way to Them. By Edward E. Hale. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1883.

From the Pyrenees to the Pillars of Hercules. Observations on Spain, its History and its People. By Henry Day. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883.

Spanish Ways and By-ways. With a Glimpse of the Pyrenees. By William Howe Downes. Illustrated. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1883.

A Family Flight through Spain. By Miss Susan Hale. Fully illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1883.

DR. JOHNSON, when counselling Mr. Boswell not to publish an account of his travels upon the Continent of Europe, used this argument: "The world is now not contented to be merely entertained by a traveller's narrative; it wants to learn something." Johnson had refrained from giving an account of his own travels in France, because, as he said, he was afraid of the ridicule his book might excite. He had been but two months in France, and many of his intelligent readers, he thought, had seen more of the country than he had. Since Johnson's time, however, great progress has been made in the art of book-making; so that now, with the aid of guide-books and cyclopædias, the traveller can in a very few weeks gather materials for a book of almost any size upon almost any country. We doubt if the sensibility of the modern book-maker is likely to be disturbed by any fear of ridicule.

The five books before us are the productions of as many happy tourists, each one bent on having a "good time" and on making a book descriptive thereof. To have a "good time" is the essential purpose of the whole tourist class. It is a laudable purpose, although, when joined to book-making, it is apt to beget a flippancy of style which, while well suited to recording the ordinary annoyances of journeying and the smart sayings of travelling companions, is clearly belittling to the graver subjects of history, art, religion, and architecture. Mr. and Miss Hale, Mr. Lathrop, and Mr. Downes entered Spain from the north, at Irun, and thence proceeded to Burgos, Madrid, Toledo, Seville, Cordova, Granada, and Saragossa, making "side excursions" to places of lesser note. Mr. Day, starting from Barcelona, moved onward to the cities above named, and even to the fortress of Gibraltar. They visited the palace and picture gallery at Madrid, the cathedral at Burgos, the cathedral and the Alhambra at Granada, the mosque at Cordova, the alcazar and cathedral at Seville, the alcazar and cathedral at Toledo, the cathedrals at Saragossa, etc., etc. Their books contain descriptions of these wonders of architecture and art, observations upon the manners and customs of the Spanish people, scraps of history and romance, and hints for the guidance of tourists following in their footsteps. Those who have seen Spain in the route travelled by Mr. Lathrop and the other excursionists will find in these books some pleasant reminders of their own experience. They will, besides, find many statements misleading to the unwary, and many strange mistakes (we wish we could class them all under the head of "typographical errors"); but they will admire withal that so much work could be performed in six weeks' time.

"Spanish is what school-boys call 'hog Latin,'" says Mr. Hale. "It is a very beautiful language," says Mr. Downes. "Some acquaintance with the Italian language may facilitate the study of Spanish," says Mr. Lathrop. Not so, says Mr. Hale: "If by any misfortune you know any Italian when you go to Spain, forget it. It is only a snare and a delusion." Mr. Downes finds the lack of a good guide-book a "real misfortune," the most noted ones being "faulty and untrustworthy in many particulars." Mr. Hale is "sure that the men who made Murray's [Ford's] first volume and O'Shea's book do not appreciate the fine features of the country or the fine qualities of the people," and Murray's second volume seems to him to be "overrated." Mr. Day, with praiseworthy candor, says: "We wish to acknowledge our obligations to Ford's book on Spain, which is one of the most thorough and reliable books on that country, and a most complete guide to the traveller. We have not scrupled to use the facts collated by him with the utmost freedom." The hotels were much to Mr. Hale's liking, and he sums up his experience in these words: "Outside of the Tremont or the Parker House, or half a dozen of such American hotels, I could nowhere in America have been as attentively or practically as well served." Against this Mr. Downes would make it out that Spain is "almost destitute of good hotels"; and Mr. Lathrop, with manifest bad taste, writes down one hotel as the "nadir of dirt and unsavoriness," the "stronghold of dirt," and another as taking "the palm for extortion."

Mr. Downes, Mr. Day, and Mr. Lathrop give to the bull-fight a prominent place in their books. One description of a bull-fight is very much like another. Opinions differ as to the morality of the exhibition. Mr. Downes, who "went twice," found the sport in most respects "thoroughly enjoyable," and he says that "after the first shock is past there is a peculiar and exceptional fascination about it. There is nothing like it." If we can credit Mr. Lathrop and Mr. Hale, who say that the exhibition has been given for the benefit of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, it has a saving feature hitherto unrecorded. The Hales kept away from the bull-fights; compelled to "draw the line somewhere," they drew it just there—and then, "to show the cruel and bloody nature of the sport," Miss Hale inserts a number of full-page illustrations, and thereby, as we think, misses her mark, these pictures representing a show more cheerful than otherwise.

It comes in the way of our tourists to expound the Salic law, and this they do with a show of knowledge inadequate for so weighty a subject. And first, Miss Hale:

"All Spanish prejudice was, and is, in favor of the Salic law, by which a woman can reign only in default of male heirs."

To quote Miss Hale's definition is to prove that she has not a clear idea of the meaning of the term "Salic law," for by that law females are excluded, absolutely, from succession to the crown. One of a great many mistakes made by Miss Hale in her "Historical" chapter, is the making "Don Carlos, born in 1788," the nephew of Ferdinand VII.: he was the King's brother. To say that he "had an absolute right to the throne in default of male heirs," is only a feeble Carlist plea. And further, Don Carlos's claim was that he was *the* male heir. Next, we will hear Mr. Day:

"This law [the Salic], which always prevailed in France, never prevailed in Spain until the time of Philip V., in 1750, when he ordained it as the law of Spain, and it so remained until about 1832."

Now, 1750 was not "the time of Philip V.," for that monarch died in 1746. But admitting that the Salic law was "ordained" in Spain by the Bourbon prince at an earlier date, it did not "so remain until about 1832," for it was abrogated by Charles IV., with the sanction of the Cortes, in 1789, and not until 1812 was it reëstablished. Finally, Mr. Hale:

"Her [Isabella II.] title at Spanish law was none of the best. Women had not succeeded since Isabella the Good, and it was not until it was clear that she was to have no brother that the edict was made just before she was born, in 1830, reversing all old laws of succession, by which she became Queen when she was really an infant three years old."

If "women had not succeeded since Isabella the Good," it was not because of ineligibility. Women were eligible to succeed to the crown all through the 16th and 17th centuries; and, as a fact, Isabella the Catholic was succeeded by Queen Joanna. The edict of Ferdinand VII. did not reverse "all old laws of succession," but only restored the ancient laws. We will not ask Mr. Hale how it was made clear, "before she was born," that Isabella "was to have no brother." Certain it is that the wife of the Duc de Montpensier is her younger sister.

Mr. Hale deals severely enough with Isabella II.—"Isabella the Bad" is the title he bestows upon her; but for her son, the present King, he has a first-rate notice. "This young man," he says, "has already, in eight years, shown more wisdom than all his ancestors together have shown in three centuries and a half." He does not give full credence to charges of corruption brought against the Spanish administration, because in his own country he has heard similar charges brought against "our administration," while he knows that "in fact, however it might be improved, it is the best administration that has ever been attained in the world, and the most economical."

If to Mr. Downes's eyes the Granada cathedral was a "most repulsive structure," the "numerous mean chapels full of tawdry ecclesiastical bric-à-brac and impossible works of art," to Mr. Day's a "noble structure," and to Miss Hale's "very beautiful" interiorly, the fact that tastes differ will explain it all. But we find in these books many positive errors—errors which a little care might have corrected. For a specimen of loose writing we turn to page 147 of Mr. Day's book: "Here [Granada cathedral] also is the coffin of Prince Miguel, the eldest son of Crazy Jane, and who, at the age of twelve years, was killed by a fall from his horse near Granada." Mr. Day's guide-book should have informed him that Prince Miguel was not the son of Jane, but of the Queen of Portugal (her sister), and that his death occurred before he had completed his second year. On the same page he styles Miguel the "elder brother" of Charles V. And "in this connection" we may say, correcting Mr. Day, that Catalonia does not "constitute the northwestern portion of Spain," but more properly the northeastern, and that "Henry IV. of France" was not born in Toulouse, but in Pau. And now we too must "draw the line somewhere," and we draw it where Mr. Hale (p. 248) measures distance by "kilograms."

GEORGIA BEFORE THE REPUBLIC.

The History of Georgia. By Charles C. Jones, Jr., LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. 2 vols., pp. 556 and 540.

In these two handsome and well-printed volumes Mr. Jones has done for Georgia what Brodhead did for New York and Palfrey for New England. He has given us a history of his State during the colonial period, and down to the close of the Revolutionary war, which is most elaborate, careful, and exhaustive. It is fairly entitled to be regarded as a final presentation of the subject, for, with one exception, there seems to be no topic and no incident which has not received the minutest scrutiny and most thorough treatment. It is remarkable that Mr. Jones has been able to find so much to say, for the brief colonial history of Georgia is singularly barren, and offers but scant material for the historian. Yet Mr. Jones has avoided the error of many of our local historians by eschewing the field of general history, and confining himself strictly to his subject. He has filled his pages, not by padding, but by the careful narration of every incident, and by the skilful insertion of all important original documents, which render his book a storehouse of facts, and give it the highest authority.

The first volume is devoted really to the period of settlement. This could, indeed, hardly be otherwise, for the years which intervened between the departure of Oglethorpe and the beginning of the troubles with the mother-country offer in Georgia hardly anything above the level of a parish record. The story of the settlement is susceptible of very interesting narration. Among the countless utopian and impracticable schemes devised or attempted as experiments in government in the American wilderness, that to which Georgia owes its origin is very conspicuous. It involved not only the problem of building up a State with the inhabitants of debtors' prisons, but of conducting the commonwealth thus constituted on the principles and in accordance with the rules of a charity school. The object was most benevolent, the intention of the trustees most moral; but neither, when embodied in laws and constitutions, was calculated to develop a strong and vigorous State. The wonder is not that Georgia, the subject of a fostering and meddling charity, did not thrive, but that she survived at all. That the colony lived on until the trust was abolished, and then passed to the crown and began a natural and vigorous growth, was owing to the character and ability of one man, General Oglethorpe.

Among all the founders of States, there are few nobler figures than that of this old soldier and stanch Jacobite, who in his boyhood shot snipe in Conduit Street, in the days of William III.; served with Prince Eugene, was complimented in the verses of Pope, and lived to excite the admiration of Johnson and find a place in the letters of Horace Walpole. He was a single-minded, brave, and honest gentleman, a good soldier, and an efficient administrator. His successful wars in behalf of his infant colony have an almost romantic interest, and it is pleasant to find that Mr. Jones does full and ample justice to the man to whom Georgia owed her existence. Posterity does not even yet fully appreciate Oglethorpe. We have statues to men who do not deserve them, but none, we believe, to the man who founded a commonwealth which is destined to be the richest and most powerful of our South Atlantic States.

The career of Oglethorpe is enough to make any story with which he is connected interesting, but there were others who came with him—John and Charles Wesley, and subsequently Whitefield—whose presence lends a strong personal attraction to the history of the early days of Georgia. Here, too, Mr. Jones has done full justice to his subject, and his treatment of the three missionaries and of the troubles in which these great religious leaders were involved strikes us as extremely correct and candid. The close of the Oglethorpe administration was followed by an uninteresting period of common place development, accompanied by the rapid growth of material prosperity and the wrangles with the royal Governors usual in all the English colonies in America. In the second volume, however, which is devoted to the history of the State during the War of the Revolution, there is "metal more attractive." Georgia was tossed to and fro in the struggle for independence. The last of the colonies to shake off the grip of England, in consequence of the exertions of an exceptionally strong Governor, Sir James Wright, the State passed at first entirely into the hands of the patriot party. Thence she was wrested by the British forces, and was the only colony which England succeeded in regaining and holding until the end of the war. The result was that Georgia suffered terribly. The active part taken by the Southern loyalists resulted in that region in a bitter partisan warfare of the most fratricidal kind, which was marked by desperate fighting and many bloody deeds, and which was almost unknown north of the Carolinas. Georgia had her full share of this savage warfare, but, although it was very dreadful and mournful at the time, it affords an excellent subject for the historian. Such a conflict abounds in deeds of personal daring, in hair-breadth escapes and exciting episodes. Mr. Jones has made the most of his opportunity, and has given us a volume which is most instructive as to the character of the war for independence in the extreme South.

There is one grave omission in the book. Mr. Jones has not attempted to depict the manners, customs, character, and qualities of the people. It is true that society in Georgia was extremely crude, but still there was a society and a population, and in a work of this sort the most important thing is to know what the people were and how they lived. It is this which throws more light on the development of the United States than anything else, and it is the work of all others which the local historian of a State should perform with the utmost completeness. Mr. Jones has such an exhaustive knowledge of his subject, and has searched and sifted his material so thoroughly, that he has a peculiar fitness for the task, and a preparation which no one else can hope to have. It is to be hoped that he will, in the volumes yet to come, repair this oversight at the outset, and give us a comprehensive picture of life and society in Georgia at the close of the Revolutionary war. With the single exception of this important omission, there is nothing to be said of the book except in the way of praise. It is an important and valuable contribution to American history.

AMONG THE MONGOLS.

Among the Mongols. By the Rev. James Gilmour, M.A., London Mission, Peking. London: The Religious Tract Society.

Although, in its primary object of making converts to Christianity, missionary enterprise in these days does not appear to achieve much success, there can be no question that it adds largely to our knowledge of the various races with which the earth is peopled. A missionary, in order to carry on his work at all, must establish friendlier and more intimate relations with those whom he addresses than are essential in the case of any other visitor. He must acquire a mastery of the language; he must lay aside, as far as possible, the modes of life in which he has been brought up, and adopt those of the people to whom he has been sent. He must train himself to look at life from *their* point of view; to disencumber himself of his own prepossessions, and appreciate the nature and strength of theirs. A missionary who has succeeded in fulfilling these arduous conditions has gone through the best of all trainings for becoming a trustworthy exponent of the character, customs, and every-day life of a distant and unfamiliar country. Mr. James Gilmour's long residence in Mongolia would seem to have been unrewarded by the gain of a single convert to Christianity, but he worked hard at the language, he lived continuously among the people, and in the volume before us—the record of his manifold experience—he has given a detailed and highly interesting account of the present condition of a race which six centuries ago were the agents of the vastest and most terrible calamity that has ever smitten the human race. If Buddhism had accomplished nothing beyond the transformation of the inhabitants of Mongolia from the ruthless destroyers of the days of Jengis Khan to the humane and inoffensive barbarians described by Mr. Gilmour, it would have rendered an immense service to humanity.

Notwithstanding this improvement in their moral character, to live "among the Mongols" is to live in the midst of very undesirable society. The discomforts of any one condemned to exist in this painful purgatory begin as soon as he approaches a Mongolian tent in order to enjoy the company of those within. It is incumbent upon such an one to stand at some little distance

and shout the Mongolian for "dog," in a voice of thunder. Thereupon a dozen or so of large and ferocious dogs rush howling forth, and make for the visitor at the top of their speed. His safety now depends upon the swiftness of the human inhabitants of the Mongolian residence. These may succeed in heading off the dogs before they have devoured the morning visitor; but also they may not. In anticipation of the latter contingency it behooves the ill-fated personage who lives "among the Mongols" to take with him two sticks. The Mongolian dog is, luckily, lacking in intelligence, and he flies headlong upon one of these sticks, and "worries" it under the impression that it is an integral portion of the morning visitor—that individual laying about him, meanwhile, with the other stick until the dogs discover that the neighborhood is too hot for them. Assuming that this first controversy has been decided in favor of the visitor, matters cannot be said to look very much brighter when he is safely ushered into a Mongolian tent. The Mongols never wash any part of their persons except their faces, and that in a highly superficial fashion. They are nerved to the practice of this rigid abstinence by prudential considerations. They are Buddhists, believe devoutly in the transmigration of souls, and are of the opinion that any Mongol who makes an immoderate use of water in this life will enter into the body of a fish in his next stage of existence. The consequence is that a Mongol not affected with some cutaneous disease of a contagious character would be a phenomenon in Mongolia almost as startling as a Mongol with a Roman nose. And as their habits are gregarious, and many more Mongolians will crowd into a tent than the tent can legitimately accommodate, though a visitor may have passed scathless through the dogs, it is well nigh impossible that he should emerge scathless from a Mongolian habitation.

The Mongols, it must be acknowledged, are hospitable, but it is difficult to read without terror the special manner in which they exhibit this virtue:

"They were," writes Mr. Gilmour concerning one of his visits, "preparing for next day's feast. In the tent of my host they were making *bauch*. This is made by mincing mutton very small, mixing it with salt and chopped vegetables, and doing it up in small nuts covered with a casing of dough. The amount of manipulation necessary before the nut is complete, and the unusual cleanness of the Mongols' hands *after* making it, always made me shudder when I saw them about to honor me with this delicacy."

The Mongols appear to indulge in only one "square meal" daily; and their method of eating this is decidedly dangerous when practised by a European. Forks do not enter into their domestic economy, the Mongols finding in their teeth a sufficient substitute. A Mongol takes a piece of meat in his left hand, seizes it with his teeth, and with a knife in his right hand cuts it off close to his lips. If a western man were to attempt this alarming manœuvre, he would indubitably slice off the top of his nose. The flatness of the Mongolian nose enables the Mongol to accomplish it in safety. Here, by the way, is a subject which might worthily attract the attention of some follower of Mr. Darwin. Is the flatness of the Mongolian nose to be accounted for as a natural process of attrition consequent upon this method of eating pursued through countless centuries? The Slawkenbergian character of the European nose never fails to make a profound impression upon the Mongolian imagination. It will hold a Mongol spell-bound, like the "glittering eye" of the Ancient Mariner, and after long gazing at this fascinating feature in the face of some newly arrived foreigner, a group of Mongols will disperse remarking to each other: "What a tremendous nose!" There is one day—the last day of each year—on which the Mongols depart from their practice of eating only one meal, and then they eat seven dinners in rapid succession, one after the other. Mr. Gilmour, on one occasion, came in for one of these Brobdignagian banquets.

"I rather liked this idea at first, as the custom in the north of Mongolia of only one meal per day, and that after dark, with nothing but tea, tea, tea, the whole day long, does not seem to suit an European as well as a Mongol. My satisfaction, however, was short-lived, for I soon discovered that they had made up their minds that I should do justice to the whole seven, and that a sly old yellow-coated lama on my left had installed himself as tally-keeper to the guests. As the day wore on, matters began to look a little serious. The solemn voice of the man in yellow had only pronounced *three!* What was to become of the remaining four? As I was wondering how I could best get out of this difficulty, deliverance came in an unlooked-for way. Some one sitting in a tent about a dozen yards off shouted, 'Ocher, come and drink wine'; and Ocher, though as a lama he had vowed to abstain from wine, and just then was employed in counting my dinners, at the summons disregarded his vow, threw up his office of tally-keeper, and the next time we saw him was in too genial a frame of mind to find fault with any one for their shortcoming in the past."

Mr. Gilmour acknowledges that he never saw a Christian Mongol, and this is not surprising. It is impossible to imagine a more unpromising subject than a Mongol on which to attempt the operation of conversion to a new faith. The Mongol toils not, neither does he spin. He does nothing; he knows nothing; and he does not want to know or to do anything. To be a Buddhist is to possess the sum total of all that any reasonable person can desire. If a man has money, he ought to spend it in acquiring merit, by donations to temples and shrines, gifts to lamas, and the like virtuous acts, and not seek to increase it by trade, like a wordly-minded Chinaman. If a man wants to travel, he can turn the inclination to profitable account by making pilgrimages without ceasing to sacred places, instead of wandering aimlessly about the world like a demented Englishman. Living in the midst of barbarism, filth, cutaneous diseases, and squalor unspeakable, the Mongolians look upon themselves as the one race which has solved the riddle of existence aright. They are satisfied to rest upon this achievement, and the supineness to which they have brought themselves by a sedulous cultivation of this feeling of self-satisfaction is shown in the fact that even the courage which must have animated the followers of Jengis Khan has given place, in the Mongolians of to-day, to a contemptible cowardice.

"Not long since," writes Mr. Gilmour, "a perfect stampede was created in Central Mongolia by the report that travellers had been seen travelling together in a body. Everybody fled; flocks and herds were driven off, heavy goods abandoned, and a large district left without inhabitants. The panic overtook a caravan in which were some travellers in camel-carts. The camel-carts were left in the desert, and the whole company fled to the hill country. For some weeks the Russian post was interrupted, and things looked serious. It was afterwards discovered that it was all a mistake. The supposed robbers were a few people going to Urga to pray—so few that even had they been robbers of the bravest, a tithe of the men who fled might have driven them off; and the whole flight might have been prevented had there been found one man with bravery enough to reconnoitre the supposed enemy."

A people that wants nothing but to remain as it is, that is moved only to a feeling of moral repulsion by the exhibition of energy, industry, perseverance; that is entirely convinced of the efficacy of the prayer machine; that believes that sin can be got rid of by the acquisition of "merit" obtained through the medium of mechanical contrivances, does not present a hopeful field for missionary enterprise. And the missionaries further enhance the difficulty of the undertaking by using the Bible as though it were a talisman which worked conversions by the simple act of reading it. The Bible has been translated into Mongolian—genealogies and all—and Mr. Gilmour reluctantly confesses that the most learned lamas find themselves utterly incapable of comprehending the meaning of a single chapter. It has, in all probability, been "translated" after the fashion of Bottom the Weaver, and reduced to nonsense in the process. But what missionary zeal has signally failed to accomplish, it would appear that the Russian Government, working after a very different fashion, will accomplish at no distant date. Contrasting the effect upon the Mongolian of Chinese and Russian influence, Mr. Gilmour writes:

"At every point where the Chinaman and the Mongol come into contact the Mongol seems to be rendered even more helpless than he is. The influence of Russian contact is more healthy. It elevates and develops the Mongol. English travellers in Siberia sometimes sneer at the Russians there as being only half civilized. But it is the primitive simplicity of their style and manner of life that enables them to elevate the Mongol. Some of the Russian poor live very rudely. The difference between them and the Mongols is slight. The first upward step to be made in the social scale is so low that many make it, and once begun they go on. Buriats (a Mongol tribe) till the ground, work at handicrafts, and engage in trade, just as the poorer Russians do. Russians and Buriats live together on good terms, eating and sleeping together. The Buriats learn the Russian tongue, go to Russian schools, know what the Russians know, have all their aspirations in the direction of agriculture, manufactures, trade, learning, and Government service, fostered by the Government; and it is no uncommon thing to meet with respectable men, educated, intelligent, and wealthy, who were born mere Mongols, but who have been elevated to the civilization and intelligence of the nineteenth century by the happy influence of the judicious measures adopted by the Russian Government for the amelioration of the condition of its more lowly subjects. . . . Successful young [Mongols] who acquire position and culture are usually anxious to marry Russian ladies, and not a few accomplish their wish. . . . Russia has toleration for all religions, but the gravitation is towards the Christianity of the Greek Church, and, though it is by no means necessary that an official should be a Christian, yet, as a matter of fact, many Mongols who rise in the Government service, leave their Buddhism and embrace Christianity. . . . Russian ladies who marry Mongols usually insist upon baptism as a preliminary, and in these ways the hostile attitude maintained by Buddhists to Christianity is softened down, and in place of their bigoted forefathers arises a race who are Christians as far as they are anything."

Pianoforte Music: Its History, with Biographical Sketches and Critical Estimates of its Greatest Masters. By John Comfort Fillmore. Townsend MacCoun. 1883.

MR. FILLMORE deserves the thanks of all musical people for having written a very readable book on an interesting subject. If music teachers knew how much pleasanter they could make their tasks to their pupils by letting them know something about the history of their art, they would not neglect this subject so much as they now do. The trouble is that the teachers know very little about it themselves. The lack of suitable text-books is to some extent responsible for this state of affairs; but, as far as the pianoforte is concerned, is now remedied by Mr. Fillmore's monograph, which is written in a clear, fluent style, and can be readily understood by all who are familiar with the ordinary musical terminology.

The history of pianoforte music is a fascinating illustration of the relation between science and art, and the dependence of genius on the material means for the expression of ideas. To give only one instance: At the present day all

persons who are not frightened by a big name and frankly confess their opinions, admit that Mozart's pianoforte music is tiresome to them. It could not well be otherwise. The instruments for which Mozart wrote were very imperfect in mechanism and tone. They had neither the compass, nor the brilliancy, nor the sustaining power of our modern instruments. A prolonged singing tone could not be produced on them, and for this the composer attempted to atone by a series of runs, trills, and other fancy work which to us appears perfectly meaningless and insipid; although some persons still pretend to admire it. Mozart himself, we may feel assured, would never have written in this style if he could have heard one of our modern pianofortes, with their poetic tone quality; for when he wrote for an instrument that could sustain a note, *e. g.*, the human voice, he produced works which are as beautiful to-day as they were a century ago.

Mr. Fillmore devotes a brief introductory chapter to a description of the predecessors of the pianoforte—the clavichord and harpsichord. A few woodcuts would have been acceptable here. In part 1 the first classical period of Bach and Handel is considered. Part 2 takes up successively the epoch of the development of the sonata form, the predominance of content over form in the sonata, and the transition from the classic to the romantic period (Weber, Schubert). Part 3 is devoted to the romantic period (Mendelssohn, Chopin, Schumann). In these chapters not only are the composers named treated as writers for the pianoforte, but short biographies of them are given, with general estimates as to their place in musical history. In part 4 the technic of the different periods is considered more specially, and part 5 is devoted to the minor composers and pianists of each epoch, including those who are at present most prominent in Europe and America. This classification and arrangement of topics is on the whole commendable, the most serious objection to it being the general one which applies to the words "classic" and "romantic," by means of which composers so utterly different in every respect as Bach and Mozart on the one hand and Mendelssohn and Chopin on the other are classed together. Mr. Fillmore carefully defines the sense in which he uses these terms, and he shows, not only here, but in chapter v. of part 2, which treats of the fundamental questions of musical æsthetics, an intelligence rare among English writers on such topics and a commendable avoidance of metaphysical subtleties and empty verbiage.

One point to which greater prominence might have been given is the manner in which the artificial sonata form has been gradually displaced by the shorter forms introduced by Schubert, Mendelssohn, Field, and especially Chopin and Schumann. The Irish pianist, John Field, receives a just tribute in the statement that "he fairly ushered in the romantic era by inventing the nocturne," a form in which Chopin subsequently greatly surpassed him, although his first essays in it are strikingly suggestive of Field. Another statement to which we wish to call attention is that "Moszkowski has perhaps greater genius than any of the younger generation" of pianoforte composers. In general, our own views agree so well with those expressed in the present volume that there is no need of our dwelling on them. Two emphatic exceptions may be noted—the statements that Liszt's music is preëminently sensational, and that Chopin's is often morbid. Both these views are based on a Teutonic bias. The German reduces his emotions, like everything else, to a system—first a quick, then a slow movement, and so on, each of a definite, predetermined length. Liszt's music, on the contrary, constantly changes its rhythms, its tempo, and its moods, because it is a reflection of the ever-changing sentiments of the Magyar. To call this sensational is unjust. It is simply a national peculiarity, and, to be frank, we prefer it to the German style, which, however, has been much modified by Schumann, Wagner, and other recent composers. The assertion that Chopin's music is often morbid has been so frequently made as to have become a commonplace which many critics repeat in parrot fashion. But it is one of the absurdest notions ever conceived through national prejudice. Chopin's music is dreamy and melancholy; but sadness is one of the first attributes of the highest genius. The wondrous harmonies which make this music appear dreamy to some and unintelligible to others are really prophetic glimpses of the music of the future. To a student of music they are inexhaustible gold mines, indicating the veins which the harmonic development of his art will follow. The one great *bêtise* of Mr. Fillmore's excellent book is the marginal note, "The Preludes of a morbid character." In our opinion the Preludes are Chopin's greatest works, and what has just been said applies to them in particular. They are too poetic to be played in public, and although some of them are easy enough technically, few can play them with the proper expression. If all collections of pianoforte music were to be destroyed save one, the present writer would cast his vote for Chopin's twenty-five Preludes.

In the last pages of his book Mr. Fillmore asks the question whether our present pianofortes are destined to be superseded by some future instruments with all the varieties of tone color producible by the orchestra. He might have referred here to the piano-melodium in which the manufacturer Alexandre attempted to realize Liszt's old dream of uniting the varied tone-shades of an organ with the peculiar excellences of the piano, but which failed to give satisfaction. "It is not at all improbable," says Mr. Fillmore, "that Helmholtz's well-known experiments on overtones by means of a series of tuning forks reinforced by resonators and kept in vibration by means of electricity, may point the way to a final solution. Perhaps the coming instruments may employ tuning forks instead of strings. . . ." We hardly think that this is among the probabilities. Our best manufacturers at present produce pianos whose tones are as agreeable to the ear as those of an old Italian violin, and they have remarkable sustaining powers, provided the hearer is not too far away from the instrument. The greatest desideratum in the modern pianoforte is the power to modify the intensity of a tone after it has been struck—to produce a *crescendo* and *diminuendo* without making use of the *tremolo*. To hope for this is perhaps to hope for the pianists' Millennium.

German Life and Literature. In a Series of Biographical Studies. By Alexander Hay Japp, LL.D., F.R.S.L., F.R.S.E., F.R.G.S. F.S.A. London: Marshall Japp & Co.

Two generations have passed since Mr. Carlyle, having gone to Germany and "found what he wanted," returned home and commenced scourging his countrymen for their dislike of what was currently known as German vagueness and transcendentalism. Since that time the cause which Carlyle befriended, the cause of German idealism in England, has been, upon the whole, prosperous. There may have been no general approximation of the English to the German mind, but there has been a steadily growing number of Englishmen who were willing to drop the schoolmaster's tone and approach the "empire of the air" in a studious and teachable spirit. The note of insularity which once characterized most English deliverances upon things German is now but rarely discernible in the best English writing, and the old-style criticism which supposed its task to be done when it had said, with due emphasis, I like you, or I don't like you, has given way to a scholarly examination of German thought as an historical growth to be genetically studied and understood.

In view of this gratifying tendency of the time, the appearance of a new volume upon 'German Life and Literature,' by an Englishman, has a certain alluring suggestiveness; one opens the work with high hopes of finding some fresh evidence of the growth of intellectual comity between Germany and England. Such hopes are naturally strengthened in the present case when one observes the impressive initials which Mr. Japp prints after his name, and then reads in the preface that several of the "Studies" are reprinted in amplified form from the *Contemporary* and other well-known English reviews, and that they have "had the good fortune to be well spoken of by those whose judgment the author highly respects and values." After bearing such credentials, the reader can perhaps afford to smother whatever disappointment he may feel at finding that he is to be taken over such a very familiar route.

'German Life and Literature' consists of nine chapters and 520 octavo pages. Separate essays are given to Lessing, Winckelmann, Moses Mendelssohn, Herder, Goethe, Tieck, and Novalis. A chapter is added upon "The Romantic Element in German Literature" and another upon "German Philosophy and Political Life." In all these essays, with one conspicuous exception, the writer stands upon a footing of good will and respect toward his subject, and is for the most part readable, even if the biography now and then becomes somewhat excursive and garrulous, and the criticism the reverse of subtle. The author frequently interrupts himself with long and very badly-printed quotations in German and French, and with gossip, anecdote, and controversy; all this being done in a way that indicates at once a wide range of critical reading and a defective sense of literary perspective. So much has been written about the men who are here discussed, that a reader of to-day has a right to be excused from listening to that which has often been said before, or which is in itself unimportant. Of the trivial Mr. Japp's pages are full.

Upon the whole, the essay upon Lessing and the one upon the "Romantic Element in German Literature" are the best. The oft-told and always interesting story of Lessing's life is here rehearsed again from the sources with good effect. The critical estimate is just and discriminating, although in no sense revolutionary. It is insisted upon at length that Lessing was a true Protestant and successor of Luther; that the poet in him cannot be separated from the theologian and thinker, and that a unity of moral purpose runs through all his work. The proposition of a later essay, that we may "find in Lessing all the leading ideas for which the Romantic school contended" is hardly worth Mr. Japp's laborious defence of it. One shrinks at last from assenting to a line of argument that requires one to fancy Lessing among the contributors to the *Athenæum*, perhaps writing Friedrich Schlegel's essay "Ueber die Unverständlichkeit." The essays upon Tieck and Novalis are excellent unless we take exception to them for being overloaded with biographical details that lead nowhither. The chapter upon the "Romantic Element in German Literature',

is an attempt to deduce Romanticism historically; to find its beginnings in Herder, or even in Winckelmann and Lessing, and to follow it through the storm-and-stress down to the time of the Romantic school. To such as are familiar with the work of Haym, of Julian Schmidt, or of Brandes, Mr. Japp's treatment of Romanticism will present little that is new or suggestive. To others it will be useful, although its value is impaired historically by its complete silence concerning the prodigious influence of Rousseau, and critically by its violent hatred of Goethe.

It is in the essay upon Goethe that Mr. Japp's *Tendenz* as a critic appears in the strongest light. This essay is the longest in the book. It occupies more than a hundred pages, and is one long castigation of its subject. Indeed, throughout the entire volume Mr. Japp leaves no opportunity unused to show that he conceives his special mission in the world as that of a Goethemastix. At the end of his protracted examination the court finds (p. 378) that "Goethe is thus one of those who suffer from closer acquaintance. He is egotistic, self-conscious, vain and affected; one might also say that he is self-indulgent, prurient, and selfishly vicious." The court, however, is no coward that dares speak speak plainly only of a dead man that cannot defend himself; for after "turning away" from Goethe "with a sense of something inexplicably coarse, gross, and sensual in the grain of him," the stern judge continues: "We should have written precisely as we do now were he still alive to pit his patronage and power against us for such words." The essay discusses Goethe's kaleidoscopic loves in thirty pages, now with pathos, again with bathos, and always with indignation. In spite of all, however, Mr. Japp cannot quite bring himself to admit that Mr. R. H. Hutton's epithet of "spooney" as applied to Goethe was exactly the thing. By way of summing up Goethe's literary activity Mr. Japp writes, with curious chronological somersaults, (p. 300): "After a period of ultra-classicality he see-sawed betwęen ultra-Gothic, as seen in parts of 'Faust'; sentimental and morbid or semi-psychological experiments, as seen in the 'Elective Affinities' and 'Wilhelm Meister'; Greek affectations, as seen in 'Tasso,' and sickly, overreal, though elaborate, records of personal episodes, as seen in the 'Roman Elegies.'" Several pages are given to a singularly perverse discussion of *Das Dämonische* and *Naturkräft* (*sic*) as exhibited in Goethe's life and works. "'Wilhelm Meister' is one of the most shameless, prurient, and debauched of modern productions; and author, translators, and euphemistic commentators and *claquer*-choruses (*sic*) have one and all shown themselves . . . deficient in 'mental chastity.'" And so on through page after page of polemic directed against the "Goethe-worship" of Carlyle and Lewes.

Fichte once said that it is not every one's affair to study philosophy, and so we may say that it is not every one's affair to write essays upon Goethe. One does not need to be a "Goethe-worshipper" in order to feel very sure that any useful critic of the man must in these days possess an intellectual equipment very unlike that of Mr. Japp. Such a critic must have his eyes open to numerous other issues than the half-dozen regrettable priapisms of Wilhelm Meister, or the old talk about Goethe's heartless experiments upon women. There is doubtless room in the world for several opinions on every subject, but it may be safely said that one who at the present time quotes with approval Börne's remark that "Goethe narrows because he is narrow," or who finds in the poet's later years a "peculiar atrophy of healthy creative power," is not quite the man to further his countrymen toward a better understanding of Goethe. *Nur Liebe hat Verständniss.*

As a specimen of book-making, 'German Life and Literature' is the opposite of irreproachable. A table of six errata is given, apparently as specimens of the mistakes which ought to have been corrected on every page. The three short mottoes prefixed to the essay upon Goethe contain ten misprints, and the essay itself many scores of them. Mr. Japp trips not seldom in minor statements of facts and in his translations. On page 281 the old error is repeated that Goethe returned from Strasbourg as doctor: it should be licentiate. On page 444 Fr. von Hardenberg is said to have gone to Jena in 1789, where he had Fichte for a teacher and was greatly influenced by the *Wissenschaftslehre*. He went in the autumn of 1790. Fichte was not appointed to the chair of philosophy in Jena until the end of 1793, and the beginning of his influence upon Von Hardenberg dates from 1796. Page 371, in a passage quoted from Rosenkranz, Goethe is accused of the "cultivation" in his later years "of the (*sic*) eastern *manners*." Query: Does the original read *Weisen*? At any rate, the Orientalism in Goethe's "manners" is a point that has not been much dwelt upon hitherto by his biographers. But most delectable among several delectable achievements of translation is the repeated rendering (p. 360) of *Knabe Lenker* as the Boy *Lenker!*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Handy Book of Old and Familiar Hymns. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.
Bell, H. T. M. Old Year Leaves: being old Verses Revived. London: Elliot Stock.
Brinton, D. G. The Güegüence: a Comedy Ballet in the Nahuatl-Spanish Dialect of Nicaragua. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton.
Conkling, A. R. Appletons' Guide to Mexico, including a Chapter on Guatemala and a complete English-Spanish Vocabulary. D. Appleton & Co.
Corbett, Mrs. E. T. Rustic Rhymes and Ballads. Gilliss Brothers.
Cumnock, Prof. R. M. School Speaker: Rhetorical Recitations for Boys and Girls. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.00.
Emerson, R. W. Poems. Lectures and Biographical Sketches. Miscellanies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 3 vols. $1.75 each.
English as She is Wrote. Parchment Paper Series. D. Appleton & Co.
Farrar, Canon. With the Poets. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Jeffrey, Rosa V. Marah: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.25.
Lytton, Earl of. The Life, Letters, and Literary Remains of Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton. Part II. Biography. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Morelli, G. Italian Masters in German Galleries. Translated from the German. London: George Bell & Sons.
North American Review. Vol. cxxxvii.
O'Rell, Max. John Bull and his Island. Translated from the French. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Won at West Point: a Romance of the Hudson. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 10, 1884.

The Week.

THE year 1883 will long be remembered as a period of continuous decline in prices, resulting in an increase of 50 per cent. in the number of failures in the United States, and 70 per cent. in their aggregate liabilities; a year in which the expansion of the railroad system suddenly decreased from the building of nearly 12,000 miles of railway in 1882 to 6,600 miles in 1883; a year of liquidation and contraction of enterprises. These phenomena were reflected in the money market by the distrustful attitude maintained by capital toward investments of any sort, whether in the share capital of corporations or their first-mortgage bonds, and also in the distrust of all mercantile credit, as manifested in the extreme discrimination exercised in the discount of mercantile paper, and the preference for loans on collateral security even at rates so low that it was at times scarcely worth the trouble and risk of making loans at all. Moreover, in the last few weeks it has appeared that the Northern Pacific Railroad and the New York, West Shore & Buffalo have each cost about $7,000,000 more than their original estimates, while the New York & New England, the Ohio Central, and several others have been placed in the hands of receivers, and the promoters of these enterprises have all suffered greater losses than was presumed possible a few months ago. On the other hand, there is still an unusual exportable supply of grain and cotton products in the United States. The stocks of grain in store at the West, and of cotton at the sea-ports and interior towns of the United States, are larger than ever before, and the movement of these within the next six months, even at low prices, must do much toward the restoration of confidence, by giving the railways large earnings, and increasing the credit balance due to the United States from Europe.

The sudden and complete reversal of public opinion regarding Mr. Henry Villard, consequent upon the discovery that of all losers by the reaction in Oregon and Northern Pacific shares he has been by far the heaviest loser, and that his loss has been made total, or nearly so, by his endeavors to save others from loss who had invested in those securities by reason of their faith in him, is one of the most noteworthy features of a troubled time in the world of finance. Here is a man who has handled nearly or quite one hundred million dollars of other people's money within the space of four years. Much of this was put in his hands without other security than his personal receipt. Fortunes were made in the earlier enterprises which he planned, and the two Oregon companies which he first took in charge (the Railway and Navigation Company and the Improvement Company) are still earning handsome dividends and are on a sound foundation. The Transcontinental Company, which came later, was caught in the financial gale which began to blow about the time that President Garfield was assassinated, and which has carried down so many promising enterprises since that date. When people began to lose money, suspicion was naturally cast upon Mr. Villard, and as the losses became heavier the storm of detraction became louder and fiercer, until the man against whom its force was directed fell. Then it was found that he had wronged no man or company, that he had helped others as long as he could, and that when he could do no more, he had retired and handed his property over to his creditors as the same might appear. The *Times*, which was conspicuous among his assailants, rightly esteems Mr. Villard's career as a shining contrast to what usually goes on among "magnates" in Wall Street and the railway world.

There seems to be no pressing demand for any specific scheme for distributing the surplus. Already bills have been presented to Congress calling for no less than $500,000,000 of special appropriations for all sorts of purposes. A big surplus is a powerful magnet, and the grand rush made to get some of it will convince Mr. Blaine of the shrewdness of his effort to gain Presidential capital by formulating a plan for general distribution. Already applications have been presented for the appropriation of $105,000,000 for public education, $175,000,000 for pensions, $100,000,000 for the never-ending process of equalizing bounties, $30,000,000 for State claims, $12,000,000 for public buildings, and $25,000,000 for half-pay Revolutionary officers. The pension schemes are unusually prolific and ingenious, and show that the "soldier vote" is still an object of great solicitude.

The publication of the Huntington letters has produced an immediate effect in Washington, by showing some members of Congress how dangerous it is for them to be seen in familiar converse with lobbyists, or the employees of lobbyists. One of them is quoted as saying that the moral of the correspondence is —have nothing to do with Huntington; not because he is a bad man, for Congressmen in the discharge of their duty have to meet bad men, but because he may take advantage of the interview to write a letter to "Friend Colton" about it, giving him the idea that he has secured another vote by corrupt means. There is nothing in the correspondence as published, however, to show that Huntington is in the habit of writing letters for the purpose of blackening the characters of good but unsuspicious Congressmen and Senators, or misrepresenting to Colton what he is about. The evidence contained in them is particularly trustworthy, because he is always so afraid that it will get into print. He had reason enough to desire to corrupt Congressmen, but no reason at all to misrepresent to Colton the real nature of his transactions with them.

The *Sun* has a doleful despatch from Washington, purporting to give the views of Democratic Congressmen who are returning from visits to their constituents during the holiday recess. It represents nearly all of them as standing on the verge of despair. One is put down as saying that "no party can succeed in this country on a free-trade platform during the present generation—it is death to any party now." Another declares that a revision of the tariff without a reduction of the duty on wool is an impossibility, and such a reduction will ruin them in Ohio. Another thinks that Louisiana will never stand a reduction of sugar duties. Another says Mississippi insists upon a duty upon jute; another, that South Carolina must have a duty on rice; and still another, that Alabama must have a duty on iron. "When the Democrats face such facts as these," says the despatch, "they begin to get gloomy, and are determined to do all in their power to prevent an agitation which they fear will lead to ruin." The most curious thing about the whole situation is the idea, which seems to animate the *Sun* in its persistent advocacy of the "gloomy view," that, by taking the back track now and attempting to dodge the issue till after the Presidential election, the party can improve its prospects at all.

The temperance leaders in Ohio have formulated an ambitious scheme for work in the approaching Presidential campaign. They are going to send a petition, signed by Republicans only, to the Republican National Convention, and another, signed by Democrats only, to the Democratic National Convention, asking each body to come out in favor of submitting a prohibitory amendment to the National Constitution. If either convention consents to do this, the support of the temperance vote will be pledged to its Presidential candidates. If neither consents, then a national temperance ticket will be put in the field, and the two political parties must prepare for trouble. The scheme is not likely to alarm the politicians of the country sufficiently to induce them to recognize it. The temperance movement in Ohio and in other Western States, while it is likely to be a formidable factor in State elections for many years to come, must necessarily fall into the background during a Presidential contest, when other and more exciting issues come to the front. Furthermore, the antagonism between the Republicans and temperance people in Ohio during the last campaign threw the State into the hands of the Democrats, and postponed all possibility of temperance legislation till 1885. The situation is practically the same in Iowa. Agitation in either State can hope to accomplish little for two years at least.

The Supreme Court rendered a decision on Monday which will at least suspend or re-

tard the Readjuster swindling in Virginia. The State, it may be remembered, issued bonds, the coupons of which were made receivable for taxes. The Readjusters, when they got into power, proceeded to cheat the bondholders by depriving the coupons of their tax-paying power and forbidding the tax-collector to receive them. A suit was thereupon brought by a taxpayer named Austin Smith, against the Richmond Treasurer, in the United States Court, for levying on his goods for taxes after he had tendered the coupons in payment. The suit was, on the defendant's application, removed to the State Court, where the plaintiff would have no chance. The Supreme Court has now reinstated the cause in the Federal Court. There are other Virginia coupon cases before the Supreme Court, but they will probably not be reached for some time.

The Government seems to make little headway with its attempts to exclude the Louisiana Lottery from the mails. Judge Pardee has just decided a minor point against it, and there promises to be plenty of litigation over the matter for some time to come. The difficulty comes in part from the fact that the lottery is regarded by a large part of the community in Louisiana as an excellent institution, and that there is plenty of money to carry on the fight. In the case of the use of the mail for the circulation of indecent publications, the Government has to contend with timid rascals who are dreadfully afraid of being caught. But in the case of this lottery, one of the moves of the defence has been to get a reputable New Orleans bank to do its correspondence for it. It is difficult to stop such things as this without the introduction of inquisitorial machinery, which is, to say the least, of doubtful utility.

Every newspaper that has referred to Judge McCrary's resignation has urged the increase of the Circuit judges' salaries. The *Herald*, however, makes the somewhat singular remark, that the increase of salaries would not draw to the bench abler men than are now there, and would not keep them there. If this is so, why not leave the matter alone? or why pay them any salary at all? There are plenty of sharp lawyers in this city who would take any Federal judgeship in the land gladly, and pay a bonus for it too. One objection to low salaries is that it occasionally brings on to the bench judges who are altogether too sharp. Has not the *Herald* heard of such cases?

The Raleigh (N. C.) *News and Observer* says that silver now forms the ordinary currency of the South, while in New England there is none of it in use, and in other parts of the North very little. The reason is, that "the large, hard, indestructible silver dollar is well suited to the wants and needs" of the Southern people. It complains, therefore, that the Government, by its present course in coining and putting afloat a silver coin which is only worth 86 cents on the dollar, is doing the South a great injury, and demands that the silver dollar be made within one cent as valuable as the gold dollar by increasing its size. It calls on Mr. Dowd, who serves on the Coinage Committee, to pay heed to this suggestion, which is not novel, though the argument by which it is supported is.

Butler ended his career as Governor of Massachusetts at noon on New Year's Day. He crowded the last few days of his term as full as possible with Butler antics, and was evidently determined to go out of office with flying colors. Having made the mistake of accusing his predecessor of pardoning a convict whom he had himself pardoned, he got out of the blunder, in a thoroughly Butlerish manner, by saying that there were so many Republican officials, and so many Sunday-school teachers, deacons, and ministers in the State prison that he could not help getting them mixed up. Then he appointed to preach the customary election sermon a clergyman who he knew would commend his administration, and rode with great military pomp to the church to listen to it. Then he left a copy of the Bible in the Executive Chamber, inscribing in it that he found no Bible there when he came into office, that he supposed "each Governor took his away with him," that this one had been given to him by a friend, and that he would leave it for the use of his successors.

The latest version of Mr. Blaine's Presidential policy exhibits him as playing the slyest game of his life. He is represented as keeping himself in the background, and pushing forward a multitude of lesser men for the nomination, with the ultimate hope that when each of these discovers that his own chance is hopeless, he will turn about, and out of gratitude nominate Blaine as the candidate upon whom all can unite. In compliance with this deep-laid scheme, it is said that Blaine has already declared himself in favor of five separate candidates. He has nominated Allison in Iowa, Harrison in Indiana, Cullom in Illinois, Miller in California, Sabin in Minnesota, and has given each his private assurance that he is the choice of his heart for the place. In this way he hopes to make them all sharers in the Blaine reserve boom which shall appear at the last moment, snatch the Sage, resisting with all his might, from his "great big table" of historical composition, and thrust him into the Presidential chair. There may be little truth in this version, but there is nothing improbable about it.

Governor Knott, of Kentucky, has been making an attempt, which must prove futile, in his message to the Legislature, to clear the State of the charge of murderous lawlessness. He has nothing to offer in support of his statement except the assertion that homicides are not more numerous in Kentucky than in many other States, and that a "distinguished English journalist," who lately passed through the State, gave it as his opinion —based, in part, doubtless, on the absence of any attempt on his own life— "that human life is just as safe in Kentucky as in England." That it is as safe in slums, saloons, and bar-rooms, we have no doubt; but the charge against Kentucky is that no man is safe among the farmers, lawyers, doctors, and business men against murder or murderous assaults arising out of trifling business or social disputes, which, in other communities, would only lead to coolness or an angry word or two.

In Allendale, S.C., the other day, two O'Bryans were going home from a family dance and were roughly accosted by two Stranges in the street. They resented this proceeding by flogging the Stranges with canes and buggy whips in default of other weapons. The Stranges naturally resisted, and one of the O'Bryans, as a precautionary measure, ran and got his pistol. On his return to the scene of action, he found that the Stranges had received aid from a quarter from which aid seldom comes to men engaged in mortal combat, namely, their grandfather, Mr. Hewlett, the City Marshal, who began to use his pistol freely on the O'Bryans. He was assisted by his two sons, so that there were then three generations of the Hewletts actively engaged. The O'Bryans could not have made head against such odds had they, too, not received a reinforcement in the person of their kinsman, Gus Allen. After a brief action at very close range Tom Hewlett and Evan Strange were slain, and some of the others wounded. The Coroner's jury declared that the dead fell "under pistol shots fired by hands unknown." The Charleston *News and Courier* pronounced this a failure of justice, and asked for an indictment, but the citizens of Allendale have resented this interference at a public meeting, in which they declared that the observations of the *News and Courier* "deeply grated upon the sensibilities of every law-abiding person in Barnwell County," and that "they felt grateful to God for having overshadowed the lives of three brave men while defending themselves from death," while praying to God "to have mercy on the souls of the unfortunate men shriven through the baptism of blood so unavoidable." It thus seems that everybody came out of the affair creditably. The living did some excellent killing, and the dead also are entitled to the thanks of the community for dying.

The Canada protectionists are beginning their education where children begin theirs—in confectionery. A late boom for a protective duty on refined sugar for the benefit of the refiners succeeded so far as to raise the price of American refined sugar to a figure which left a margin for home production. Thereupon a refinery was started which did a good business on the small consumption of the Dominion, but when three more refineries started in competition, the profits ran down so that the protectionists are asking for increase of the duty to save them from ruin. While they are legislating, why not go further, and provide that each family in the Dominion shall consume a definite quantity per annum, and that if the consumers can't pay, the Canadian Government shall? That would be the sweet *reductio ad absurdum* of protectionism, and not more absurd than some of its whims here.

The Higbie-Vaughan mock-marriage case exhibits in a glaring light the condition of the marriage laws of this State. The parties are a boy and girl, of seventeen and eighteen years, and the marriage, according to evidence brought before the Judge, was the result of a "church sociable" frolic. In the midst of this, it was proposed that all present should get married, and a great number of mock marriages were solemnized, the parties in the present case being each married twice over. The testimony taken reveals extreme laxity in the manners of the whole party, but the sum and substance of the case is an attempt on the part of the girl or her family to perpetrate a gross fraud under cover of the law—taking, of course, the Judge's view of the facts proved as correct. The girl, it is true, swore to some facts which gave a different color to the occurrence, but, unfortunately, what she said was contradicted by eight disinterested witnesses. Her lawyer, however, promises to appeal to the General Term of the Supreme Court, and the case may find its way to the Court of Appeals, and become an authority as to the marriage laws of this State. Our judges apparently have to allow such proceedings to be gravely litigated. They show a condition of law which is confessedly scandalous and dangerous. There is nothing to prevent the Legislature from stopping the evil by the passage of a bill requiring record evidence of all marriages. This is all that a marriage license means. Nobody imagines that there is any hardship in such a law. Why should we insist upon record evidence of all transactions of importance involving the transfer of property, and require no permanent record of the most solemn of all human contracts?

A new social craze has been started in England which promises well as far as it has gone —a ghost and haunted-house revival. England, being a country of old families, is full of haunted houses and of ghosts, and the spread of spiritualism in the last twenty-five years has probably done something to create a good atmosphere for a general ghost "racket." It will, perhaps, have a good economical effect in raising the rents of dilapidated houses having a good ghost record. The market for these has always been depressed, but if society takes up the craze with a will, it may possibly bring such dwellings into fashion yet, and this result of the movement would be a godsend to many an old family whose heavily encumbered estates fail to yield the income they once did.

The Irish Government have got themselves into a heap of trouble by having at the outset countenanced the extraordinary doctrine that they ought to prohibit the meetings of the Irish Nationalists in any district in which the Orangemen threatened to make a riotous attack on them. Nationalist meetings held to discuss or petition for a separate government for Ireland are, of course, perfectly legal, because they only discuss or petition for the repeal of an act of Parliament, and they were entitled to be protected by all the force of the state. But Lord Spencer, in a thoughtless moment, gave countenance to the silly view that holding such meetings in Ulster was a reasonable provocation to Protestants, and thus gave the Orangemen to understand that all they had to do, in order to have them prevented, was to threaten to attack them. He has since seen the error of his ways, but too late, for he has to protect them now by charges of cavalry and infantry. How ill-founded the notion is that Ulster is in any sense Protestant territory, in which discontented Catholics or Celts ought not to be allowed to open their lips, is easily shown by the figures of the last census. The Catholics in the ten counties of Ulster number 633,566 ; the Protestant denominations 831,-031. But in five of the ten counties, the Catholics are in a considerable majority, the Protestant strength lying in four counties only. In Tyrone County, in which the recent Orange rioting has been going on, the Catholics number 109,793 ; all the Protestants put together, 87,916.

The story which has been going the rounds of the papers, that the *Tribune's* London correspondent is really an American named Smalley, born and bred in Connecticut, may be dismissed without criticism. The *Anglo-American Times* probably comes near the mark in saying that he is "an officer of the Royal Engineers." But this, too, is doubtful. The officers of the Royal Engineers are generally very accomplished men, of liberal sympathies and opinions. One of Darwin's sons is in the corps. If the correspondent is in the army at all, it must be in the Life Guards, in which none but intensely Tory views of politics and society are tolerated, and an officer's most important duty is commanding the escorts for the Queen between Windsor Castle and the railroad station. He always rides close to the off hind wheel of the carriage, and his chief care is to prevent his men from cantering, which the Queen greatly dislikes. The world seen from this position, and especially the Radical and Irish world, must appear indeed vulgar and turbulent. But against this theory there is the internal evidence of his letters that he is well on in life, in which case he would hardly be serving as a regimental officer. He is, therefore, if a military man, probably a choleric old half-pay general with a wig, who makes it hot for the waiters at the United Service Club and at Boodle's.

The story of the Pope's having received a threatening letter from the Fenians apropos of his course in regard to the share of the Irish clergy in the Nationalist agitation, is an illustration of the absurdly excessive importance which has been attached to threatening letters all through this Irish trouble. The Irish police have kept regular records of the number of such letters received every month, which have been regularly laid before Parliament as important criminal statistics bearing on the condition of the country. As a matter of fact, however, probably not one in a thousand had any importance whatever, or was anything but a cheap and comparatively safe mode of annoying or frightening some one; and the more importance was attached to them by the police, of course, the more of them were written. The Pope's letter is probably of this character. Why should not some wag or crack-brained person, Irish or other, threaten his life by mail, when it only costs five cents, and promises to make a newspaper sensation that will last several days?

The British Cabinet, it was announced on Monday, had settled its Egyptian policy. It has determined to let the False Prophet have the Sudan, but not to let him leave it—that is, to defend Egypt proper against him—and has intimated to the Khedive that to this he must submit, or else go up and fight the Prophet himself. The notion that the Turks or anybody else will be allowed or encouraged to do it has probably no foundation. The Abyssinians can be got to attack him for a trifle, and a little money spent in this way would be well spent by anybody who does not like the Prophet, and wishes him ill. That he will never try to leave the Sudan is all but certain. If he is allowed to have Khartum for a capital, he will be only too happy. It is not likely, however, that he will long remain in undisputed possession of his honor and authority. His success as a Prophet will induce others to go into the business. There are probably a half-dozen dervishes lodging in caves or barrels to-day, and making themselves as nasty and malodorous as possible, in preparation for setting up an opposition concern. There is in the Sudan room for a dozen Prophets to pray, preach, and fight.

Under these circumstances, the course of wisdom both for England and Egypt would seem to be to let El Mahdi have as much Sudan as he cares for. The people all seem friendly to him. Egyptian civilization has taken no hold of them. Everybody seems to welcome him—some few, perhaps, because they believe in him, but by far the greater number because they liked the good old slave-trading days, which under his rule would come back again. Baker Pasha and Chinese Gordon undoubtedly did a great deal to suppress the trade in the Eastern Sudan, but the truth is, whether it be a melancholy truth or not, that the negroes of the South on whom the Arab slave-dealers make their annual raids, will probably not obtain complete immunity within any reasonable period, except by turning Mohammedans. It is an undoubted fact that more has been done for the elevation of the negro tribes of Northern and Central Africa by Mussulman propagandism within the last thirty or forty years than by any other agency. The Mohammedan faith has the inestimable advantage of rousing the savage's self-respect. When he becomes a true believer, he feels himself raised above the infidels around him, and learns to adore and trust in an unseen Power, and for the first time comes in contact with a moral theology, or, in other words, a theology which controls conduct, while he can still remain a fighting man and marauder. What is far more to our present purpose is, however, that he becomes a brother in the eyes of the Mussulman slave-dealers, who will not harm him as long as they can find giaours to prey upon.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 2, to TUESDAY, January 8, 1884 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

AFFAIRS at Washington have been quiet during the week, owing to theholiday recess. Representative Reagan, of the House Committee on Commerce, hopes soon to consider in that body a bill for the regulation of inter-State commerce. Mr. Randall on Thursday announced the sub-committees of the House Committee on Appropriations.

The House Military Committee has decided to report favorably the bill for the relief of Gen. Fitz-John Porter.

Congress reassembled on Monday. The House of Representatives adopted the rules of the last House, with minor modifications, for twenty days. It having been reported that circulars had been distributed in some of the departments asking contributions for political purposes, in violation of the Civil-Service Law, a resolution was adopted by the House calling upon the heads of the departments for information. The circulars referred to came from Indiana, and requested contributions, for "patriotic reasons," from the Indiana clerks to aid the Republican State Central Committee in preliminary work. The President was requested to furnish the House with information in regard to the exclusion of American hog products from Germany and from France. On Tuesday Mr. Cox, of New York, introduced a resolution calling upon the Secretary of State for information as to the treatment of Jews in Russia. Mr. Dorsheimer introduced a bill relating to the copyright law. Mr. Hunt, of Louisiana, introduced a joint resolution for the immediate appropriation of one million dollars, in accordance with the urgent request of the Mississippi River Commission.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Gibson, of Louisiana, introduced a bill repealing the act limiting the term of certain Federal officers to four years, and making them removable at the pleasure of the President.

At the meeting on Tuesday of the Senate Committee on Finance, Senator Sherman's bill to authorize national banks to secure circulation up to 90 per cent. of the market value of the bonds deposited, was under discussion, but no conclusions were reached. It was urged in support of the measure that it would enable the banks to use the bonds of long time bearing a rate of interest higher than three per cent. Its passage was objected to on the ground that it would be dangerous to make the amount of the circulating medium the subject in any way of a fluctuating standard It is probable that the bill in some form will be reported by the Committee.

General Anson McCook, Secretary of the Senate, has decided to retain in office all Republican employees who were not disturbed by the Democrats.

The decrease in the public debt of the United States during the month of December was $11,743,337. Since June 30, 1883, the decrease has been $53,049,483.

United States Consul Mason, at Basle, Switzerland, in a report to the State Department, points out that the prohibition of American pork in Europe is really due to the fact that its cheapness injures the prosperity of the European farmers. The theory that American meats are diseased is an invention to still the clamor of the people, who are thus deprived of cheaper meat. He says: "The fact deserves to be widely known that here in Switzerland, which is almost the only Continental country in which American meats are permitted to be imported and sold on their merits, their reputation is not only higher now than ever before, but they command a preference in this market over similar classes of meats from every other country."

A short session of the New York Legislature was held on Wednesday, after which they adjourned until Tuesday evening, in order to allow the Speaker time to prepare his committees.

The Senate and Assembly committees were announced when the Legislature reassembled on Tuesday evening. They were prepared, it is said, in the interests of Republican harmony. In the Assembly, Mr. Littlejohn is Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, Mr. Roosevelt, of that on Cities, and Mr. Erwin, of that on Lands.

Gov. Cleveland was called upon, on Weddesday, by a committee of New York city Senators and Assemblymen, who recommended Amos J. Cummings for the position of Aqueduct Commissioner made vacant through the death of Mr. George W. Lane. Mr. Cummings is a journalist. On Monday the Governor appointed Christopher C. Baldwin, a dry-goods merchant of this city, to the vacant position.

Governor Foster, of Ohio, in his message presented on Monday, urges the Legislature to protest against further tariff changes; says that public opinion demands that the Scott law be given a fair trial; opposes the abolition of the prison-contract system, and suggests that all sentences be of an indeterminate character, life sentences excepted, the term of imprisonment to be determined by the prison managers. The managers should adopt a system of rules providing for promotion for good conduct, and reduction of standing for bad conduct. At a certain degree of promotion the convict should be entitled to go out of the prison with the right to his earnings, although he should remain a convict still, bearing the certificate of the prison managers to that effect.

H. B. Payne was nominated for U. S. Senator to succeed Mr. Pendleton, by the Ohio Democratic caucus of the Legislature on Tuesday evening. He received a majority of 7 over all. There were 82 votes cast. Mr. Pendleton received 15, and Durbin Ward 17. It is a victory for the "New Democracy," of which the Cincinnati *Enquirer* is the exponent.

The Women's Christian Temperance Union of Ohio has decided to ask for the resubmission of the Prohibition Amendment at the State election of October, 1885.

The New Jersey Legislature was organized on Tuesday. The Democrats elected Mr. Stoney Speaker of the House, and H. D. Winton, Clerk. The Republicans elected B. A. Vail President of the Senate. In the afternoon Governor Ludlow's message was sent to the Legislature. He recommends an increase in the receipts of the State to $1,000,000 per annum, and a reduction of expenditures by $52,000. He discusses the question of railroad taxation, and recommends a correction of the weak points in the present statute.

The Massachusetts State Senate organized on Wednesday by electing George A. Bruce President, and the House reëlected George A. Marden Speaker. Governor Robinson's first message was sent to the Legislature on Thursday. He favors a constitutional amendment providing for biennial elections and biennial sessions of the Legislature. He discusses briefly the needs of the State civil service, and recommends the enactment of a reform law in accordance with public sentiment. He favors weekly payments of laborers in private or corporate employ, instead of payments at longer intervals.

Insurance Commissioner Tarbox, of Massachusetts, who has had trouble with several insurance companies, presented a special report to the Legislature on Friday afternoon, in which he discussed some of the points at issue. In reference to illegal reinsurance, the Commissioner recommends that a penalty of $500 be imposed on agents as well as on the companies effecting it. As to coöperative insurance, he shows the urgency of appropriate legislation. He says that he has no doubt that many mutual-assessment companies of a fraternal nature exceed their proper powers as such.

A. P. Martin was inaugurated Mayor of Boston on Monday. His message shows that the city will have to borrow $100,000 to meet current expenses during the ensuing year. He urges rigid economy, the consolidation of city pauper institutions, and the creation of a Board of Public Works.

The third annual message of Mayor Low, of Brooklyn, which was sent to the Common Council on Monday, deals especially with the water-supply question. He recommends an immediate enlargement of the Ridgewood reservoir to double its present size, and adds: "In my opinion we ought to take steps at once to secure an increase, not of 5,000,000 or 10,000,000 gallons, as in 1883, but of 20,000,000 gallons, and that as part of a plan having in view an ultimate supply of at least 100,000,000 gallons."

Mr. Matthew Arnold delivered his lecture on Emerson to a large and attentive audience at Association Hall, in this city, on Friday evening. It is asserted that he will probably be the next Secretary of the Education Department of Great Britain, at a salary of $10,000 per year.

Judge McCrary, of the Eighth United States Judicial Circuit, has resigned to become general counsellor of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railway Company.

In the lottery cases at New Orleans Judge Pardee has decided technically against the Postmaster-General, holding that the present Postmaster-General cannot revive the original order of General Key after Key had revoked it. He may issue a new order based on evidence of fraud presented to him.

The compositors in the office of the Troy *Times* struck, without warning, on Thursday. The *Times* had been a non-Union office for years, and was paying its men better rates than Union offices in that city. The compositors demanded that it be made a Union office. The proprietors do not propose to yield, and are organizing another force, with every prospect of success.

An order has been given by the anthracite coal managers of Pennsylvania for half time at the mines during January, February, and March. This is received with great dissatisfaction by the workmen.

Nearly all the iron and steel mills of Pittsburgh are now running, with fair prospects of an increase in business during the present winter. The outlook in the iron trade is therefore more encouraging.

The Reading Railroad has notified all of its employees holding public offices to resign their positions or leave the company's employ. Two members of the incoming New Jersey Legislature are affected by the order.

Mr. Henry Villard on Friday resigned the Presidency of the Northern Pacific Railroad, on account of ill-health and for the best interests of the corporation. In his letter he says: "I am consoled by an abiding confidence that the future will completely vindicate all that I have done."

Mr. Villard's resignation as President was accepted, his resignation as Director was laid upon the table. In view of the fact that during his Presidency Mr. Villard had declined to receive any salary, the Directors passed a resolution ordering the Treasurer to pay him a sum of money at the rate of $10,000 a year for the time during which he held the office.

A meeting of influential men was held at San Francisco on Thursday, at which it was resolved to take preliminary steps for a World's Fair to be held in that city in 1887. A guarantee fund of $1,000,000 is to be raised.

The Columbia College Trustees on Monday received a letter from Professor Rees, of the Astronomical Observatory, stating that Lewis

M. Rutherfurd, a Trustee, had given his astronomical instruments to the Observatory. They are valued at $12,000, and consist of a 13-inch equatorial refracting telescope, with other valuable apparatus.

A parlor car containing the members of the Yale College Glee Club, on their annual concert tour, was run into by an express train at Charleston, Ind., on Saturday night, and two students were seriously, if not fatally, injured.

The convent of the Immaculate Conception, of Belleville, Ill., fourteen miles from St. Louis, was burned on Saturday night, and thirty-seven young women and the Mother Superior perished in the flames. The convent was a very fashionable educational institution. The fire started in the basement, cutting off means of escape, and no ladders were at hand long enough to reach the upper stories.

Dr. Edward Lasker, the eminent German Liberal, died suddenly of heart disease on Friday night, between eleven and twelve o'clock. He had been dining at the residence of Jesse W. Seligman, and was walking home with an acquaintance. He suddenly became ill, walked more slowly, and finally sank down upon the door-step of a private stable. He was carried to the coachman's room above and soon expired. On June 22 last, Dr. Lasker came to America to see his brother in Texas, and to make a study of our institutions. He remained in this city for about a month after his arrival, and crossed the Continent with the Northern Pacific Railroad excursionists. Funeral services will be held in this city on Thursday.

A very general cold wave swept over the country during the week, being first felt in the East on Friday. At Jamestown, Dak., the thermometer was 48 degrees below zero on Friday. In this city it stood at 7 degrees above zero on Monday at 6 A. M. There was a general rise in temperature on Tuesday.

FOREIGN.

Affairs in Egypt approached a crisis during the week. It was asserted on Wednesday that if England insisted upon the complete abandonment of the Sudan, the resignation of the Egyptian Ministry would ensue. The Khedive recommended retrenchment in governmental expenses. There was a cry for Ismail Pasha, the ex-Khedive, or English annexation. On Friday it became known that the relations between England and Egypt were strained. The Government of Egypt sent a note to the Government of Great Britain pointing out to the latter that the present state of things in Egypt could not continue, and asking that a final decision should be given upon the Sudan question. If England should refuse the assistance asked by Egypt, the Khedive and his Ministry determined to abandon to Turkey the Eastern Sudan, and reduce the Egyptian tribute to the Porte. The Egyptian troops would then be concentrated in Egypt proper, thus giving a force of fifteen thousand men to protect the frontier, without the aid of the English army.

The British Cabinet on Saturday, after a prolonged discussion, arrived at a final decision as to the Egyptian policy. The policy heretofore outlined by Mr. Gladstone was adopted. Three official despatches are known to have been sent out at the conclusion of the session. The first assured the Khedive that England would maintain her position in Egypt. The second guaranteed the Khedive that England would undertake to resist any attempt at the invasion of Lower Egypt by El Mahdi, but stated that this guarantee meant no more than that England would assume to confine El Mahdi's operations to the Sudan, and must not be construed as promising any assistance in resisting those operations so long as they were not an actual attack on Egypt proper. The third instructed the British Consul at Massowah to inform the King of Abyssinia that England would not approve of any military operations by Abyssinian troops in the Sudan. Great Britain does not object to the cession of the Eastern Sudan to Turkey, or to Turkish reconquest of the Sudan, provided the Porte pays the expenses. England insists upon the withdrawal of the troops at Khartum to the second cataract of the Nile.

The Egyptian Ministry tendered their resignations to the Khedive at 8 o'clock on Monday evening with the following letter: "The Queen's Government has demanded the abandonment of the Sudan. We have no right to take that step, since the Sudan is in the possession of the Porte, and intrusted to our charge. The Queen's Government asserts that Egypt should follow its counsels without discussion. This declaration violates the organic rescript of August 28, 1878, that the Khedive governs with and through his Ministers. We resign because we are prevented from governing in accordance with the Constitution." On Tuesday Nubar Pasha, who was the Egyptian Minister of War in 1878, accepted the Premiership of the new Ministry, and appointed Mr. Edgar Vincent Minister of Finance.

France regrets the attitude of the English Cabinet on Egyptian affairs in refusing to act outside of Egypt proper, but will offer no objections thereto.

A meeting of the British Cabinet was held on Thursday, at which the programme to be adopted by the Government at the coming session of Parliament, to begin on February 5, was considered.

Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, after attending a Cabinet Council in London, returned to Ireland on Saturday with the sanction of the Cabinet for the adoption of such measures in Ireland as he may think necessary to preserve order.

A friend of O'Donnell has published a story in Dublin to the effect that the latter narrated to him the circumstances attending the assassination of Carey, the informer, and that the affair was a deliberate murder, for the sake of revenge, on the part of O'Donnell.

Mr. Henry George arrived in London on Sunday, and was received by 1,500 people at the railway station, among them a committee of the Land Reform Union.

The striking weavers in North and North-east Lancashire, England, have increased in numbers to 18,000.

A new book has been written by Queen Victoria entitled: 'More Leaves from the Journal of Life in the Highlands, from 1862 to 1882.' Copies have already been presented to a few privileged persons.

William Black, the English novelist, is seriously ill from over-work.

Mr. Lowell's resignation of the Lord Rectorship of St. Andrew's University was on Wednesday positively announced. The principal of the University has requested him to deliver an address to the students and he has consented.

The French Government has received no official communication from the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, since the capture of Sontay. It is asserted that Admiral Courbet met with such stubborn opposition from the enemy, in his attack on Sontay, that he has decided to await the arrival of reinforcements before making any further movements.

The report that the Black Flags massacred French prisoners, captured before Sontay, has been confirmed.

A Paris correspondent asserts that the French Government proposes to sell the state railways; moreover, that the Rothschilds, in behalf of certain great railway companies, have offered the Government 420,000,000 francs for the lines. If the sale were effected, the Government would be enabled to dispense with its contemplated loan of 400,000,000 francs. But the rumor is explicitly contradicted.

Marquis de Rays, charged with falsely inducing many persons to subscribe to an alleged enterprise for the colonization of Port Breton Island, in the South Seas, and for inducing several hundred people to settle there, where many of them died of starvation, was on Wednesday convicted in Paris, and sentenced to four years' imprisonment and $600 fine. A number of his associates were also convicted and sentenced.

A Rome correspondent asserts that the conversation held by the Pope with Crown Prince Frederick William upon the occasion of the latter's visit to the Vatican, consisted of two parts, one of which will remain absolutely secret, while the other will be published at the proper time. The Pope has informed the Cardinals that he has consigned to the secret archives a detailed account of the conversation between himself and Prince Frederick William, in order to transmit to posterity a statement which may in the future be of much importance.

It was reported on Friday that the Pope's Secretary, Monsignor Boccali, opened a letter from America, addressed to "Leo XIII.," containing Fenian threats against the Pope should he continue to support England against the national cause in Ireland.

The Pope has confirmed the appointment of Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, as apostolic delegate to preside at the Catholic Council to be held in Baltimore in 1885.

The ceremony of transferring the body of the late King Victor Emanuel from its temporary burying-place to the chapel in the Pantheon, took place in Rome on Saturday. The public was not admitted.

Marietta Gazzaniga, the well-known opera singer, died recently in Italy. She was about sixty years of age.

Prince Bismarck has forbidden the circulation in Germany of three well-known organs of extreme Socialism.

The latest version of the recent accident to the Czar is, that while he was returning from a hunting expedition with his suite, six men suddenly appeared in the road and shot at him. His horses became frightened and his sledge was overturned. A bullet lodged in his shoulder, but the wound is not dangerous. Whether the story is true or not, the revival of Nihilism is undoubted.

Four Nihilists committed the murder of Lieutenant-Colonel Sudeikin, referred to last week. The leader was an ex-artillery officer, who was discovered to be identical with Jabowski, the Nihilist. Important papers relating to Nihilist plots have been found at the late residence of Sudeikin. Thirty arrests have resulted.

It is reported by the correspondent of a London newspaper, that the passage in President Arthur's message wherein it is stated that it might become necessary for the United States to coöperate with other Powers for a safeguard of their rights of trade on the Congo, has given grievous offence to the Portuguese Government, which is under the impression that the Washington Cabinet would take a different view of the matter if Portugal had at her disposal a large fleet like that of England.

The Government of the Dutch East Indies has sent a body of troops to the West Coast of Atcheen, to compel the Rajah, who holds in captivity the crew of the steamer *Nisero*, which was wrecked there in November last on the passage from Surabaya to Singapore, to surrender them.

Twenty-seven men employed at the Bolt works near Toronto were killed while on board a train near that city, on Wednesday morning. Their train was run into by a freight train. Many injured have since died.

Keshub Chunder Sen, the philanthropist and the promoter of the Brahmo Somaj sect in India, is dead.

JUDGES AND RAILROADS.

JUDGE MCCRARY, of the Eighth U. S. Circuit, has resigned, and has made a frank statement of his reasons for doing so. He resigns because the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad has offered him a much better salary than the sum ($6,000) which the United States gave him. He says that he cannot, in justice to the claims of his family, decline an offer of honorable professional service, which will greatly increase his income and at the same time lighten his burdens. In making this statement he follows the example of Judge Dillon, who resigned this same judgeship four years ago to take a similar position as the salaried counsel of a great railroad.

These facts constitute an instructive commentary upon our judicial salary system. There are nine judicial circuits in the United States. The judges have the same jurisdiction, authority, and responsibility that attaches to the judges of the Supreme Court at Washington. The office of resident circuit judge was created after the war, to relieve the Court at Washington. A judge of that Court on circuit is, or ought to be, drawn from the same class as the judges at Washington. Nevertheless the United States pays the judges at Washington $10,000 a year, the Chief Justice getting $500 more, and the resident circuit judges $6,000, and this although many of them, if not all, have to live during most, or a considerable part, of the year in cities where the rate of living is high, such as New York, Boston, San Francisco, and Chicago.

Now, in these circuits, since the war, the growth of litigated business has been enormous, especially so in the case of railroads. These corporations, for example in such a circuit as that from which Judge McCrary has just resigned, embracing the great railroad States of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, and Nebraska, are continually before the United States judges. Sometimes it is a foreclosure of which they arrange the terms; sometimes it is a receivership, when they not only appoint the receiver, but, through his agency, may have to run the railroad for months, clearing off its debts, enforcing its contracts, deciding whom it shall and whom it shall not employ. In all this business, the parties before the Court are great corporations, owning miles of territory, retaining the most expert lawyers the bar produces, and paying them enormous fees or large salaries. The legal battles fought out in these courts are the battles of giants; they affect millions of property, and the railroads have found by experience that they must in such litigation secure the very best legal ability the country affords without regard to its cost. From ten to twenty thousand dollars a year is the price of service of this sort for the great corporations.

It is into this market that the United States comes to look for circuit judges. Against the bidding of the railroads all it has to offer is the honor of the position, a tenure no better than that offered by the railroads, a life of more constant toil, and a much lower salary. One of two things must happen in consequence. Either the United States will get a second-rate lawyer, who will not do his work well, or, what is more likely, it will get a man of ability, but of small practice, to whom the position will count for a good deal. In a few years he will, as has happened in the case of Judge Dillon and Judge McCrary, become familiar with the business of his court, and become, moreover, an expert in railroad and corporation law; in other words, he will have entered the field from which the great corporations draw their lawyers. It will become worth the while of some railroad to offer him such a salary as will tempt him to give it the benefit of his ability and judicial experience. To suppose that under such circumstances he will remain on the bench is absurd, and nobody does really suppose it.

The present system of lean salaries, therefore, tends to make the United States courts not great professional prizes, to which the greatest lawyers constantly look forward, but preparatory schools for the training of corporation lawyers. The type of an "ex-Judge" who has actually risen from the bench to the position of counsel to a railroad is a peculiar feature of our times. It is hardly necessary to say that it is not for the interest of any country to have such a view of the judicial career gain ground; and the only way to check it is to give the judges such salaries as to make the salary and the position combined more tempting than the bids continually made by the great competitors of the United States in the professional market. A railroad corporation that tried to get its legal work done on such terms as are offered by the United States, would speedily get into terrible trouble.

WHY THE CITY GOVERNMENT IS BAD.

THERE is another and unusually serious attempt to be made to reform the New York city government at this session of the Legislature, in the final passage of a Constitutional Amendment introduced two years ago by a Democratic Assemblyman from this city, Mr. W. S. Andrews. It prohibits special legislation with regard to any city, or any provision for the filling of any office now existing, or hereafter to be created, otherwise than by popular election, or by the appointment of the Mayor, and remits the organization of every municipal government to the people of the place, subject only to such general laws as the Legislature may pass. If the amendment be approved by the present Legislature, it will be submitted to the people next fall. But the amendment submitted by the Tilden Municipal Commission got as far as this one, and was killed. This one has perhaps a somewhat better chance of success, because it has at its back seven years' more experience of municipal corruption and misgovernment.

If it fails, it will fail for the reason which has for twenty-five years prevented any real improvement in municipal administration, and that is, the fact that, as a general rule, the State is Republican while the city is Democratic. Through their possession of the Legislature, therefore, in seven years out of ten, the Republican managers are furnished with the materials for "dickers" and "deals" with the Democratic politicians of the city. The latter have great popular majorities at their disposal here, but they cannot turn them to full account as long as the Republicans at Albany have, through the Legislature, a firm hold on the city charter. This enables the latter to extort a fair share of city patronage from those who, under the spoils system, are its lawful owners.

There is no doubt, too, that the way in which the majority in the city supports Kelly, and for a good while supported Tweed, furnishes the Republicans with a very plausible argument against committing the vast body of property and mighty commercial interests now concentrated in New York to the complete control of the local vote. The same argument tells, as far as it goes, against permitting the election by a popular vote of an autocratic Mayor. Unless, however, the principle which forms the very foundation both of the State and Federal Government is defective, the majority is as fit to rule a city as to rule a nation; but this principle assumes that the majority is a majority of taxpayers. It is not noses which are supposed to be counted when a popular vote is canvassed in any part of the United States, but men who pay money for the common welfare and defence, and know they pay it—for a taxpayer who pays without knowing it, is for political purposes no taxpayer at all. In this matter more than in most others, the old Schoolmen's rule holds good, that what is not seen is of no more account than what does not exist.

Now, the reason why majority government succeeds so well all over the country in small municipalities, like towns, and does not succeed in large cities, is that in the former all, or nearly all, voters are direct taxpayers, and thus feel local politics to be part and parcel of their private and personal affairs. The tax-collector comes to nearly every householder to ask for a sum, be it small or great, the amount of which is in some way dependent on the last election or last town-meeting. In the great cities, on the other hand, the majority is largely made up of persons who, although really taxpayers, and suffering in health and comfort and income from municipal extravagance and corruption, do not believe or realize that they pay any taxes at all. They think the rich pay them, and it is because they think so that bosses like Tweed and Kelly are able to wield them at their will. We believe that any change in the municipal government which sent the tax-collector to every man for any sum, however small, the amount of which clearly depended on the city expenditure, would do more for good government in New York than any other single device. The payment by every man, however humble his abode, of the poor-rates as a condition of voting is the salvation of municipal government in England. It gives every laborer an active and intelligent interest in municipal affairs, although he is in no English municipality nearly as much of a taxpayer as the thousands of laborers here, who year after year send a gang of liquor-dealers to the City Hall to swindle and betray them. The "bottom fact" of misgovernment in this city, in short, is the belief of the poor that whatever their leaders can filch out of the Treasury and

spend in politics comes out of rich men's pockets and not out of their own. It was this lamentable delusion which the Tilden Municipal Commission sought to dispel by creating a Board of Finance, to be elected by people paying twelve dollars a month rent.

But even as things now are, we believe, if there could be a fair trial of strength once in two or three years between the intelligent and industrious voters of the city and the ignorant and idle or corrupt, on a distinct and important issue, the victory would remain with the former every time. If the Mayor were an all-powerful officer, and his election took place in the spring, with no other candidates to distract public attention, or confuse the public mind, so that the vice and virtue of the community could be fairly brought into collision over him, we believe the latter would invariably triumph. The very worst offence which the State government commits against the people of this city, and has been committing for nearly forty years, is the maintenance of charters which prevent this trial of strength from ever taking place, which provide so many offices and so many candidates, and so diffuse responsibility as to make the city government a huge mystery, which nobody can understand but the men who make a living out of it, and the effect on which of any election not even the innermost intriguers of local politics can foresee.

A NEW COPYRIGHT SCHEME.

ACCORDING to a Washington despatch, Mr. Dorsheimer, of this city, has introduced an international-copyright bill in the House, designed to afford protection to foreign authors here and to American authors abroad. It provides that whenever any foreign government shall accord to American authors the same rights that their own have, then, by Executive proclamation, the foreign author shall have the benefit of our laws. This is substantially the existing English system, and the passage of the act would at once establish international copyright between the United States and Great Britain.

A good many very enlightened publishers have always been of opinion that such a measure as this should receive the support, not merely of authors, but of all American publishers who are in favor of international copyright at all. What publishers desire is protection for American book manufacturers. This, in a country in which all domestic industries are protected, is natural enough; but the machinery for accomplishing this object is the tariff. Congress has always shown a perfect willingness to yield to their demands with regard to foreign books, and the rate of duty can be fixed so high, if it is not high enough already, as to prevent their competing with home-made books. The foreign author would then, in order to reach the American market, have to rely on an American reprint. In other branches of trade we do not mix up questions of property with the question of protection. We do not, for instance, say to the foreign wool-grower, "Grow your wool here, or else we will take your wool wherever we find it and use it. We need cheap clothes, and therefore we cannot possibly recognize property in foreign wool." In the same way, though we undoubtedly use cheap spades and shovels, we do not say to the foreign maker of these articles, "Come over here and help us develop our iron industry, or else we will take your spades and shovels wherever we find them." But in copyright the publisher who admits that the foreigner's property in books ought to be recognized, and immediately turns upon him and says, "We will not recognize it, however, unless you consent to employ us," takes an unfair advantage of the accident that internationally there is no protection for this kind of property which each country protects in every other way. The recognition of property in books is a simple matter of justice and right, and even the extreme protectionist view does not require us to encourage a system of wholesale pillage for the purpose of opening foreigners' eyes to the advantage they could derive from turning to and helping our American manufacturer make money.

Mr. Dorsheimer's bill, however, has another feature of a novel sort, which is very objectionable. This is a provision that copyright shall only last for twenty-five years, and not be renewable. The subject of the proper duration of copyright was inquired into in England only five years ago by a very competent body of commissioners, and the evidence taken showed conclusively that to do equal justice to all classes of literary compositions a long term is necessary. Some books, such as novels by well-known hands, become immediately valuable, and in process of time their value disappears through a change in the public taste. Others require a considerable period to attain a market. Wordsworth, in 1845, told Mr. Macmillan, the publisher, that he had but just begun to receive any considerable sums of money from the sale of his poems. He was then an old man, and received about $1,500 a year. In 1876, it appears that his copyrights would have been worth $5,000 a year. Unfortunately, however, the copyrights had run out, so that the larger part of the results of his life of labor and self-denial were totally lost to him. Herbert Spencer published for years at a loss. It took him twenty-four years to reach a point at which his writings were not a positive pecuniary injury to him. Professor Huxley testified before the commission that this was the case with many valuable works relating to physical science, and all lawyers know how true it is of law books of any merit. The only way to put authors on an equal footing is to make the duration of copyright a long one. So universally has this principle been recognized by all modern civilized states that the period for the last hundred and fifty years has been steadily growing. In England and in the United States it has been extended from fourteen to forty-two years, in some European countries the time is even longer, and the tendency of all the evidence taken by the late commission in England was to show that it ought to be lengthened, not diminished.

It is difficult to see any reason for accompanying an international-copyright act by a provision shortening the duration of the protection. Such curtailment will not be likely to please either the domestic or the foreign author. No publisher who is in favor of international copyright has ever asked for anything of the kind, so far as we know, and even the pirates could not profit by it in the case of any book until so long a period after it came out that their business would hardly be benefited appreciably by the restriction.

WASHINGTON ETIQUETTE.

THERE is, it seems, and not for the first time either, some trouble in Washington among the ladies of the Cabinet over the place given to Mrs. Carlisle, the Speaker's wife, at the White House reception on New Year's Day. She received standing next to the President, while it is maintained that the wife of the Secretary of State should have occupied this position, and that Mrs. Carlisle should have stood "below" the Cabinet. Another question which has come up again this winter is that of the relative social rank of the Speaker's wife and that of the wives of Supreme Court judges. One has a close connection with the other, as may be easily shown. The lady who receives with the President is the "first lady in the land." In ordinary cases it is his wife; when he is unmarried, or a widower, any one temporarily taking this position is first lady for the time. But the first lady must obviously outrank the wives even of Supreme Court judges. Therefore, if the Speaker's wife is really first lady, the judges' wives and the wives of Cabinet officers ought to call upon her first. But it is said that Mrs. Carlisle has, notwithstanding her place above the Cabinet on New Year's Day, determined to call first on the judges' wives—a resolution which leaves her rank in the sort of limbo in which we believe it has been for many years.

At a distance from Washington all this sounds rather perplexing, for it seems odd that there should be enough etiquette to furnish problems like these in the capital of a country in which, speaking generally, formality in manners is so little practised. We never meet with discussions in the press as to who is the first lady of New York, or of Milwaukee, or of Chicago, and no one in this city would bother himself much as to what was the social rank of a judge's or ex-judge's wife, as such. This is mainly because the divorce between Society and politics or official life here is complete; but the same thing is true of Boston, where the separation has not gone so far. Who is the official "first lady" of these places? The eye of man, or, what is of more importance, of woman, has not seen any such person.

But in Washington, to a considerable extent, etiquette and precedence do really present "live" social questions. The right (derived from official position) to go in to dinner before another, the right to sit in a particular seat, or in a certain proximity to a certain seat, to stand "above" or "below" a fellow-creature, to be visited first, are really valuable rights, which are much thought about, discussed, and even quarrelled over. A theory even

of Washington etiquette has been evolved on the spot, and a very respectable theory too, based, like the Constitution, upon the Federal connection of sovereign States. There is on the one side the Federal Union, which represents the delegated powers of sovereign States. On the other hand are the States themselves, of which the Federal Government is itself the creature. Here we have two great fountains of social rank and honor, which must come before everything else. Consequently we have at the head of this social hierarchy the President and the "first lady," and then the Cabinet, Senators, and Supreme Court judges. Congressmen, who represent neither a State nor the whole country, but merely a "district," clearly come last, and in fact there are not many Congressmen or Congressmen's wives who go much into "society" in Washington. They are not troubled by their low rank in the theoretic scale so much as by their low salaries and unfamiliarity with "society" at home, for, in the "district," society is usually the luxury of the rich.

The theory, however, is not perfect when we come to details, for it has the same inherent defects which the theory of our political institutions has. That is, when the States and the Federal Government come into collision, who is to decide between them? In the old States-rights times, of course, the social expert was inclined to take the view that the Senator's wife was a more important person than the Supreme Court judge's wife; but the political view of which this was a social corollary having been entirely exploded by a bloody war, which convulsed the country for four years, and cost millions of money and lives, the derived social theory has suffered a serious loss of popularity, and the rank of social representatives of States is not what it was before the cataclysm produced in Washington society by the fall of Sumter.

Washington etiquette has its real and at the same time its amusing side. It is made vastly more real than it would otherwise be by the presence of the foreign diplomatic body, who come from countries where these subjects are a matter not merely of study and speculation, but of breeding. They are born in an atmosphere in which etiquette naturally thrives, that is, in which there is a permanent official class the social relations of whose members make up a large part of daily existence. They bring with them to Washington an interest in matters of this sort which is an important contribution to its life. Besides this, Washington is the only place of any size in the United States in which society is in the hands of an official class, and it is a moral certainty that, when this is the case, the women will devote a good part of their time to settling such questions as seems to have arisen as to the Speaker's wife, but which are, we believe, very often in this country not permanently soluble. For most European countries have one great advantage over us in this matter—that the positions about which any controversy may arise are permanent. A king or queen, for instance, is always a king or queen; an archbishop is always an archbishop. But a "first lady in the land" who holds the position temporarily, or by a sort of *ad interim* appointment, is a social solecism. As she must hold this or any other rank in the social hierarchy in Washington by virtue of her position in the family of some office-holder, the rank has to come to an end when his official life terminates. She would then become ex-first lady; but the women have never shown any inclination to tolerate any such rank, in the way that men do among themselves. There would, in fact, be a certain absurdity in saying of any one that she was the first lady of the land last year, or has a chance of becoming first lady if her husband's still-hunt for the Presidency succeeds. The termination of official life at Washington remits the whole family to the social position they occupied before, and the contrast between the two is sometimes very great. These facts have the effect of introducing a spirit of Christian charity into Washington society, and lead those who carry it on and understand it best not to bear too hard upon points at issue, however grave in themselves.

EDWARD LASKER.

THOSE who made Dr. Lasker's acquaintance after his arrival in the United States last summer must have been struck with the singular contrast between his appearance and his reputation. They saw a man of diminutive stature, of feeble, almost inaudible voice, of diffident, shrinking manner; and they may have found it difficult to believe that this was the bold parliamentary leader who had stood in the front of important political movements, the orator whose trenchant and lucid eloquence had won the enthusiastic applause of a great people and defied the most powerful minister of our time, and the profound jurist and large-minded statesman who had shaped the laws of a great empire. But what was seen here of Lasker was merely the wreck of his former self. The overwork and the anxieties of his public life had ruined his physical and mental constitution, and he had come here only to seek rest and health. There seemed, indeed, to be signs of recovery, and now and then the wealth of his information and the acuteness of his mind would show forth in quiet conversation, or in an occasional striking remark in a public address. But while he had a lingering hope of being able to resume his duties in a short time, the thought that his career might soon be ended not unfrequently came to him as well as to his friends.

In Lasker the German people have lost one of their truest and purest as well as most useful servants. His public spirit was first stirred by the revolutionary upheavals in 1848, when he was but a youth of nineteen. But for thirteen years afterward he devoted himself to a thorough preparation for legal practice, upon which, however, he never entered. He first attracted attention between 1861 and 1864, through some essays on constitutional law and public administration, and in 1865 he was elected to a seat in the Prussian Landtag. A year later came the war with Austria and the North German Confederation. Bismarck, who had until then been looked upon as the very embodiment of absolutism, suddenly became the embodiment of the national idea and the idol of the people. To complete the work of German unity, he needed popular support, and to that end he leaned upon the Liberals. The "National-Liberal" party was formed, and Lasker became at once one of its foremost leaders. To the great work of national organization which then began, he brought the warmest zeal, an indefatigable industry, and all the resources of his vast legal knowledge and sagacity. Nobody equalled him in the discussion of constitutional and kindred questions. Every branch of the legislation of that period bears the stamp of his mind. The *entente cordiale* between him and Bismarck became proverbial. But it was not destined to last.

After the French war of 1870–'71, and the establishment of the German Empire, Bismarck regarded his alliance with the liberal sentiment of the country as no longer a necessity. His aim was now to secure to the monarchy the greatest possible power within, and in the pursuit of this object the autocratic tendencies of his nature came sharply into play. Men like Lasker, on the other hand, while always ready to support him in every measure necessary to strengthen national unity, demanded a government constitutional in spirit as well as in form. He sustained Bismarck in the "Kulturkampf," in his foreign policy, and even in his measures against the Socialists. But he insisted upon constitutional government, and vigorously opposed the Chancellor's economic schemes, especially his sudden turn in favor of protection. And when the National-Liberals went further in the way of accommodation and compromise with Bismarck's new plans than he thought compatible with his principles, he "seceded" from his party and joined the Parliamentary group standing between the National-Liberals and the Progressists. No sooner was the *entente cordiale* dissolved than Bismarck pursued him with that ruthless bitterness which he feels toward those who followed him once and will follow him no longer. But all the Chancellor's invectives and sarcasms could not suppress him. Lasker achieved, perhaps, his greatest popularity when he, with singular power and fearlessness, attacked, in the persons of high officers of the Government and members of the nobility, that spirit of corruption and swindling speculation which, after the French war, swept over Germany.

However, the contest was unequal. Bismarck, entrenched in power and at all times able to point to the immense services he had rendered to his country, proved in a certain sense an invulnerable antagonist, while the Opposition was disunited and irresolute. Lasker, who had a strong sentimental touch in his character, suffered in his heart from a warfare which he would have been too happy to avoid. And then came over him, as well as over many of the old Liberals, that feeling of lassitude and despondency to which those engaged in an apparently hopeless contest not unfrequently succumb. He saw that as long as the old Emperor and Bismarck lived, Germany would remain in a state of torpid expectancy, and that no effort could materially improve the situation until a change of persons in the highest places should occur in the

natural course of things. That change he did not live to see.

Lasker will be remembered in Germany not only as a brilliant orator and a wise legislator, but as a man of unspotted purity of life, of the warmest patriotism, and of that unquestionable disinterestedness of motive which makes a public character especially dear to the popular heart. He was a Jew, and his death is not unlikely to excite in Germany a fresh feeling of disgust and shame at those anti-Semitic scandals which caused the keenest sorrow to this eminent citizen during the last years of his life.

THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 20.

READERS of the *Nation* who are interested in English affairs must have noticed the agitation which has sprung up (with apparent suddenness) about the dwellings of the poor. Will you allow me to make one or two observations upon a phase of English feeling or opinion which is remarkable in itself, and is still more noteworthy as a sign or part of a general social movement?

First. The agitation about housing the poor arises not from suffering, but from sympathy with suffering. The movement has derived support from the most different sides. Statesmanship is represented by Mr. Bright, by Lord Salisbury, and (odd though the juxtaposition sounds) by Mr. Chamberlain. English philanthropy speaks appropriately through the Earl of Shaftesbury and Miss Octavia Hill. The experience, the humanity, and, I must add, the rhetorical inaccuracy of the clergy, find utterance in the appeals of the Rev. Brooke Lambert, the Rev. A. Mearns, and the Rev. Stopford Brooke, while the imaginative sympathy of literary men expresses itself in Mr. Sims's pictures of "Horrible London," and in the articles of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, which breathe the noble humanity and the enthusiastic inexperience of youthful democrats One may indeed fairly say that the sufferings of the poor have enlisted the sympathy of every class but one. One class alone has given no sign: the poor, whose "Bitter Cry" is conventionally supposed to have aroused the rich from a state of sleepy inattention, have scarcely uttered a word. Costermongers or paupers cannot, it may be suggested, write to the *Times* or the *Nineteenth Century*. This is partially true (though I am not quite certain that Mr. Knowles would not pay a handsome price for an ill-spelled letter from a genuine costermonger); but it is not the whole truth. The poor in England, as in every free country, find methods of making known their misery or discontent. When Mr. Lowe attempted to tax lucifer matches, he found that a class whose existence was unknown to most M. P's. could proclaim with more than sufficient emphasis their (probably ill-founded) objection to a new impost. If the mass of London poor had experienced any new or (what is practically the same thing) any acute grievance, they would have made their bitter cry audible from their own mouths. That excellent philanthropist, Mr. Brooke Lambert, would perhaps do well to note that "Esau's Cry" was raised by Esau and not by a sympathetic bystander. The silence of the poor, contrasted with the vehement complaints of their friends, is a fact of unspeakable importance.

Nothing, let me assure your readers, is further from my intention than to say or to hint that London does not abound in dwellings—if dwellings they can be called—utterly unfit for the habitation of civilized human beings. It is unfortunately but too easy to believe Professor Huxley's assertion, that in England many men and women lead lives more wretched than the lives of savages. On the existence of such wretchedness, the fact to which I have called attention, namely, the silence of the poor themselves, throws no doubt. But the fact has, nevertheless, a twofold significance. It attests in the first place the immense influence in modern society of sympathetic emotion. Christianity and civilization have, after the lapse of long years, produced an effect on human character of which politicians and economists have not taken sufficient account. All the influences which we sum up under the name of peaceful progress have, in countries such as England, produced a state of sentiment under which large bodies of men feel so keenly the obvious and the palpable pains of others, as to be at once impelled to make every effort, reasonable, or unreasonable, to get such pains alleviated or removed. Of the thousands who have read Mr. Sims's pictures of "Horrible London," we may feel sure that the vast majority felt at once that the mere knowledge of such horrors was so painful that they "ought" to be removed. The existence, however, of this general indignation and suffering makes it necessary to modify the received theory of revolutionary changes—namely, that they arise from the passion and effort of classes who can no longer bear the burden of grievances which are becoming intolerable. This theory, which may have squared with the facts of early civilization, applies, as we now see, very imperfectly to modern society. Social convulsions may arise quite as often from indignation at suffering as from suffering itself. Slavery was abolished, not by men who feared to be sold or flogged, but by men who could not bear to think that other persons should be exposed to sale and torture; and slavery might have existed to this day in Jamaica and in South Carolina had its abolition depended upon the energy or the indignation of the slaves. In the England of the nineteenth century innovation is quite as likely to arise from the sympathy of the rich as from the grievances or from the political power of the poor. Revolution may come from above just as well as from below.

That the "Bitter Cry," again, of which we have heard so much, does not come from the poor themselves, does raise the important practical question whether it is the sufferings of the poor, or the knowledge of these sufferings by the rich, which is new. The topic is one on which any impartial man would be slow to pronounce a confident opinion. When, however, assertions are made which imply that the accumulation of wealth has in England been unaccompanied by its due diffusion, there is nothing unreasonable in asking for distinct proof that allegations, on the face of them improbable, are actually true. Some of the best judges seem greatly to doubt whether the idea that the position of the poor is deteriorating is more than a delusion. Mr. Bright is assuredly not indifferent to the physical condition of the laboring classes, yet the day's papers contain the expression by him of the opinion, which he has often enough before avowed, that "the physical condition, the health, the intelligence, the comfort of the homes, and the general contentment throughout the whole of the country, vastly surpass that which prevailed forty or fifty years ago." He almost in effect repeats the dictum attributed to Macaulay: "For fifty years I have heard of nothing but decay and I have seen nothing but progress"; and Mr. Bright is, be it noted, the statesman who, not a year ago, forced the condition of dwellings for the poor on the notice of the nation. He may perhaps, however, be termed an optimist. Let us take, then, the judgment of one whose views of philanthropy are not derived from the school of Mr. Bright. Lord Shaftesbury makes the present crisis an opportunity for referring to the address by Mr. Giffen on the "Progress of the Working Classes." He "ventures to express a hearty concurrence with the statements of that admirable paper," and adds the pregnant remark: "The enormous capital now held by the coöperative associations (a fact which Mr. Giffen appears to have omitted), is a most striking and satisfactory proof of what can be achieved by the energies of active, intelligent, self-relying, and thrifty men"

The thoughts suggested by Mr. Bright and Lord Shaftesbury must weigh heavily with every candid critic of the movement which I am criticising, but they will hardly at the present moment exert much influence over English opinion. The immediate excitement of the public is grounded on emotion. A gust of feeling has passed over the face of English society. The surface, at least, is moved; no one can tell for certain how far the depths of English feeling are touched. The emotional nature of the agitation for housing the poor is apparent in more ways than one. The "Bitter Cry," "Horrible London," "Esau's Cry," and the like, are themselves cries, not arguments. They are intended to be the war cries of a crusade against misery. They betray the fact that the new crusaders, like the old, hardly know the way to their journey's end, or understand the difficulties and perils which they are destined to meet on their march. A curious proof of this is that those who appeal to the public for legislative or other interference on behalf of the poor, constantly confuse under one term—"the poor"—two totally different classes, the artisans, namely, of our great towns, and persons who, from their own fault or otherwise, have sunk to a condition little if at all better than that of paupers. To lump together workmen and outcasts under the misguiding name, "the poor," can lead to nothing but confusion of thought and consequent mistakes of action. Yet it is, I think, palpable to any one who even glances through the letters and articles which have excited the feelings of the public, that the force of many appeals to sentiment lies in arguments which imply that pictures of the outcast poor, or (to use Mr. Bright's term) "the residuum," have some application to the whole body of the artisans or laborers who crowd our cities. There are other signs that sentiment or emotion has for the moment made many of the public incapable of seeing plain facts as they are. Mr. Brooke Lambert's "Esau's Cry" is in the main a very sensible and temperate article, of which the merits are likely to be concealed under an inappropriate and not very sensible title. But even a man so full of good sense as Mr. Lambert hazards the assertion that, "in 1866-68, the Fenian outbreak seemed not unlikely to have its counterpart in an English uprising." We are here upon the ground not of speculation but of history, and one may confidently say that the threatened English uprising of 1868 was unknown to almost every Englishman who lived through the not very exciting crisis of the Conservative Reform Bill. The breaking down of the Park railings can hardly be regarded as a serious menace of civil war by any one who looks back upon past events with the calmness of an historical critic. Mr. Brooke Lambert's view is, we suspect, distorted by the feeling of the moment. That a man who is himself writing with a view to correct exaggeration should himself be so biassed by the feeling of the day, is a striking proof how great is the strength of that feeling.

Secondly. The agitation about housing the poor is merely a part and sign of a general social

movement. The immediate burst of feeling which has forced the condition of the outcast poor upon the attention of the public is sudden, and may be transitory or superficial. But this momentary indignation at the miseries of the lowest class of the population is, after all, merely the latest expression of two sentiments or convictions, which (whether well founded or not) have gradually impressed themselves upon large bodies of Englishmen. The first of these is, that the mass of the people ought to share far more fully than they do, not only in the material benefits, but also in the enjoyments, of civilization. The second is, that the power of the state affords a proper instrument whereby to insure to the mass of the people their fair share in the comforts and pleasures of life. In other words, what may be termed the fundamental ideas of socialism have touched the conscience of many among well-to-do Englishmen. How deeply these notions have penetrated no one can with confidence affirm. My present object is simply to point out the hold obtained in modern England by notions which, thirty years ago, would have been denounced as socialistic, and which, because they savored of socialism, would have been scouted by every educated man of common sense. The plain truth is, that any one who can look back to 1848, and cares to trace the course of opinion, will, if he looks facts in the face, recognize that since that year of revolutions a change has taken place in the average tone of English opinion, which may in the course of a few years more amount to something like an intellectual and moral revolution. The idea prevalent at that date among all Liberals, and, though less markedly, among ordinary Conservatives, was the notion—a notion, I ought fairly to add, in which there appears to me to be far more truth than is now generally acknowledged—that individual and national prosperity could be secured only by individual freedom, and that, as a necessary consequence, the course of true statesmanship was to minimize in every legitimate manner the interference of the state.

How strong was this sentiment may be seen in all the literature of 1848–'54. Maurice, Kingsley, and their followers incurred, thirty or thirty-five years ago, far more discredit with many classes by their Christian socialism than by what would now be termed their very orthodox heterodoxy. The Exhibition of 1851 was the public celebration, so to speak, of the triumph of free trade, and of all the ideas of progress of which free trade was, as it were, the outward and visible sign. When in 1853–54 the Crimean war overtaxed the energy of a military and administrative system which was apparently somewhat out of date, the general cry was that the errors of the Government officers ought to be corrected by lessons from the admirable energy and resource of private firms. The "Circumlocution Office," an expression which will long survive the memory of the book in which it occurs, is a permanent memorial of a past and almost forgotten state of opinion, under which men seriously believed that Government officials mainly employed their energies in checking the ardor and baffling the ingenuity of ingenious inventors. If historians want more solemn but certainly not more convincing evidence as to the state of feeling or opinion some thirty years back than can be given by Charles Dickens, they should turn to Buckle's first volume. The book was published in 1859, but the author of the 'History of Civilization' was emphatically the spokesman of 1851. The one moral of his work is, that the only way to promote progress is to trust in the energies of individuals and to distrust the interference of the state.

A cursory study of the statute-book is sufficient to show that the current of opinion has for the last thirty years and more set exactly in the opposite direction to that in which Buckle and his generation held that it ought to flow. In all matters, great or small, the activity and the interference of the state have increased. The state has, under the Factory Acts and other enactments of the like nature, interfered with the labor of the people. The state has taken upon itself the responsibility for popular education. The state controls in many respects the carrying business of the country as conducted by railways. The state has undertaken the whole business of the telegraph companies. The state has in Ireland interfered to regulate the contract between landlord and tenant. Nor, in reckoning up the amount of intervention exercised by the state, must we confine our attention to powers exercised by the central government. It is a delusion to imagine that to extend the powers of local government is to diminish the powers of the state. The state interferes none the less truly when it interferes through local bodies, say a school board, than when it directly intervenes by means of a Government inspector. Take this fact into consideration, and you perceive at once that in modern England the sphere of state interference has, during the last thirty years, been widened to an extent which would have amazed and probably horrified the theorists or statesmen of 1848 or 1850. No one, further, can doubt that this continuous extension of the powers of the state is, in a country like England, the result of the set of public opinion. When we now find suggestions put forward that the state should undertake to house the people, we must recognize the fact that this demand, whether reasonable or unreasonable, wise or unwise, represents, even if it exaggerates, feelings or convictions which underlie what I have termed a social movement. In my future letters I shall, with your permission, say something as to the causes of this movement, and something also by way of criticism upon its tendencies. A. V. DICEY.

THE CROWN PRINCE IN ROME.

THE GERMAN VIEW.

BERLIN, December 18, 1883.

FOR the last two weeks the public interest of Germany, if not of Europe, has centred in the visit of the Crown Prince to King Alphonso of Spain, and in his further visit to Rome. If there ever was a high political demonstration, it was this dreary winter voyage, with storms in the Mediterranean and snowfalls in Spain. The Prince is a very popular man, and eager for popularity; he likes to show himself in public and to be admired. It is the more easy for him to win golden opinions as he is a handsome man, of prepossessing manners, and a representative of the finest German type. To use a slang expression, he looks and acts as if he had been expressly prepared for the Spanish market. Apart from these personalities, an unmistakable hint was given to France, the effect of which was increased by the enthusiastic reception of the German Crown Prince by the Spanish people. Not a single dissonance disturbed his triumphal tour from Valencia to Madrid and Barcelona. There was good feeling all around, and even the Spanish republicans abstained from any demonstration calculated to jeopard the tact and good breeding of the nation as well as the feelings of its guest. From a political point of view the royal visit has had the desired effect. Not that an alliance with Spain has been entered into (which under any circumstances would be of no great material value), but the political and intellectual vassalage of Spain in respect to France has been broken, and Germany has, for the next war, at least, won a friend south of France.

The extension of the Crown Prince's trip to Rome took everybody by surprise. Not a word of it had leaked out when the telegraph first brought the news from Madrid. (Let me state, by the way, that in regard to secrecy no civil service is better organized than that of our Foreign Department. Woe to the officer who is not discreet, or who abuses the trust confided to him. His doom is sealed at once.) The plan of this Roman trip originated with and was carried out by Bismarck. Now imagine his wrath when it prematurely transpired by the blunder of one of the attachés of the Crown Prince's surroundings. As the official reporter of the movements of his master, he telegraphed from Madrid to Berlin, that the Crown Prince, before his return home, had been advised to pay a visit to the Pope in Rome. The official telegraphic bureau here published the news, which, considering the source from which it came, was of course regarded as correct, and made an immense impression all over Europe. Fully to appreciate its bearing, I must add, that on that same day the decree pardoning Bishop Blum of Limburg was published, and that it was even granted without any counter concessions from Rome. This giving-in astonished every one, and looked very much like an unconditional surrender to the insolent demands of the Roman see; and now the Crown Prince seemed to be chosen to conclude an ignominious peace. Thereupon all the official and officious hounds were let loose by Bismarck. Statements and counter statements, telegraphic orders and counter orders, created confusion and even bewilderment in political and non-political circles. There was a keen method in fabricating rumors, mixing truth with fiction, and leading public opinion astray.

I do not pretend to be initiated into Bismarck's plans, but his tactics were wonderfully successful. The spreading of all sorts of rumors and the obscuring of the real state of affairs made people still more suspicious and distrustful. I, however, have not doubted that from the beginning a visit of the Crown Prince had been planned to the King of Italy, and that it was to precede that to the Pope; but I cannot say what the Chancellor's designs were as to Rome, as I do not know his instructions. The painful impression of the first telegraphic despatches has already modified a part of the first programme, laying the greater stress on the Crown Prince's visit to the King of Italy at the Quirinal. Nevertheless, people here are astonished that Bismarck has dared to implicate the heir to the throne in negotiations which are of a rather doubtful character, and that he identifies the future ruler of Germany with his designs, thus rendering himself indispensable to him. The telegraph will inform you of the results of the Crown Prince's trip to Rome before this letter arrives. In the present complication of affairs, the negotiations with the Pope, if they should be resorted to, will have no immediate result. Thus everything will pass off smoothly and pleasantly. It would, indeed, be a strange spectacle to make the heir of a proud empire the harbinger of, or rather the humble petitioner for, peace before an overbearing Pope, who, if the European Powers better appreciated their vital interests, ought to be treated as a tenant at sufferance instead of a sovereign.

Our home policy is as disagreeable and unpleasant as it can be. I need not here again repeat that our leading men are steering in a reactionary course. What every lover of his country complains of is the tone in which important state questions are treated in the Landtag, and the frivolity and ill-temper which the Secretary of the Interior especially has intro-

duced into the debates. Mr. von Puttkamer is a gentleman of very indifferent ability, an awkward, narrow-minded, and insolent debater, and rather a reckless partisan than a statesman. Thus he injures the cause which he is appointed to defend, and ruins all measures which require statesmanlike arguments. The bitter tone of his personal attacks, the venomous slander of his adversaries, and the impotent rage of his feelings only tend to strengthen the Liberal cause. Even his Conservative supporters in and out of the Prussian Landtag do not dare to defend him, and often disavow him in their speeches and papers.

The other day a Mr. Stern, a Liberal deputy, made a motion to abolish open voting in the elections to the Landtag, and to substitute the secret ballot, which is the law of election for the Reichstag, and has thus far never given any trouble. The demand was as just as it could be; at all events it could not be treated as an experiment or a quite new principle, having already been engrafted on the statute-book more than seventeen years ago. The motive of Mr. Stern's motion was the fact that the Government of late had interfered with almost all the elections for the Landtag; that it had kept strict control of the vote of each of its officers, and that it had punished them in case of opposition to the Government's candidate. The large manufacturers treated their workingmen in the same style; in short, the so-called free voting thus became a sham and a humbug worthy of the palmiest days of Louis Napoleon. Mr. von Puttkamer, of course, opposed the motion; but what are his reasons? "The right of voting," he says, "is a trust granted to the elector in the public interest; that right, therefore, can only find its expression in an open vote. He who enjoys the right of casting his vote should have the courage to exercise it publicly." In the same strain the minister intimated what he meant by courage. The Government, he continued, could not promote or distinguish an officer of whom it became known that he had rendered himself guilty of opposition or even of open hostility to the Government. Now, the officer's opposition to a governmental candidate can only become notorious by his public vote. In order to catch him, Puttkamer appeals to his sense of honor to make him vote publicly. By law even a minister cannot remove an officer, but whatever he can do to ruin him is and will be done, according to Puttkamer's confession. First, such a poor man for all time to come is left in the place which he occupied at the time of his offence. Next, he receives no Christmas gratuity, no increase of salary, no promotion, and, finally, to corrupt him or to break his stiff neck, he is very often sent to a smaller out-of-the-way town, where there are no schools, or to a place where living is dearer. It is the most infamous proceeding ever practised by an absolute Government, an outrageous corruption which extends its fangs to all parts of the country, and reaches several hundred thousands of clerks, railroad and telegraph employees, letter-carriers and teachers, this last class being most hated by the ministers. In keeping with this view, a Conservative leader openly declared in the Landtag that the employee who voted against the candidate of his employer, deceived the latter "cold-bloodedly," and that the secret ballot was the stepping-stone to deception and fraud. On the final vote on the measure, the minister obtained a small majority, as the National Liberals, with a blindness which comes near stupidity, and for reasons known only to themselves, joined the reactionary time-servers.

Mr. von Puttkamer, however, did not stop with the above sample of rigmarole. He concluded his speech with the threat that Prussia would also take measures to have the secret ballot abolished for the elections to the Reichstag. This was a really amusing manœuvre, by which he tried to please his master. The secret and universal suffrage for the Reichstag was introduced by Prince Bismarck himself for the purpose of winning over the masses, to the detriment of the middle classes (the "bourgeoisie"), which up to 1866 had resisted his policy. Now that the peasants and workingmen by their votes have forfeited the confidence of the Chancellor, he proposes to invalidate their political power. In 1872 he contemptuously said of the indirect, three-class suffrage, that no absurder and meaner system had ever been concocted by the most stupid brains in any country; but now he finds it much better than universal suffrage, and tries to put down the latter by the former. On this question, however, the Reichstag, with the exception of the Conservatives, will be a unit in defending its rights, nor will it commit harikari when called upon to sacrifice its own dignity and honor. What the servile Bundesrath (Federal Council) will do, is perfectly irrelevant. Prince Bismarck may rest assured of the wisdom of Goethe's words: "Die ich rief die Geister, werd ich nun nicht los." His great mistake is that he blames the defeat of his pet measures upon the mode of election. The fault lies somewhere else; it lies in the system of his home policy. Even the most intricate contrivance of a new electioneering machine will not help him if his policy be not liberal, and in favor, not of a class, but of the whole people. Mr. von Puttkamer is only his poor tool; used to-day, it will to morrow be mercilessly thrown away. + + +

THE ITALIAN (REPUBLICAN) VIEW.

ROME, December 19.

Of course the great event of the day, and indeed the only event of the year, is the arrival of the Crown Prince of Germany in Rome, where the reception festivals, of which I spare you a description (as all the official receptions given in the same city resemble one another like two teardrops), are as magnificent as royal lavishness and municipal capacity for spending public money can make them.

This is not the first visit of "Fritz" to the Eternal City, as it used to be called in the old poetic days; for, as Leo XIII. reminded him, he came to Rome just thirty years ago, on the very day when he, Monsignor Pecci, was created Cardinal by Pio Nono. Again he visited Rome, the capital of united Italy, for the funeral of King Victor Emmanuel, in 1878, and was then, without exception, the most popular of all the guests, crowned, crownless, or awaiting crowns; and no pains were spared on the part of Italians, from every province and of all parties save one, to welcome with grateful homage the representative of that great Power which, in crushing the Second Empire at Sedan, had restored Rome to Italy, even as at Sadowa it had freed Venice from the chains of Austria. To Italian gratitude for these inestimable boons was added genuine admiration for the haughty Chancellor who defied the spiritual, even as he had destroyed the temporal, power of the Papacy. To the Crown Prince in Rome, as to his imperial father in Milan, was yielded the most unanimous and genuine homage that a southern race can lavish in an hour of true enthusiasm.

But now this popular element is absent from to-day's reception. If you read the non-official telegrams from Genoa, you will learn how imposing was the official ceremony, how picturesque the meeting of the squadrons, how numerous the concourse of princes, courtiers, prefects, state, provincial, and municipal authorities; but of a welcome by the proud Ligurians, or of the workingmen of Genoa, foremost in all patriotic work or demonstrations, never a word. Even so in Rome. When last the Crown Prince arrived at the station, you could have walked literally on the people's heads, and the parting salutations were even more significant. Now, nothing that is not strictly official marks the Prince's coming and going; and since his visit to the Vatican there is visible hostility on the faces, in the gestures of many, while the Liberal press is unanimous and out-spoken in its censure. "Yesterday he came as a friend," say the people, "a friend of ours and of liberty; now, instead, he comes as the friend of our enemies, of the Pope and of Austria, and who is not for us is against us." The Italo-Austro-Hungarian-Germanic alliance has long been recognized by the thinking and reading portion of the community as an accomplished fact, but none the less a fact abhorrent to the Italians in general, as far as Austria is concerned, while, for the great uneducated public it was deemed a thing too monstrous to be possible, so that always it has sufficed for a newspaper or for a popular orator to speak of King Humbert as the "Austrian Colonel," to arouse a feeling of aversion against the otherwise not unpopular young King. He is, in fact, Colonel of the (most hated of Austrian names) Haynau Regiment.

But this is not the worst. That the Crown Prince is a guest at the Quirinal (in the great palace or the small counts for nothing), and as such is received with all honors at the Vatican, signifies that the challenge between Church and state has been withdrawn, and that the principals have shaken hands on the ground without a combat. That this would be the case was a foregone conclusion in the minds of many, when Pio Nono and Victor Emmanuel, dying within a month of each other, were succeeded by two such very moderate men as King Humbert and Leo XIII. But for the violent opposition, scarcely stopping short of actual violence, of the Jesuits and their partisans, Leo XIII. would have blessed the Roman populace from the outer balcony on his accession—in fact, all the scaffoldings and decorations were prepared, and only removed by the hostile faction at the last moment. It was thought, indeed, that they were going to make a fresh stand for the recuperation of the temporal power; but these true children of darkness were wiser in their generation than the children of light, knew better the character, education, and tendencies of the new royal family, and of the ministers that were likely to direct the helm of state. Nothing short of a miracle could, they were well aware, unite again the crown of the Cæsars with the tiara of the Pope; but sufficient patience and clever manœuvring might, in a not far-off period, restore to the Roman Catholic clergy the schools and the government of the municipalities, which is tantamount to handing over to the Church of Rome the education of the young generations and the finances of the state. Hence their cry of no surrender, a tame repetition of old Pio's *non possumus*. The Pope must remain a prisoner in the Vatican, all good Catholics must muster in full strength at the provincial and municipal elections—these being purely administrative and implying no allegiance to the usurping King; but the old programme, "neither electors nor elected" (to the Italian National Parliament), must remain intact for the present at least. On their side, they had and have a silent, almost invisible, but all-powerful ally in Queen Margaret, a true scion of the old brave, bigoted House of Savoy, who would rejoice, were it possible, to send freethinkers and republicans to the stake, as in the old Waldensian

days, and who, this being impossible, contents herself by bringing up the future King of Italy in the way the Jesuits would have him go, leaving his kingly father and tutors free in all else regarding his education.

It is difficult to exaggerate the amount of ground won back by the clergy since the death of Pio Nono, and since—alas! we must say—the advent of the Left to power. Six years ago a religious procession in the public streets was a thing unheard of, save perhaps in the most besotted quarters of Naples; now, this very year, the *Corpus Domini* processions have been renewed with all their old pomp. In many of the public schools, whence religious instruction had been banished, it has been restored—this being a simple consequence of the triumph of the Catholic party at the electoral urns of the provinces and the communes, as the municipal and the provincial councils control the expenses of the primary schools. All that I assert is proved by the statistics of the late elections, and is indeed a public and acknowledged fact. At the present moment, the visit of the Crown Prince of Germany to-day to the Quirinal, to-morrow to the Vatican, is claimed by each side as a victory. The partisans of the Vatican say that the future Emperor of Germany came expressly to Rome to treat personally with the Pope and secure peace for the future between Church and state in Germany; and that as he is not actually a guest at the Quirinal, but only at an adjoining palace, as he is a Protestant and not a Catholic sovereign, the Pope has gained all and given nothing. The Prince could, as his imperial father did before him, have visited the King of Italy in any other city of his kingdom, but the Pope could only be seen in Rome, or, more precisely, in the Vatican; consequently, his journey to Rome is taken expressly to do honor to and execute his business with the Pope. The state party says, on the contrary: The Emperor of Germany has found it in his interest, as we find it in ours, to enter into an alliance, and his son comes to our capital to make the fact patent to the world. In no former time would a royal guest of ours have been received at the Vatican. That the future Emperor of Germany *is* so received to-day, proves that the necessity of recognizing the kingdom of Italy is finally acknowledged.

Both parties are, to a certain extent, in the right, and the popular party answers: Divide the honors and the spoils between you; what we see clearly is that you are all allied together. And they chant the old war hymn of Mameli:

> "Un sol campo hanno i popoli,
> Ed un sol campo i re."

And though the outward signs are not as visible or as audible as in the olden days, the real Liberal, radical party is strengthening and increasing daily, organizing its forces, counting its numbers, preparing and hoarding its material. Divided as are the Liberals into unitarian republicans, federalistic republicans, and socialists, they have sufficiently comprehended where lie the chances of victory to merge their private aspirations so as to recruit a disciplined army to fight for the common cause. Death itself, it is true, seems to have become the ally of their adversaries. Of the old revolutionary leaders scarcely one is left on the field: Mazzini, Cattaneo, Garibaldi dead, but not taken before their time; Alberto Mario—in a certain sense the representative of them all—cut down in his prime. Of the old guard you may say but Fabrizi and Bertani are left, past seventy both, both honest and independent members of Parliament. The last great meeting at Bologna, however, when the Fascio of the Democracy was formed, shows at one and the same time the strength of numbers and the discipline of the union. Nor must it be forgotten that they reckon in their ranks men like Saffi (who, by the way, has just completed his introduction to the thirteenth volume of Mazzini's works) and old Campanella, recognized as the continuators of the strictly Unitarian Republican programme.

This explains why, while at Rome King, court, Government authorities, and placemen, are congratulating each other on the now certitude of an Austro-Hungarian-Italo-Germanic alliance, in all the chief cities of Italy, and especially in Leghorn, Sassari, and Bologna, the people are celebrating the anniversary of the execution of Overdank, the last victim hung on an Austrian gibbet at Trieste. The monarchists are counting on the great pilgrimage to the tomb of Victor Emmanuel in January. But no one takes *au sérieux* as a demonstration of loyalty the fact that crowds will make a pleasure excursion to Rome for 10, 16, 20 lire the round trip.

M. W.

CORFU AND ITS SAINTS.

CORFU, November 18, 1883.

WE have held high festival to-day. In memory of a deliverance from the plague in 1630, the relics of St. Spiridion have been carried through the streets and around the Esplanade in solemn procession, with military music and a guard of honor, banners, lanterns, and gigantic candles, priests wearing gorgeous robes of precious old Venetian satin and brocade, and the Prefect and other authorities walking bare-headed. The saint's body, which was plainly visible through the glass casket, is in a fair state of preservation after the fifteen centuries that have elapsed since its first burial. It lacks only one arm, which is in Rome—for as St. Spiridion, who was Archbishop of Tremithus in Cyprus, and flourished at the Council of Nice, lived before the separation of the churches, his memory is as much venerated by Latins as by Orientals. Though in appearance like a mummy, it is not hard and dry, but has somewhat the consistency of India rubber, and this elasticity has enabled it to endure the numerous shocks to which it has been and is still subjected, for as it was carried in erect posture it swayed from side to side against the glass.

The journey of the saint from Constantinople to Corfu was a far ruder one. The piety of the Byzantine Emperors had collected in the capital of Eastern Christendom nearly all the important relics of the Early Church. Some were perhaps fictitious; many, such as they might be, were undoubtedly genuine. What was thought the most valuable booty of the Crusaders when they took Constantinople was the quantity of relics and holy objects which they obtained, which they sent home as gifts without price. From this source came nearly all the relics of the Passion now in Western Europe, and most of those relating to the Saviour or the Virgin. Their authentic history from that date may be traced in the documents published by the Comte de Riant. In some cases the Greeks succeeded in concealing the true relics, and the Latins took only what had been cleverly substituted; in others a forgery was made after the evacuation of the city, for the benefit of the Greeks. When the Turks came, two and a half centuries later, some relics escaped the conqueror, others were destroyed, and others seized for the sake of their jewelled reliquaries. The arm of John the Baptist, for instance, now in the chapel of the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, we know to be the same that was so long venerated at Constantinople in Byzantine times. Discovered many years after in the Sultan's treasury, it was given as a present to the Grand Master of the Knights at Rhodes, was taken thence to Malta, and brought to Russia by the Emperor Paul, who was the last independent Grand Master of the Knights of Malta.

The body of St. Spiridion, it seems, escaped seizure, and, together with that of St. Theodora, (wife of the Emperor Theophilus the Iconoclast), was brought to Corfu by a certain pious George Calocheretti. In order to conceal the relics from the Turks, they were stuffed into provender bags and covered with straw, and thus passed safely to the coast of Epirus as forage for the mule who bore them. The two saints brought the pious George wealth and happiness, and on his death were a precious legacy to his children. The body of St. Theodora was given to the community and now rests in the cathedral. That of St. Spiridion, after the Corfiotes had been worsted in legal proceedings to prevent it from being removed from the island, and the property of the Calocheretti family had been confirmed by a decree of the Venetian Senate, came to a certain Stamatello Bulgaris, of a well-known Corfiote family, as the dowry of his wife. In the Bulgaris family it has since remained, and has for nearly four hundred years furnished them with an unfailing income.

The church where the saint's body reposes belongs to the Bulgaris family, which always names one of its members as the head priest. The offerings, after expenses are paid, are naturally family property; and as the Corfiotes are a pious folk, and St. Spiridion, for his protection against pest and Turks, and for his numerous miracles, is deservedly popular, and the patron saint of the island, the coffers are never empty. "Che benche forestier egli sia, pe'l lungo albergo, e per gli miracoli, si deve stimar cittadino," says old Marmora. The church is full of silver lamps and votive offerings, and the revenues are estimated at about $10,000 a year. The present priest, still a young man, and the last male member of his branch, is said to have taken orders much against his will in order to save the property to the family. A fair portion goes to one member who has married an English clergyman—the gains of superstition thus devoted to nourish Protestant piety! Truly a proprietary saint—if one may so speak—is a very good thing. I have known of several others. The body of St. Anicetus, Pope, is, or was when I lived in Rome, in the rooms until lately used for the archives of the Council of Trent, the property of the Gallese family; and at least a part of the body of St. Philip Neri, the Oratorian, is the valued possession of Prince Massimo, in the room, now a chapel, where the saint raised from the dead the young Paul Massimo in 1651; but I doubt if either of these families draw a revenue therefrom.

St. Spiridion is not, however, the only saint of Corfu. The island boasts of St. Jason and St. Sosipater, the disciples and even the kinsmen of St. Paul (Rom. xvi. 21), who introduced Christianity, and one of whom at least was martyred here. The church in which they are said to have preached is shown a little below the old basilica dedicated to the Virgin, one of the few remains of the ancient town, built on the ruins of a temple of Isis, showing how naturally the Isis worship passed into that of the Virgin. The church of St. Jason, however, is not of so early a date, but is a small Byzantine vaulted building resembling somewhat the Kutchuk Aya Sophia at Constantinople. With its two palm trees and a laurel over the gate of its half-ruined court, it presents a pretty picture, all the more interesting to us as it contains the tomb of the wife of the last Palæologus, and that of the latest Byzantine historian and diplomatist, Phranzes. Thomas Palæologus, the brother of the last Emperor, Constantine XIII., maintained himself for seven years in the Pelo-

ponnesus after the fall of Constantinople, and in 1460 was obliged to seek Venetian protection in Corfu, with his family and Phranzes, his faithful follower. Thomas, leaving his wife in Corfu, went on to Venice and Rome, and, bringing the head of St. Andrew as an acceptable present to the Pope, was recognized as the heir of Byzantium. His wife, Catharine, the daughter of Asan Zaccaria Centurione, a great lord in the Morea (we wonder if a relative of the great Genoese family of Centurione, that claims descent from Cornelius the Centurion), died suddenly just as she was about leaving Corfu. Her end was perhaps happier than if she had known the fate of her children. Helena, the former Queen of Servia, died a nun in Santa Maura; Zoe married a Russian Grand Duke, and her posterity became merged in the Polish family of Jagellon; Andrew made a wretched marriage in Rome and died childless; Manuel, like his uncle, Demetrius, surrendered to the Sultan, who gave him slaves and concubines. Of his two illegitimate sons, John died a Christian and was buried at the Patriarchate in Constantinople. The other, Andrew, became a Mussulman under the name of Mohammed. Within fifty years from the capture of Constantinople the name of Palæologus was extinct.

Phranzes, who had borne many woes, some almost worse than death, no sooner arrived in Corfu than he became a monk, while his wife betook herself to a convent. Here, in his peaceful cell of Tarkhaniotes, on the request of some noble Corfiotes, he wrote his sad and pathetic 'Chronicon,' which Warsberg justly calls the "first history of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire." A year after he had finished it he died, in 1478, at the age of 77; his last request was to be buried by the side of his exiled sovereign. The three tombs had been covered for centuries with whitewash, but the archæological acumen of Baron Warsberg, the Austrian Consul (it was he who had charge of the expedition for refinding the frieze of Gul-Baktche, in Lycia, a year or so ago), added to the researches of Professor Romanos in the archives, found them out. He had the church cleaned, and verified the inscriptions.

But I have wandered far from what I set out with, which was to tell of the picturesque costumes, the lovely faces, and the beautiful figures we saw at the festival of St. Spiridion. The town is almost wholly Venetian and Italian, the country chiefly Greek, but there has been just that mixture of blood necessary for the production of an almost perfect type. Nowhere in Italy, and certainly nowhere in Greece, are such beautiful maidens and youths to be seen. Add to this the soft, sweet landscape, olive trees, and cypresses in proper proportion, pink roses climbing over every wall, the picturesque Venetian citadel, the hills and mountains of Albania, rosy in the sunset over a narrow strip of iridescent sea, and you have an unmatched picture. It is the real "Earthly Paradise," the realm of Alcinous. The costumes of every village differ. All are graceful and pretty, both of men and women. But as Corfu is the meeting place for the whole Adriatic coast, it is, in spite of its Venetian aspect, its civilization, and the band playing on the Esplanade, the most Oriental place this side of Constantinople. Here are old Turks in turban and robe, young Turks in fez and high-buttoned black coats, Softas in Mussulman clerical attire, weak, sad-eyed Montenegrins, fierce-looking, flat-headed, kerchiefed Albanian men, dirty Albanian women covered with embroidery made by that artistic race, Dalmatians and Greeks of all kinds and sorts.

It is a wonder travellers do not come here now, but fortunately it is a little out of the beaten track; and, except English sportsmen, yachting and shooting on the Albanian coast, and a few pleasant people of weak constitutions, the ordinary tourist contents himself with a day or two, in which he scarcely discerns the real beauties of the island. Yet there are two excellent hotels, where one is well lodged, well fed, and well cared for at only twelve francs a day. There are good roads, fine walks and drives, and the opera every evening in the old building of the Venetian archives. Corfu is still as beautiful as when About wrote 'Germaine,' or even when Ulysses saw Nausicaa playing ball with her maids. S.

Correspondence.

THE VOTING POWER OF STOCK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to see in a late issue (No. 965), that you have taken up the subject of "the voting power of stock" in railroad corporations. It is one that has interested me for some time past, as a better remedy than that of the railroad commission now so much in vogue. Indeed, in December, 1882, I introduced a bill in the Legislature of this State (South Carolina) to carry out the views you now urge; but the popular cry then was for a railroad commission, with extreme power like that in Georgia, and I could not obtain a hearing for my plan. Will you allow me to add some considerations to those of your editorial?

Mr. Adams, in his book on the 'Railroad Problem,' observes that—

"The American railroad system may now be said to have passed, wholly or in part, through three distinct phases of growth, the limits of which are merged in each other, though the order of succession is sufficiently clear. First was the period of construction, beginning with the year 1830, and closing with the completion of the Pacific Railroad in 1869. Merged with this period and following upon it was that of active competition, which reached its fullest development in 1876. This naturally was followed by the period of combination, which first assumed a large and definite shape in 1873, and has since that been working itself out into something both definite and practical."

If we recall these periods pointed out by Mr. Adams we shall recollect that in the first—that is, the period of construction—railroads were projected and built without any general system, and mainly with a view to connect some two or three cities. They were built at first almost exclusively by subscriptions in money, material, and labor supplied along the route they followed. They were, in short, local roads run in the interest of the communities through which they passed, and were managed by local directors. But these roads, built as they were without system, came to compete with each other in a manner which soon exhausted their resources. The period of construction was forty years; that of competition was not ten. The period of competition, whether it was in itself connected with the financial crisis of 1873 or was merely contemporaneous with it, ended in universal railroad bankruptcy, and culminated in the receiver's dynasty, when the United States Courts became the managers of the railroad system of the country. Then came the sales under orders of court, at which the stocks and bonds which represented the savings of forty odd years were bought up by capitalists at ten and twenty cents on the dollar, and the public highways became, in the opinion of the few purchasers, private property. This was the inauguration of the present period of combination and consolidation, when the purposes for which the roads were originally built are subordinated to other interests, and their managements taken from local directors and given over to strangers. The crying evil of railroad management is precisely that of the real grievance of the Irish peasant—it is the control of local interests by absentees.

If, then, consolidation is the evil, we should seek our remedy in some measure calculated to counteract it. We should seek some measure to curb the dictation of the fifty-one one-hundredths of stock. Fortunately, this is in the power of all those States which, as did Massachusetts and South Carolina, upon the decision of the Dartmouth College case, make it a part of their fundamental law, that all charters granted by them should be subject to amendment, alteration, or repeal, unless expressly exempted in the charters themselves.

The direction, then, in which I would seek remedies for railroad evils is in the amendment of our railroad charters; and in doing this (1) I would fix the number of directors of each board, and give them the sole power, acting as a board, to fix, change, or alter the rates and tariffs, and would require the rates so fixed or changed to be certified by the signatures of a majority of the board before any change or alteration should go into effect. (2) I would require that a majority, at least, of the directors should be residents of the State granting the charter, as is now required by several of the States—for instance, Massachusetts, Illinois, and Texas. (3) I would revive the provisions of the earlier railroad charters for the protection of minorities, by means of a scale of voting; and (4) I would adopt a mononomial plan of voting, so that each director should be voted for separately, and not upon a general ticket; and that in their election each share should have a vote for but one director.

Let me illustrate how this system would work. Suppose a road had a stock consisting of 18,000 shares, and that this road ran through eighteen towns. Under the usual system, by which each share has a vote on a general ticket, not one of these towns can secure a director or voice in the management of the road, unless it secures 51-100 of the stock, which, of course, will give it the entire control. Before a person or a community can have a word to say about the management of a railroad, he must be prepared to assume the responsibility of its entire control, and go to the cost of a purchase of a majority of the stock. But, under the mononomial plan, any one of the eighteen towns along the road, by securing one-eighteenth part of the stock, can be sure of a director, and a voice in the affairs of the company. The tendency of this system, it will be observed, would be to scatter and disperse the shares. It would add to their value; for, besides the dividends, it would give a substantial value to each share in its potential control in the management of the road. The result of the system would be that the stock would increase in value, and power to control would be returned to the holders of small amounts. In short, it would give the public a voice in the management of our highways. It would, at least, render it more difficult to "bear" the market, and give less occasion to do so, as a mere majority of the stock would not give the control it now does.

In this way I would provide for the management of our railroads in the interests of those who built them, by and through the means of the corporations themselves—from within, instead of from without, as by the system of railroad commissioners with power to fix rates. I would meet consolidation by disintegration. I would substitute "home rule" for the injurious control of absentees.

Edward McCrady, Jr.

Charleston, S. C., January 2, 1884.

EXECUTIVE GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to offer "S. M. C." my sincere thanks. In political discussion, an opponent is almost as valuable as a supporter. The most discouraging thing is (*crede experto*) to go on for years and find nobody paying any attention to anything you say.

I read the article of M. de Laveleye with intense pleasure, as containing that with which I most heartily sympathize—a hopeful view of the prospects of the Republic in France. But I think "S. M. C." hardly represents his position fairly. He is meeting the complaint that the Deputies show "a lack of consistency as regards their resolutions; that they overthrow ministers too frequently, and thus render any stable government an impossibility"; and he argues that parliamentary government encounters the same difficulty in other countries, as Holland, Belgium, Italy, and England, though I think he overstates the case a good deal as to the latter. But this is very far from saying that executive government is not necessary. The history of France for a century is a struggle to obtain executive power strong enough to govern, and yet responsible to the public will. All the signs are that she must work out this problem under the alternative penalty of falling again under military despotism. But the weakest of these parliamentary governments is strong as compared with our system of practically no executive at all. We may well be thankful that we have not to deal with the political and social problems of Europe, but he would be a bold man who should assert that there are no questions in this country which require Government settlement. And I maintain that since the war, Congress has never been able to settle anything at all. There are some things which the people can do—the more the better; but there are others which, if society is to hold together, must be done by the Government.

To give the Cabinet seats in Congress would be to give the Executive, what it has not now, a voice as to the policy and conduct of the Government, and some power of resistance to the lobby. It does not necessarily follow that the Cabinet must resign when it differs from Congress any more than it does now. What the course of development of the measure would be can only be known by experiment, and to attempt to forecast it would require more of your space than I dare ask for. Of one thing I am sure, that the experiment would be heartily welcomed by the country, and would do more than anything else to indicate some way of bringing order out of our present chaos. G. B.

Boston, January 5, 1884.

THE MORMON PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is not the difficulty in solving the Mormon problem in one sense an evidence of the excellence of our Government? Here is a community defying the laws and authority of the United States, engaged in the commission of a crime repulsive to all the civilized world, and yet such are the safeguards thrown about local self-government that the whole nation stands puzzled—uncertain how to punish the criminals or to abate the nuisance.

It is the same trouble that is found in enforcing a prohibition law, or laws against homicide in the South. Under our system of government, it is impossible to compel a community to be more moral than it chooses to be. Usually, the gradual diffusion of knowledge, the desire to have a good reputation with the outside world, and to grow in wealth and population, are all-powerful influences to bring such communities up to the proper moral standard. But in Utah none of these influences are at work. Ignorance is their stronghold. They care nothing about their reputation abroad. They do not desire to grow in Gentile wealth or population. All they want is to be let alone. This is an anomalous state of affairs, and will doubtless demand an unusual remedy.

E. B. H.

Butte, Montana, December 26, 1883.

THE STUDY OF DIALECTIC GREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit one who is not engaged in teaching the classics to seek a little information from those that are, on a matter that may perhaps have some bearing on the discussion lately carried on in your columns. In our colleges and universities, so far as I am acquainted with the courses of study, the languages commonly taught are Latin, Greek, French, and German. Of these four, the much-assailed Greek is, beyond all question, far more difficult than any of the others. This will be granted by nearly every one, I imagine. Now, out of these four languages Greek is precisely the one in which the natural difficulty is increased by the study of *dialects*—at least so far as I know. In some instances boys are expected to *come* to college with some knowledge of Homer, the study of which is then carried on further, with perhaps other dialects added. I wish, therefore, to ask the following questions:

1. Is not the course in French and German in our colleges confined almost exclusively to the modern languages? Having myself taught these languages, I have noticed the catalogues of other colleges, and have never found any exception to the rule. In German, the acquisition of a vocabulary is certainly difficult enough to let us confine our students to modern German. Professor Whitney says, in the preface to the dictionary and notes prepared for his 'German Reader': "To gain a tolerable mastery of the German vocabulary is so very serious a task, that he who undertakes it is fairly entitled to have its beginning made easy to him by special helps." Suppose, now, that after taking our students on till they were beginning to be able to pick their way along in Whitney's 'Reader,' with some little feeling that they were getting a hold on German, we set them to reading the 'Nibelungenlied,' or German of the time of Luther or Fritz Reuter; what would be the effect on them? Do we not feel, and act on the feeling too, that if they know the grammar well, and, as Whitney puts it, have "broken the back" of the modern German vocabulary, that is about as much as we have time for in our limited college courses, and that any dialectic study of German should be reserved for those who may wish to take this up afterward? And yet in Greek our colleges must teach Attic prose as the basis of all, the Tragedians (and certainly their vocabulary contains an immense amount for which prose gives no help), Herodotus (which can very well afford to be included, however), Homer (with his almost unending array of new forms, and new words, and new meanings), with perhaps Theocritus, and possibly a taste of still other dialectic writers.

2. The field of Attic Greek is certainly large enough to furnish abundant and profitable labor for all the time American young men spend at college; and if this time were trebled, the remark would still be true. Would not a young man leave college with as liberal and broad an education in Greek if he were allowed to do in this difficult language what is done in the far easier German, viz.: confine his study to that form of the Greek in which the foundation must ever be laid, reading more of its authors and larger amounts from them? He would be studying excellent Greek, would be associating with thinking minds, and would have more of a feeling that he *knew* Greek and could *read* it without having to keep a dictionary everlastingly chained to his elbow. Then, if he chose to continue his Greek after leaving college, he could take up the dialects to suit himself.

3. Is it not possible that this system of teaching may have something to do with the reaction against *Greek*, which usually has to bear alone the brunt of the attacks upon classical studies? Is not the student's command over Greek weakened by his being obliged to scatter his strength over so much ground? What student of a language does not look forward with pleasure to the time when he can be emancipated from the drudgery of incessant dictionary work? This is the way in which he tests his knowledge. But in Greek, although it is a pretty huge undertaking to master "tolerably" the vocabulary of Attic prose, he finds himself forced to undertake prose, poetry, and dialects, and, if the truth were told, largely because their teachers would be afraid to send out their catalogues without these time-honored names. Hans Andersen, in his inimitable story, "The Emperor's New Clothes," hit off the true secret of an immense deal of humbug: for fear of being thought "dumm," or unfit for their office, men are afraid to have the courage of their convictions, and profess to find an invisible dress extremely beautiful.—Respectfully,

E. M. S.

Notes.

Mr. Edward Armitage's 'Lectures on Painting,' delivered to the students of the Royal Academy, we noticed, a few weeks ago, from the London edition of Trübner & Co. The Messrs. Putnam have now reprinted this work in a very substantial and attractive manner for the American market.

Mr. Gilmour's very entertaining work, 'Among the Mongols,' which we reviewed last week, naming the English publishers, had already been printed in this country by the American Tract Society, which purchased the plates of the original edition.

The 'Life of Cobbett,' by Mr. Robert Waters, to which Cobbett's 'Grammar of the English Language' was appended, is also among the works we have recently mentioned. But we can now add that the Grammar has been issued separately for such as may need it (New York: James W. Pratt). The *form* of Cobbett's work is what gives it its chief value in the teaching of what is commonly a repulsive study. Teachers can profit by this who may be unable to comment independently either on his text or on Mr. Waters's notes.

The American Unitarian Association (Boston) have yielded to a demand for a dollar edition of the complete works of the late Dr. Orville Dewey, uniform with that already put forth in the case of Doctor Channing. The volume, with its index, fills 800 pages 8vo. A very brief sketch of Doctor Dewey's life, prefixed to the sermons, makes no allusion to his contact and conflict with the greatest moral reform of his time.

Miss Sarah E. Titcomb's 'Early New England People'—an informal genealogical repository of facts concerning a large number of related families—has been transferred, for the sale of the remainder of the edition, to Mr. Charles L. Woodward, of this city.

Three more volumes extend to the eleventh the complete works of Emerson (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The ninth embraces the

Poems, not omitting, we are glad to see, some at least of the epigraphic verses scattered through the prose volumes; and it is further adorned with a steel portrait of Emerson in his latter years. To the tenth volume the title 'Lectures and Biographical Sketches' has been given. In this medley are gathered (with appropriate indications of the source) writings from the *Dial*, with sundry addresses and descriptions of Emerson's contemporaries—among these the posthumous publications in the *Atlantic* on Dr. Ripley, his aunt Mary Moody Emerson, etc. Four pages on the Chardon Street Convention of 1840 are a marvel of condensed characterization and "reporting." The last volume, 'Miscellanies,' has also a number of addresses, most of them political and relating to slavery, and some matter hitherto unpublished. The town bi-centenary discourse at Concord in 1835 has a peculiar interest, and, together with the short paper just named, and the longer 'Historic Notes of Life and Letters in New England,' shows possibilities of historical presentation that were, unhappily, destined never to be more fully realized.

The second series of University Studies, edited, at the Johns Hopkins University, by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, will shortly be begun in a number entitled "New Methods of Study in History," by the editor (his paper read before the Social Science Association at Saratoga last September). Some of the more interesting and curious subjects announced to be treated in this series are, "Review of American Economic Literature since 1876" (B. J. Ramage); "History of Taxation in the United States, 1789–1816" (H. C. Adams); "The Irrepressible Conflict" (H. von Holst); "Indian Money as a Factor in New England Civilization" (W. B. Weeden); "Icaria: a chapter in the History of Communism" (Albert Shaw); and "Rudimentary Society among Boys: (1) Land Tenure, (2) Judicial Procedure" (John Johnson).

The enlarged number and novel complexion of the House of Representatives make the Congressional Directory for the Forty-eighth Congress, officially compiled by Mr. Ben: Perley Poore, an exceptional issue.

Speaking of Government publications, it may be news to some of our readers that James Anglim & Co., 1424 F Street, Washington, issue a monthly bulletin of them, free "to all dealers, book-buyers, and librarians." The prices are attached. The same service is performed, we think quarterly, by the *Publishers' Weekly* of this city, with more bibliographical accuracy.

The army worm and the cotton worm in particular are the subjects of the latest Bulletin of the Entomological Division of the Department of Agriculture, but certain tree-borers of the Cossidæ family are honored with colored plates. Professor McMurthrie reports (also with illustrations) his microscopic examination, for fineness and tensile strength, of eight samples of silk grown in this country.

A pamphlet for free distribution, on "Silk Farming in Florida," by Mrs. Ellen Call Long, bears no indication of date or locality. But we recognize the compiler as having written more briefly on this subject for the *Florida Annual*, which we lately noticed.

Science begins its third volume and second year with a change in the typography and color of the cover, and also alters the scheme of its contents by omitting the customary "Weekly Summary of the Progress of Science," the classified work of many hands. This step is excused, in an editorial article discussing the past and future of this periodical, on the ground of a desire to popularize the contents by enhancing their readability. In this view, the omission is fully justified, while specialists will doubtless regret to be deprived of the particular digests in which they were respectively interested. *Nature*, however, has done very well without them, and, speaking wholly from the layman's point of view, we criticised these, at the very beginning, as a bar to the popularity of *Science*.

We are glad to welcome the first numbers of *Woods and Forests*, a new weekly journal published in London by Mr. William Robinson, who is also the editor and publisher of the useful London *Garden*. The purpose of this new venture is to stimulate a love of planting, by furnishing accurate information on subjects of practical interest to the planter for use or ornament. *Woods and Forests* certainly meets a real want, and deserves every encouragement. It is the only journal in the English language, with the exception of the English *Journal of Forestry*, devoted exclusively to a subject which begins to attract wide attention in this country, where the need is felt of instruction and suggestions about methods of planting and the care of woodlands and ornamental trees. There is hardly room, however, yet for a corresponding American journal. *Woods and Forests* might, therefore, well be somewhat extended in its scope, and be made to supply American as well as English readers with information in regard to their trees and plantations. Mr. Robinson, it is safe to say, will be very grateful for any contribution from this country, or for any information about American forests or American trees.

Now is the season for new journalistic ventures. The most important that we have noticed is the quarterly *Rivista Storica Italiana* (Turin, Bocca), which is to treat of the history of the whole peninsula, previously existing historical journals having been local in character.

A very useful manual of Italian literature, coming down to the present decade, is that of K. Marquard Sauer, published under the title: 'Geschichte der italienischen Litteratur' (Leipzig, 1883), and forming a sequel to Engel's 'French Literature' and Nitschmann's 'Polish Literature.' Sauer's compendium is handy for the general reader, and discards all semblance of erudition, for the sake of rendering itself accessible to the popular mind. A large number of selections are interspersed in the form of translations from the authors spoken of, and Sauer himself often figures among the translators. In giving opinions he generally relies upon his own judgment, We can barely refer to his notice of Macchiavelli, who was, he says, the first to establish, in his 'Discorsi' and 'Principe,' a system of "duplex morals," giving numerous reasons for his opinion that civic must necessarily differ from political morality, since in politics one principle only is admissible, namely, that of utility. Macchiavelli insists, however, that the only aim of rulers must be the liberty and independence of their country, whether the means employed by them be moral or immoral. Sauer concurs with Settembrini in holding that the 'Principe,' with its Jesuitic tendency, was written simply to show the method by which, under existing circumstances, a demoralized nation could be raised from nothingness to political concord, unity, and significance; and that Macchiavelli, in composing the book, was impelled by no other than purely patriotic motives.

La Philosophie Positive is to be discontinued. Its editors, MM. Robin and Wyronboff, say that the passion for ideas which existed fifteen years ago, when it was founded by M. Littré, has passed away, and that the public is interested now in nothing that is not practical. Those who write and those who read are no longer concerned with high scientific syntheses, and the review disappears before the general indifference for questions of philosophy. It would seem that the indifference which is felt towards this particular exponent of philosophy is even greater in England than in France; for *Nature*, in announcing its discontinuance, gives M. Wironboff as its editor and *La Revue Positive* as its name.

In the case of the one hundred and twenty-first issue of so old, so authoritative, and so unique a publication as the *Almanach de Gotha* (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), the editors themselves find it nearly as difficult to say anything fresh as does the reviewer. They display their consciousness of this by calling attention at some length to the slight put upon the value of the *Almanach* by those who think it a mere repository of princely genealogies, whereas, they say truly, its politico-statistical information is unsurpassed for accuracy. Relatively, the past year has been free from changes, the ministerial disturbances having been chiefly confined to France and the Iberian peninsula. But the census returns of various countries have been enlarged and are here made use of. In a single point, under the rubric of the United States, the editors are at fault, for Mr. David Davis is set down as Vice-President. The portraits this year are of the Duke and Duchess of Albany, Princess Victoria of Prussia, and Count Otho of Stolberg-Wernigerode.

—Somewhat more than two years ago, the city authorities of Boston permitted the printing of the first volume of Suffolk Deeds (the deeds, that is to say, of the county in which Boston is situated). The second volume of these "worn, mutilated, and [more or less] illegible" records has also, upon petition of the Suffolk bar, been printed, and was distributed just before the close of the past year. Extraordinary pains have been taken to insure textual accuracy by Mr. Wm. B. Trask, and Mr. John T. Hassam has contributed exhaustive indexes of grantors, grantees, "other persons," places, and miscellaneous. A few historically famous names, like those of Simon Bradstreet, Daniel Gookin, John Endicott, John Winthrop, Richard Bellingham, and Samuel Maverick, appear here; but the majority have a family rather than an individual interest. The Indian element of the colony makes itself visible in two or three instances, as in the sale of lands by Quoshamakin (Quochamatins), sachem or sagamore of Massachusetts. The negro puts in a single appearance, but much to his credit. "Bostian Ken" (*videlicet* Sebastian Kajne or Keayne), "commonly called Bus Bus, Negro, of Dorchester, in New England," mortgages his house and land, with four and a half acres of standing wheat, to complete the purchase of one "Angola Negro," to whom Mrs. Anna Keayne had "souljd his tjme for Eighteene pounds." Angola's "tjme of freedome" was to begin on the 10th day of the sixth month, 1656. On the 24th of December Mrs. Keayne ordered the mortgage cancelled. The mother country is constantly referred to in these deeds, coupled not seldom with valuable genealogical particulars. "Whereas," begins an instrument bearing date of June 22, 1654, "My honnored and beloued father, Peeter Noys Late of Penton in the County of Hampsheere in old Englande now of Sutbury in New England in the County of Midelsex Gent," etc. Only the southern counties, the index shows us, from Norwich to Bristol, are thus recorded. Some inns are mentioned, as the Golden Crown, Birchin Lane, London; the Golden Key, Watling Street; the Ram's Head, Southwark. Not a few names of ships are preserved—a later *Mayflower* among them—with specific appella-

tions, of which several have become obsolete, while, on the other hand, it might be a fair inference that down to 1656 the term "snow," for example, had not come into use. For the local topography of Boston and its suburbs this volume is, of course, invaluable, and the city has done well to rescue such interesting and precious memorials of its early state.

—The annual report of President Angell, of the University of Michigan, just published, gives an encouraging account of the advanced studies now carried on at that institution. He reports that the average age of undergraduates at the end of their second year is something over twenty-one years, and that on account of this maturity the Faculty have deemed it safe and wise to leave to them an almost unlimited freedom in the choice of their studies. The experiment is regarded as successful. With few exceptions, studies are carried on "with a definite and high purpose, and with an earnest spirit." The Faculty has found that "what is known in Germany as the 'seminary' method of work is peculiarly adapted to secure the best results in advanced work in certain branches, as, for instance, history, political economy, finance, English literature, and some kinds of classical investigation." A plan has also been introduced by which a student who has creditably completed the first two years of his course may, at the beginning of the third year, be permitted to confine his attention for the remaining two years to three branches, one being taken as his major or principal subject, and two others as his minor or subsidiary subjects. The primary aim of this arrangement is to enable the most gifted students to concentrate their energies, and to advance as far as possible upon certain definite lines. The final examinations under it are conducted substantially as in Germany, each student being subjected by a committee of the Faculty to an oral examination from two to three hours in length. The public are invited to the reading of the theses and the examinations on them, but not to the oral examinations on the major and minor subjects. The President reports that the examinations were "rigorous and searching," and that, though some of the candidates for higher degrees failed on examination, seventeen candidates obtained the Master's degree. The number of applicants for advanced degrees nearly doubled during the past year, though the total attendance at the University in all its departments was a trifle less than in the year preceding.

—Accompanying the President's report is also the report of Professor Adams, the Dean of the School of Political Science. The grouping of studies offered by that school shows that there were given last year twelve courses in history, eight courses in the economic sciences, three courses in social, sanitary, and educational science, and six courses in constitutional, administrative, and international law. Of these courses of instruction the following were given in the year 1882–3 for the first time: the course in the history of American finance, the course on public scientific surveys, the course on the economic development of mineral resources, the course on the historical development of educational systems and methods, the course on the government of cities, the course on the history of modern diplomacy, and the course on the methods of local government in Europe and America. During the year a "Political Science Association" was formed, consisting of professors and students, with the design of drawing together into more intimate and sympathetic intercourse all the members of the school. At these meetings papers resulting from original research were read by the President of the University, and by several of the professors and students of the school. Reports were also given at each meeting of books on political science, either recently published or recently procured for the University Library. The appliances of the school have been very largely increased during the past year by the purchase of nearly 2,000 volumes of books, which are now shelved in the rooms set apart for the use of students of the school. These books, taken in connection with the Rau Library of 4,000 volumes and 6,000 pamphlets on political economy, finance, and administrative methods, besides the works in the general library, are believed to offer excellent opportunities for the most advanced work.

—A few weeks since we recorded the formation of the American Ornithologists' Union. We have now to chronicle the organization of another scientific association, the Society of Naturalists of the Eastern United States, which held its first general meeting at the Columbia School of Mines, in this city, on December 27–28. Both in its scope and in its membership this young society departs widely from the customs of such associations in this country, for in both regards it maintains a strictly professional character. Its membership already includes the large majority of naturalists by profession in the Middle and New England States, among them many of great distinction. The communications made at the meeting all dealt with practical questions, such as methods of work and of teaching, museum administration, and other topics concerning the ways and means of naturalists. The attendance at the meeting was very large, and the proceedings most strikingly illustrated the advantages of having so many scientists interested in a single department gathered together, for the debates were often keen and pointed. Papers were read by Professors Wilder, Gage, Cope, Niles, James Hall, Harrison Allen, Wadsworth, Hyatt, Rothrock, Bickmore, and by Drs. Minot, Dimmock, etc. Only those papers were admitted which enlarged our knowledge of the *means and methods* of work, thus completely separating this society from all others where *results* of original investigation may be presented. The Society hopes to direct its powerful influence to elevating the character of the appointments of instructors in natural science in colleges and elsewhere. The abuses which occur in these appointments are too open and notorious to require to be here pointed out. It is not uncommon for a post to be filled in accordance with mere local knowledge of possible candidates, or for a competent person to be discarded or excluded through theological prejudice. The Society will confer a vast benefit upon the community if, as is hoped, it can exercise an effectual interference in these matters, on the one hand by holding up for condemnation bad appointments, and on the other by establishing a careful system of bringing competent candidates into direct communication with the appointing authorities.

—A year whose death-list includes, like that of 1883, names as eminent in their respective ranks as Chambord, Gortchakoff, Karl Marx, Wagner, Turgeneff, Colenso, and Doré, must be allowed a certain distinction among those which have preceded it. Some curious associations are noticeable: not only Doré, but his friend and comrade in Spain, Baron Davillier, the art archæologist and connoisseur; not only Clésinger, the sculptor, and son-in-law of George Sand, but Jules Sandeau, the novelist, and her lover; not only Ernst Dohm, the founder and editor of the *Kladderadatsch*, but Richard Doyle, the delightful caricaturist, and designer of the time-honored title-page of *Punch*. At the other extreme from Marx was Schultze-Delitzsch, the apostle of industrial coöperation; and from Colenso, Louis Veuillot, the Ultramontane editor of the *Univers*. Abd-el-Kader, who died more deaths by report in his latter years than he ever escaped on Algerian battle-fields, may serve as a sort of link between Louis Viardot, the historian of the Arabs and Moors in Spain, Edward FitzGerald, the lamented translator of Omer Khayyâm, and François Lenormant, the "all-round" Orientalist. The modern Greek statesman Coumoundouros, and Dindorf, the commentator and editor of the ancient Greek classical writers, left the stage together. So, likewise, Sir Edward Sabine, the veteran explorer of terrestrial magnetism, and Sir William Siemens, prematurely cut off in the midst of extraordinary electrical invention; so, again, John Payne Collier, the student of Shakspere, Karl Witte, a far higher order of mind, the student of Dante, and C. B. Cayley, author of the best metrical English version of the 'Commedia'. John Richard Green is certainly the most serious loss that history has sustained during the year, but Laboulaye and Henri Martin have, for personal and political reasons, a surer hold on remembrance. Science misses the Belgian physicist, Plateau; J. B. Listing, who gave his name to the familiar "law" in optics; and, more than either, Hermann Müller, in the domain of botany. Add the well-nigh centenarian S. Nilsson, "the oldest naturalist in the world, as respects both age and priority of his writings." From the service of art have been taken that interesting and serious French painter, Ulysse Butin, and Geefs, the Belgian sculptor. The composer Flotow leaves a name, but hardly a vacancy. Henri Conscience and Mayne Reid are chief among the novelists who have passed away. The vast unfinished ballad collection of Svend Grundtvig marks Denmark's privation. Another memorable scholar was Franz Dietrich, profound in Semitic and Teutonic philology. Bescherelle, author of the well-known French dictionary, is also gone. Sir George Bowyer, jurist; William Chambers, the people's publisher; Francis Bedford, not the people's binder; and the Rev. Derwent Coleridge, the amiable and learned son of the great poet, should be added to the Englishmen already enumerated. General Chanzy is the principal soldier whose obituary was written in 1883.

—The civil war is vividly recalled by the principal group in our domestic losses—Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederacy; Jeremiah S. Black, Buchanan's Attorney-General; Montgomery Blair, Lincoln's Postmaster-General; Senator Lot M. Morrill, member of the Peace (that was no peace) Convention of 1861; Senator Timothy O. Howe, a delegate to the Philadelphia "Loyalists' Convention" of 1866; Gov. Marshall Jewell, Grant's Postmaster-General; Gustavus V. Fox, Lincoln's efficient Assistant-Secretary of the Navy; and the gallant Generals A. A. Humphreys and E. O. C. Ord. Conspicuous also is the little band of munificent givers that includes Peter Cooper, Nathaniel Thayer, and Wm. E. Dodge. Dr. John Le Conte, our first authority in entomology, and Prof. Stephen Alexander, the Princeton astronomer, are the chief scientists on the list. The sculptors Clark Mills and Martin Millmore have left numerous monuments behind them. An individual if not a great novelist, the Rev. W. M. Baker; a clever poetical translator, the Rev. Charles T. Brooks; the historian of the Revolution, George W. Greene; Judge George Sharswood, the legal commentator; and Charles C. Hazewell, a prolific writer for the press, and a contributor to the encyclopædias (for which his historical studies especially qualified him), are

the leading names in literature whose work is closed. No more distinguished clergyman than the unhappy Archbishop Purcell calls for mention. We have reserved to the last a personage doubtless most world-famous of all our American dead—General Tom Thumb.

—Notwithstanding the important part which the cities of Holland have taken in the development of commerce and navigation, no history of Dutch maritime law worthy of its subject had been written before the work of Dr. M. Th. Goudsmit was published: 'Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Zeerecht.' It will consist of two volumes, the first, which appeared a few months ago, containing the history of the sources of Dutch maritime law, while the second will contain the history of the different doctrines. It is to be regretted that the Dutch language is so little known, for, apart from the value which this book has for the legal profession by reason of its thorough researches among the sources which are common to all maritime law, it gives the general public a glimpse of a very interesting and very little known part of the history of civilization—*Culturgeschichte*, to use a German expression. We refer to that part of the book where the author discusses the various "Keuren" which were promulgated in the Dutch cities on the subject of maritime law from the abjuration of Philip II. to the end of the eighteenth century. These "Keuren" were regulations of commerce which issued from the "Schepenen" (*i. e.*, the judges who had jurisdiction in admiralty matters), in cases as to which the customary law was silent, or which were fit subjects for police regulation. All the energy of the people was devoted to navigation and commerce, and it can readily be seen what interesting details of the social and political relations and of the every-day life of the Dutch people these "Keuren" reveal to us. They exhibit the jealous care with which the cities guarded against any encroachment on their municipal privileges by the central government in the struggle (in the regulation of insurance law) between practical good sense and old theological and moral scruples. But of no less interest, perhaps, for the student of men and manners are the paternal regulations to prevent sailors from getting drunk, or lawyers from interfering in any quarrel between the master and his crew. All these points, slight in themselves, but which give color and character to a treatise, are brought out in full relief by the admirable style of Dr. Goudsmit. The book, though entering into minute historical details, is eminently readable, and the full force of this compliment will be best understood by those who have tried wearily to plod through German books on similar topics.

— Although shorn of its honors as a product of the first printing-press, the so-called Gutenberg print, whose title to that distinction we think has been sufficiently disproved (see *Nation* of Nov. 29, 1883), is still not devoid of bibliographical interest. Late investigation has disclosed the probability of its being the *editio princeps* of Sebastian Brand's 'Richtlerlicher Clagspiegel,' published for the first time under the last title in 1516 at Strasbourg. The descent of Brand's popular compendium of law (for such is the character of the work) has been traced by Panzer, in his 'Annalen' from an anonymously printed and published tract, apparently a later edition of our newly discovered print, and typographically like a treatise printed by Peter Berger at Augsburg in 1488 or 1489, entitled 'Spiegel der menschlichen Behaltnuss.' Panzer credited Brand with the authorship of the precursors of the 'Richterlicher Clagspiegel,' but a proper interpretation of the passage in the title, reading "durch Doctorem Sebastianum Brand wider durchsichtiget und zum teyl gebessert," seems to show him only as the editor. Comparison of the Mentz (supposed Gutenberg) issue with the Augsburg publication shows the latter to be a word-for-word reproduction of the former, and the general coincidence in subject-matter with the 'Richterlicher Clagspiegel' indicates their common origin. The *Neuer Anzeiger*, still fondly imagining a Gutenberg incunabulum, cites the issuing of this popular law treatise as a further proof of Gutenberg's aim to disseminate useful knowledge, manifested already in the printing of the Bible to promote spiritual knowledge, in the 'Catholicon' for the presentation of scientific matter, and, finally, in the work under consideration to popularize legal information.

—Of books about books there is no end, seemingly, and especially in France, where the worship of paper and ink has been carried to the utmost excess. Among them a little book by M. Jules Richard, 'L'Art de former une Bibliothèque' (Paris: Rouveyre & Blond; New York: J. W. Bouton) deserves mention. It is a sort of supplement or corollary of M. Rouveyre's treatise on the 'Connaissances nécessaires à un Bibliophile,' which it matches in size and in typographic beauty. The paper is not too white, the margins are broad, and if the press-work had but been a little more careful, the book would be perfect. M. Richard's advice is meant not for those learned in books and full in pocket, but for the more modest beginner, who has a taste for reading and a liking for the prettinesses of printing, binding, and illustration. He warns the beginner against undue enthusiasm, and against the exorbitant prices asked for the original editions of second-rate authors. The great authors justify a long price and will probably hold their own always, but the second-rate owe their fancy prices only to freaks of the hour: Rétif de la Bretonne, for example, went up like a rocket and is beginning to come down like a stick; but the original editions of Molière's single plays have steadily risen in value until a full set is now worth about six thousand dollars (against which we may set the four or five thousand asked now for the first four folios of Shakspere). M. Richard notes that the Sand-Musset quarrel called forth seven books, 'Lui et Elle,' 'Elle et Lui,' 'Lui,' 'Eux et Elles,' etc., of which three are so rare that the collection was marked a hundred francs in a catalogue of 1876. He pays special attention to illustrated books; and here let us say in passing that in France nowadays an illustrated book is primarily a book adorned with etchings, just as in the United States it is a book adorned with woodcuts. There are a few fine French books illustrated by woodcuts as there are a few fine American books illustrated by etchings, but the French superiority in etching is as marked as the American superiority in woodcutting. The English superiority, so far as it exists, is in the fine color-printing we see in Mr. Caldecott's and Miss Greenaway's delightful books. M. Richard dwells on the need of a catalogue for even the smallest collection of books. He advises a card catalogue, but heretically suggests the separation of the author and subject-alphabets.

LORD LYTTON'S LIFE.

The Life, Letters, and Literary Remains of Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton. By his son. With portraits and illustrations. Vol. I. (containing Vols. I. and II. of the English Edition). New York: Harper & Brothers.

THE instalment of Lord Lytton's life now before the public only brings his career down to 1829, when he was but twenty-six years of age. At that age, however, he had made his name as a man of letters—was known, in fact, all over the world as a poet and novelist. 'Pelham' had established his reputation on a secure basis, and he had also commenced a political career in Parliament. The picture of his early life, sketched by himself and completed by his son, does little to alter materially the impression made on the public mind by him while alive, as a man of extraordinary fertility, resource, and brilliancy of mind. That he had a great literary or moral message to deliver appears to have been one of his cherished illusions, and a tendency to illusion was one of his marked characteristics. Both he and his son have a good deal to say about the moral purpose of such books as 'Falkland' and 'Paul Clifford.' The first, as we understand it, was to portray the disastrous consequences of illicit passion; the second, to utter a protest against the bloody penal code of the day. But, unfortunately, even in such cases, the purpose of the author does not seem to have been understood. Curiously enough, he appears at one time to have thought of himself as heading a reaction against the "satanic" school brought in by Byron—the school of morbid melancholy, self-accused of unnamable crime. We say curiously, for he himself fell heir to a good deal of Byronism—to its melancholy, to its sensitiveness, its magniloquence, its pride; and he was hailed in France as a great literary man on the strength of a resemblance which was, perhaps, more striking when perceived through the medium of a translation into a language that easily lends itself to magniloquence, than in English. But, looking back at the long array of books of all sorts that he produced, it is hard to detect in any of them the touch of original genius that marks the work of some of his contemporaries with whom he inevitably must be compared.

He began his career at a period when it was in fashion to be "misunderstood," and it would appear, from his own and his son's account, that he was thoroughly misunderstood to an extraordinary degree. Not only many of his critics and most of his readers misunderstood him, but in private life he was wholly misunderstood by his mother and by his wife. In connection with this fact, we may refer the reader to the Lady Caroline Lamb episode. She, being herself a thoroughgoing *femme incomprise*, brought a promising flirtation with the young author to an untimely end. His account of her relations with him throws out into bold relief the more ridiculous features of the society in which he was brought up, and makes us wonder how in such an atmosphere any manly or healthy feeling could flourish. It was a society in which the sentiment and fancy were cultivated to the point at which it became continually impossible to tell whether what you felt was a simple emotion, or the result of a strong imaginative perception of what the emotion appropriate to the situation would, to the eye of Romance, probably be.

A great part of the present volume is taken up with an account of the estrangement and subsequent partial reconciliation between Bulwer and his mother, and the circumstances of his married life which led later on to the fatal trouble between himself and his wife. For his biographer the task of going over this ground is certainly an unenviable one, and if he accomplishes it without provoking replies and recriminations from the custodians of other literary remains, his book will be more successful than such publications are apt to be. The

sum and substance of his story is this: Bulwer's mother (between whom and his father there had also been a separation) had, before his marriage to the beautiful Miss Wheeler, supported him. To this marriage she was bitterly opposed, and her son promised not to marry without her consent. Before long, however, he began, as might have been expected, to feel that his honor was involved by his relations with Miss Wheeler, and that therefore the promise ought not to be considered binding. His mother regarded it as sacred, and on his marriage stopped his allowance, as she had threatened to do, and absolutely dropped him. Then followed a series of letters from Bulwer to her, which give us an important clue to his character. Their writer was certainly in a very cruel position. Himself accustomed to an easy life, on a liberal allowance furnished by his mother, he had now married a woman unaccustomed to privation or care, and, by her own naïf admission, unqualified for the common routine of household duty. Income he practically had none, and he had nothing to look forward to but literary drudgery as a means of livelihood. Yet in all his letters to his mother, pleading earnestly for a reconciliation, on every ground that occurred to his heart or mind, there is not a suggestion of any pecuniary claim upon her. He appealed to her to be reconciled to his wife as a matter of justice, and his appeals proved too eloquent to be resisted; but the letters are those of a man too proud to admit that a question of money should affect such a matter—though he must have been sadly in need of it at the time. Finally the reconciliation was effected, and his mother called upon his wife and restored his allowance. She was, however, not satisfied with her reception, and in consequence used some expression about her "maintaining" her daughter-in-law. Bulwer at once declined to receive the allowance, and wrote his mother a letter beginning as follows:

"HATFIELD: Thursday.

"When, some time ago, you informed me of your intention to allow me so large an income, I was perfectly aware of the great generosity of the offer. Nothing could have induced me to agree to your making so considerable a sacrifice but the conviction that, as the proposal could only arise from affection, so I could not more wound that affection than by refusing it. I felt, too, that my health was weak and reduced; that it had been greatly overstrained, that it required a long and considerable relaxation from mental harassment for its recovery; that, without your proposal, I should not be justified in giving myself such relaxation; and that, as you were so sensible of this that your offer seemed, in great measure, to spring from the knowledge of it, so it would give you, I thought, a far greater pleasure to relieve me from the necessity of exertions which had become injurious, than to be withheld by me from a sacrifice for which nothing could repay you but my sense of its exceeding generosity and kindness. To have refused it at that moment would have been false pride. I accepted it with the warmest gratitude, and it was a pleasure to me to think I owed you so much."

But, he adds, he did not consider this, nor did he suppose that his mother considered it, "maintenance." For three years already he had been maintaining himself. The effect of the allowance (£1,000) would be merely to enable him to work less hard and spare his health, on which his constant labor was beginning to tell. He says that he is "not above an obligation," but insists very justly that in such an obligation, the moment the kindness and generosity of the benefactor are subordinated to the sense of pecuniary burden, the latter becomes intolerable. He continues:

"What remains to me to do is obvious. I feel still persuaded that, at the time you made to me so generous a proposal, you did not see the offer as, according to your words, you now see it; and I shall always remember the affection which then dictated it with a gratitude much warmer, I fear, than I should have felt for it had you said those words some years hence, after I had incurred the *unconscious* meanness of contracting a debt I had not the ability to pay.

"Firmly, then, and respectfully, I now return to my own resources and my own exertions. The sum you were so kind as to transfer to my account will have been paid back to yours before you receive this letter. The feelings that occasion this decision do not lessen my affection. They only render me, I hope, more worthy of yours. *Maintenance* is a word confined solely to *Charity;* and no person who retains the use of his limbs and brains deserves esteem if he stoops to receive charity for himself. Still less does he deserve it if he suffers his wife or children to be dependent on the charity of others."

This is certainly the letter of a morbidly proud young man, but there is in it a tone of lofty superiority to what may be called the modern business view of family relations which is characteristic of Bulwer. We may call it absurdly romantic, but Bulwer was brought up under the influence of the idea that romance was the great reality of life, and for his over sensitive mind romance proved to be too strong meat. But if any one who recollects the effect upon himself when young of Bulwer's novels—and it is chiefly upon the young that such books are likely to have a strong moral effect—will candidly recall the impression they made, he will certainly admit that magniloquent or affected though they may have been, they never taught him to take a sordid view of life. It was left for a later generation of novelists to depict life and fate as hinging on pounds, shillings, and pence.

Bulwer's autobiography is a fantastic sketch of a high-strung, enthusiastic, romantic boy, brought up among books, and aristocratic traditions and prejudices, and belonging to the old pre-democratic world, when it was the fashion for gentlemen to profess radical ideas, the ultimate consequences of which they little perceived. In 'Pelham,' in 'Kenelm Chillingly,' in 'Ernest Maltravers,' we catch glimpses of him, but in reading his reminiscences, we feel ourselves in an atmosphere as far removed from that of ordinary biography as was the ether breathed by those heroes. Whatever we may think of his poetry, there is no denying that he had the poetical temperament, and saw events and persons in a light which never was on sea or land, and which he seemed to have the power of turning on at will; for when not giving himself up to flights of fancy, his observation of the actual facts of life, and his judgment of the motives which govern men in their intercourse with each other, were shrewd and just.

Thackeray, who later in life apologized with becoming contrition for the fun he had made of him, wrote a parody which perhaps constitutes the best extant criticism of Bulwer's literary faults, and of the curious vein of absurdity that makes his efforts at romance so frequently end in a fiasco. He never understood (for he had none of that rare humor which enables a man to enjoy a joke at his own expense, and indeed very little humor of any kind) what people found to amuse them in the lampoons upon him with which the press soon began to abound; and when we remember the grossly personal character of much of the literary criticism of the day, we can hardly wonder at his assumed indifference to the "ribald" attacks of his enemies. His son gives a specimen of these from *Frazer's* of December, 1831, and it is certainly of a kind to make us stare.

"Do not be seduced," the writer says, "into the belief that, because a man in your employer's back shop can manufacture a novel on the shortest notice, and at the lowest price, therefore all other species of literary labor may be similarly performed. Nobody knows better than yourself that to make a fashionable novel all that is required is a tolerable acquaintance with footmen and butlers. This will supply the high life. The meanness of the characters introduced you may draw from yourself. . . . Wishing to put a young man in your position in the right path, I have cast a hasty glance over the first magazine on which you have tried your hand, and am sorry to say it is truly beastly, and abominably stupid. . . . My dear Bulwer, this writing of yours is bitter bad, it is jejune base twaddle, twaddle, I say, Bulwer, twaddle."

This was pretty wide of the mark; but Thackeray's satire was a nearly mortal stab. To Thackeray Bulwer was simply keeping up a sham romance in literature; his flights of fancy were affected and fantastic, his sentiment unnatural. And so they often were. Thackeray was right: 'George de Barnwell' is a wonderful parody. But this was not all. The strangest part of Bulwer's life is that the true is mixed with the false so that they are inseparable; for his overheated imagination often did not permit him to know which was which. He was no conscious literary impostor, as Disraeli must have been, but a man who was fond of looking at the world in the light of sentiments and ideas which had little or no relation to experience, while his life of constant literary drudgery was making him one of the most expert, shrewd, and practical men of letters of his day. The construction of his novels alone—the sustained interest in the plot, the witty observation of men and manners, and the extraordinary range of reflection and study shown in them—would make his career remarkable. As a dramatist, he has accomplished the feat of producing plays which have held the stage for a generation—a performance in itself enough to make his literary career remarkable. His many good and strong qualities—his industry, his research, his insight into motives—triumphed in the end over the influence of the artificial social and literary atmosphere in which he was brought up, and leave his name still famous in the long list of great authors our age has produced. No one can read the record of his steady, unremitting, and painful toil, to which he devoted his early and best years, without feeling that all he won he honestly earned.

WALLACE'S EGYPT.

Egypt and the Egyptian Question. By D. Mackenzie Wallace. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE *muzsik*, or little man, is the most prominent subject in Wallace's 'Russia'; the *fellah*, or peasant, is the almost exclusive subject of his 'Egypt.' Neither book is a work of travel, or of geographical interest; the former is an ethnographical study in a very broad sense, the latter an economico-political study of very limited scope. 'Russia,' being the result of a young man's observations, for several years during a peaceful period, on a nation awakening to self-consciousness in apparently youthful vigor, is no less pleasantly readable than it is instructive; 'Egypt,' the product of a much-disillusioned observer, bent on examining inveterate national ailings, wounds inflicted by recent governmental quackery and sudden convulsions, and general conditions of decrepitude, is naturally very painful reading. In spite of the author's easy and lucid way of narrating experiences personally made or gathered from witnesses, of his good-natured humor and perhaps too constant facetiousness, of his invariably pleasing style and rich stock of comparisons and illustrations—whence also no little diffuseness and repetition—this volume reads like a martyrology which inspires pity totally unmixed with admiration. Heartless tyranny on

one side, and stupidity and cowardice on the other—such is all the picture of woe exhibited before us. Not a ray of Pharaonic, Ptolemaic, or Saracenic glory is reflected upon it. The author discards all the allurements so easily borrowed from Egyptian lore and history, ignoring alike Amen-Ra and Thebes, obelisks and hieroglyphs, Hyksos and exodus, Cleopatra and Cæsar, Amru and Saladin. He treats Egypt and the Egyptian question as topics of political pathology, interesting to statesmen, and now, exceptionally, also to the whole British nation. Aiming at being seriously exhaustive and at making his problem popularly intelligible, he has succeeded in both—though not without exposing himself, as he is well aware, to the reproach of analytical tediousness on one side, and of levity of diction on the other.

His story and view of the situation may be epitomized as follows: Mehemet Ali, in the beginning of this century, replaced the chronic disorder which prevailed under the divided and petty tyranny of the Mamelukes by a strong and enlightened personal despotism. Having crushed the Mameluke beys, he did all in his power to develop the resources of the country and introduce European improvements. His great economical work was the systematic canalization of the delta. This required an enormous amount of forced labor, which was pitilessly extorted from the fellahs. It wonderfully increased the productivity of Egypt, but the despot, whose aim was not the welfare of the people, but the accumulation of means for one day coping with the Sultan, took good care that the increase in the national revenue should mainly flow into the Viceregal treasury. This he effected by rigid Government monopolies. He guarded for himself the exclusive right of buying agricultural products for exportation, and his Government fixed the prices. When forced by the Sultan to submit to the general treaties of the Empire, which allowed foreigners to trade freely with the natives, he made this right nugatory by extorting heavy taxes in kind, and leaving but a scanty surplus to the producers. A still more galling burden was his military conscription. After the extermination of the Mamelukes he resolved on getting rid of his Albanian soldiery through the formation of a native army, and it was composed mainly of fellahs violently torn from their homes. The peasantry had gained some security and a greater fixity of land tenure under the intelligent sway of Mehemet Ali, but they felt the weight of his imposts, forced labor, and conscription to be as grievous as the fitful rapacity of the Circassian robbers whom he had annihilated. The short reign, in 1848, of his son (or adopted son) Ibrahim Pasha, who had commanded his armies in Arabia, in the Morea, and in his wars with the Sultan, was but a continuation of the same régime.

Under Ibrahim's nephew and successor, Abbas, the fellahs breathed more freely. Abbas was addicted to private vices, and was haughty in his demeanor, gloomy and fierce; but he was free from Mehemet Ali's towering ambition, designs of conquest, and love of military display. His fiscal rapacity was therefore more moderate, and the burden of his conscription light. He abolished what remained of the Government monopolies, and diminished the *corvée* duties; for the ordinary resources of the country more than sufficed for the wants of his peaceful administration and the satisfaction of his luxurious tastes, while the continuation on a grand scale of Mehemet Ali's canalization schemes was deemed unnecessary. The kurbash was sparingly used in the collection of taxes, and yet the Viceregal treasury was full. The habitual victims of Abbas's tyranny were persons far above the state of the fellah, and by such he was, in 1854, strangled in the recesses of his harem.

Said Pasha, Mehemet Ali's son, who succeeded Abbas, was entirely different in character. Kind-hearted, light-headed, amiable, he had more of the witty Frenchman than of the grave Oriental. But he had weaknesses which became sources of oppression. He had a love of soldiering, used the army as a plaything, and consequently extended the conscription. He was unable to resist the suggestions and requests of unscrupulous European adventurers—"that swarm of *chevaliers d'industrie* and shady financiers who were soon to help on the Viceregal Government in its downward course through pressing financial embarrassments to national bankruptcy." Said was also unable to resist the loftier suggestions of a man of different stamp—Ferdinand de Lesseps—and, after much vacillation, he signed the concession for the construction of the Suez Canal. This signature was of vital importance to the commerce of the world—and also to the fellahs. M. de Lesseps "no doubt really intended, as he said, to teach—not by precept but by example—the native Egyptian engineers how to dig and clean canals by machinery, without the use of forced labor; but somehow, when the work began, . . . he thought it better to teach his French engineers—not by precept but by example—how to dig and clean canals by forced labor, without machinery." The consequence of this change of method for the Egyptian peasants was that there were always about "20,000 of them at work, 10,000 in the course of being transported to the scene of operations, and 10,000—or as many of these as had survived the labor and privations—being transported back to their homes." Apart from the vastness of the scheme, the "ruthless sacrifice of human life . . . entitles the canal to rank with some of the great works of the Pharaohs." Fortunately, Lord Palmerston—not from purely humanitarian motives—obtained the annulment of the forced-labor clause; and Said's increased taxes, too, were not unbearable, owing to the rise in the price of grain caused by the Crimean war, to the greater facilities of exportation created by the completion of the railway from Alexandria to Cairo, and ultimately to the unprecedented demand for cotton produced by the American civil war.

Ismail Pasha, Ibrahim's son, who succeeded Said in 1863, "combined in his portly person the qualities of a vigorous Oriental despot with those of a daring Occidental stock-broker," and his schemes for developing the immense resources of Egypt were on a grand scale. Fortune favored his ambition. The American war at its height, the clamors for cotton of the spinners of Lancashire, and the hoarded wealth of Western Europe anxiously seeking new fields for investment—these were admirable circumstances for a financier enthroned in Egypt. Ismail threw the flood-gates wide open to European capital, and its effects were magical. Railways, canals, and harbors were created, extended, or improved. The cotton production was wonderfully stimulated and increased; ginning factories were established. The pashas and large land-owners imitated the work of their ruler in his boundless estates, and the peasants themselves eagerly took to the new species of cultivation. A most extraordinary prosperity rewarded the new enterprises; gold flowed into hovels. But the fellah's Golden Age did not last long; when the American war was over, the bubble of inflated production burst. Egyptian cotton was "played out." The soil showed signs of exhaustion. But the increased taxes remained. The Khedive needed money, and the bastinado had to squeeze it out of his impoverished subjects. Worse than that—sugar production was now to be a substitute for cotton in gorging his treasury. Upper Egypt was to produce it, and had to be canalized for the purpose. And so the Ibrahimieh Canal, from Bibeh to Assiut, was dug by forced labor. And, to complete the improvement, the Upper Egypt Railway was built alongside the canal and brought down to Cairo—also by forced labor. The poorer peasants were besides in debt for loans contracted for land improvement; they borrowed from Greek usurers to pay arrears of taxes; unable to pay, they sold their land, or the Government confiscated it—that is to say, Ismail did; and he thus ultimately became the owner of about one-fifth of all the arable soil of the country. All the enormous machinery of the Government, from the Minister of State down to the lowest village sheikh, was constantly active in this great work of oppression and extortion; and each worker had his special compensation, wrung from the fellah.

But a day of reckoning is inevitable. "The Egyptian Viceregal magician has made a solemn contract, and has often renewed it, with the demon of European finance, and the financial Mephistopheles has served him faithfully according to the terms agreed upon. He has created for him railways and canals, opera-houses and ballet-girls, cotton-plantations and sugar-factories, palaces and public gardens, harbors and iron-clads—in a word, everything that a fertile Oriental imagination could devise—and now, . . . the *mauvais quart d'heure* approaches, when the last clause of the contract has to be executed." The magnificence displayed at the opening of the Suez Canal has not restored his tottering credit. In his distress he applies to the European Powers for controlling financiers, and receives successively Mr. Cave, Signor Scialoja, Goschen, and Joubert. They are no magicians. His fertile brain looks for a more potent spell to conjure the approaching doom: he invents a sham parliamentary government, and telegraphs to Paris for Nubar Pasha to form a responsible cabinet. Nubar arrives, but, instead of aiding in a work of jugglery intended to remove the fiscal responsibility of the Khedive, he is fully in earnest about the reforms, and frightens his master with the spectre of deposition into giving up to the state his and his children's private estates, and accepting the financial management of Mr. Rivers Wilson and M. de Blignières. Ismail cannot brook it long. He rids himself of the incubus through a military demonstration, and announces a new scheme of financial settlement, with a great display of patriotic readiness on the part of his family to sacrifice wealth to the honor of the state. It is too late. A grudge of Germany, the old jealousy of the Sultan, and the anger of France and England at the dismissal of Wilson and Bligniéres result, in 1879, in the launching in Stambul of the imperial decree of deposition, and there is no means of resisting it. "Exit Ismail with an air of injured innocence, and with a carpet-bag containing valuable family jewels. . . . Enter Tewfik, accompanied by Riaz and the Anglo-French control"; and with the latter come an overhauling of the finances, economy, a better distribution of taxes, and an improved method of collection. The rise and agitation of the National Party, Arabi's insurrection and dictatorship, the massacres of Alexandria and its bombardment, and Tell el-Kebir, caused new confusion, and entailed new losses and sufferings upon the fellahs who were beguiled or driven into the patriotic movement.

Of the men who under Ismail and his son, Tewfik, acted an important part in politics, Nubar, Riaz, and Arabi are the most conspic-

uous. Nubar, an Armenian by descent, combines with the knowledge and enlightenment of first-rate European statesmen the suppleness and subtlety, the rapidity of conception and fertility of resource, of the genuine Oriental, and "a charm of manner, an artistic power of lucid explanation and graphic description peculiarly his own." A sincere friend of legality, it was he who, though averse to the political domination of the foreigners, introduced the International Law Courts, and, systematically undermining the arbitrary power of Ismail, greatly contributed to his fall. Riaz, the son of a Jewish renegade, or himself a renegade, is a small, thin man, of anything but prepossessing appearance, and endowed neither with the Oriental's dignity of manner nor with a natural fluency of speech. But he is possessed of a strong will and great tenacity of purpose, and, what is much rarer in the atmosphere in which he acts, of integrity in pecuniary matters. As an administrator he has great natural aptitude, ample experience, and energy; but, his ways being those of the Oriental rather than the European dignitary, he has always evinced more faith in discipline than in justice, and greater anxiety to uphold the authority of the guardians of order and collectors of taxes than to redress grievances. He is patriotically jealous of foreign influence, and convinced that Occidental institutions in Oriental lands can result only in confusion and anarchy; but he honestly assisted the English and French financiers, as such, during the time of the dual control. Arabi is a big, broad-shouldered fellah, with a massive forehead, soft eyes, "an indefinable something which impresses favorably all who come in contact with him," and wonderful eloquence in the language of the Koran. Of his movement, and the view taken of it in England, Mr. Wallace says:

"Again and again our responsible statesmen expressly declared, or tacitly assumed, that Arabi was simply a military adventurer and nothing more; that the military leaders represented no one but themselves, and produced a mere phantom of popular support by terrorizing the population; that the real National Party, in so far as anything of the sort existed, were represented by the virtuous Sherif, and had no manner of sympathy with Arabi and his wicked accomplices; that all sections of the population were animated with loyalty and affection for the amiable young prince who was their legal ruler. . . .

"Now, I do not wish to inquire who are responsible for this absurd caricature of the revolutionary movement. . . . But in the name of common honesty and common sense, let us frankly abjure our errors, let us refrain from increasing our difficulties by adopting the silly device of timid, stupid ostriches, and let us look the facts bravely in the face, however ugly or unpleasant they may be. Arabi did not acquire and preserve his influence by terrorism, for at the commencement he had no power to injure any one, and during the whole time of his power he never caused a single individual to be beheaded, hanged, or shot. If he had gone to the poll with Tewfik, and all corrupt practices had been excluded, he would have obtained the votes of an overwhelming majority of the free and independent electors. The amiable young prince never possessed the faculty of inspiring his subjects with affection or enthusiasm, and he became decidedly unpopular when he sided with the foreigner against Arabi. The virtuous Sherif represented merely his own views, and those of a few respectable moderate men, who might be counted perhaps on the fingers of one hand. Nearly everybody in Egypt, intelligent and educated enough to understand what the question at issue was, wished to be freed, not from the tyranny of military despots, but from the wholesome checks created by the Anglo-French control, while the great mass of the ignorant peasantry wished to be liberated from the yoke of the usurers, which was the only kind of foreign influence with which they were personally acquainted. . . ."

Those who remained really loyal to Tewfik favored a strong government through a trustworthy army of foreign mercenaries, but very few were ready to help in carrying out the English reform scheme; and to suppose that these few can realize that scheme by their own strength and without extraneous assistance is as absurd, Mr. Wallace thinks, "as it would be to suppose that two men and a boy in a little dinghy could tow the *Great Eastern* out to sea." English coöperation in the work of reorganizing Egypt must, therefore, not be confined to merely removing obstacles: England must have the direction of the work. She must prevent dangerous political agitations by removing, as far as possible, legitimate grounds of complaint. But the political institutions to which her influence may give rise must be created for advice and guidance rather than for a direct exercise of power. The Khedive and his ministers must be endowed with sufficient power, and induced by the necessary amount of pressure, to carry through the needed reforms. The action must virtually be England's. The great majority of the native officials have no wish for reforms tending to diminish their illicit gains or curb their despotic sway. The few who have a purer character and higher aims are incompetent from lack of knowledge, faith, or energy. The great mass of the people are ignorant, apathetic, and helpless. Improvements in the Egyptian administration must be of the Indian type. "They must be imported, and for some time carefully tended. When they have once struck deep root, they may, perhaps, be left to take care of themselves." The improvements are not to be merely political; economical ones are more urgently needed. For Egypt is threatened with a terrible economic crisis, the rural population being impoverished and sinking deeper and deeper into debt and arrears of taxes, while the soil is losing its fertility. And England has no right to shrink from the difficulties of the task, enormous though they be. She may have had no right to go to Egypt, but she has now the duty to stay there until she performs what she undertook to do. On this point, which is, in fact, the main practical point of the book, Mr. Wallace expatiates most emphatically; but we have room left for only a few of his remarks:

"If we were not resolved to create something like permanent order in Egypt, why did we go to Egypt at all? If we did not mean to create really good government, why did we destroy the National Party, which had a far better chance of preserving order of some kind than the Khedive whom we reinstated? If we intended to let the Egyptians stew in their own juice, why did we wantonly interfere in the operation and send the fat into the fire? If we did not mean to do something serious in Egypt, why did we heedlessly and needlessly offend France by abolishing the Dual Control? The time for considering the question as to whether we should undertake the work of Egyptian reorganization was in the early part of last year, before we overthrew the Arabi dictatorship, and before the destruction of Alexandria. It is rather late in the day now to have conscientious scruples, and very foolish to imagine that by shirking our duties and responsibilities we can make for ourselves a reputation of disinterestedness and generosity. The man who begins to have conscientious scruples after having accomplished the destructive part of a great work, and who timidly shrinks from the unquestionable difficulties and possible dangers in the constructive part, does not gain a high moral reputation, but gains, and gains justly, the reputation of a miserable, canting coward. We have done the work of destruction in Egypt very thoroughly. I do not speak merely of the blackened ruins of Alexandria. . . . We have thoroughly destroyed the old despotic system of ruling the country, and have thoroughly dislocated the whole system of government. . . . We prevented the Khedive from getting rid of Arabi at the commencement. Next, when the National Party were victorious, we prevented Arabi from getting rid of the Khedive; and, lastly, when the Khedive was reëstablished, we prevented him . . . from recovering his moral authority and prestige by the exercise of what he, and all impartial Egyptians, regarded as an act of necessary severity. . . ."

Historical Handbook of Italian Sculpture. By Charles C. Perkins, Corresponding Member of the French Institute, Author of 'Tuscan Sculptors,' etc. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE position of Mr. Perkins as a recognized authority on Italian art is such as to render superfluous any elaborate notice of a work which in part retraces the ground travelled over in former works. At the same time, the classical importance, and the unquestionable high value of what he has to say on Italian art, leave the publishers no excuse for the poor and cheap manner in which the book is brought out. The illustrations are not over-copious (though excellent in their way) for a work of its kind, but they lose much by the quality of the paper and press-work. The brief preface contains more matter than one usually finds in such documents nowadays, when authors apparently regard them as mere formalities—rudimentary indications of functions now foregone. The curious fact of the gradual decline of art under the influence of a religion which has received the credit of being its foster mother, is interestingly shown. The conclusion is not new, but Mr. Perkins states it more logically than we have seen it elsewhere:

"Varying between Byzantinism, which regulated all forms of art by strictly conventional rules, and Mediævalism, which regarded them solely as a means of conveying doctrinal instruction through symbolic or direct representation, sculpture in Italy had dragged out a feeble existence for many centuries before the year 1000 (when the end of the world was confidently expected), and had then almost ceased to be. As the dreaded moment approached, men only thought of how they could save their souls or drown their anxieties, and not until it had passed did they breathe freely enough to occupy themselves with life and its activities."

But when, following this lead, the author says that "among these, art at once claimed their attention, as gratitude for deliverance found natural expression in the building of new churches, etc.," we should be inclined to question his theory of cause and effect. That the failure of fulfilment of the churchmen's prophecy to a certain extent weakened their influence, and threw men back on the material life, and so emancipated them from the influence of the terrors which the Church held over mankind as the inducements to an ascetic life, is more probable than that any sense of gratitude for having escaped the menace which was a part of the religious discipline, should have made them more religious. It is hardly likely that they should overflow with thanksgiving for heaven's not having visited them with a doom which they were accustomed to regard as a part of the divine plan, and whose failure emptied the thunders of the Church. Men inclined to art because they felt freer and happier with regard to the material existence; but as in their condition of social organization the Church still held a powerful influence over their mental tendencies, they expressed their artistic aspirations in the way which sympathized most with the dominant mood of society.

The distinction the author makes in his account of sculpture as to its character is good; "we use the word *sculpture, which implies technical and æsthetic training*, instead of *stone carving*, which more properly expresses the nature of much of the work which we are to consider, simply because it is a more convenient form of speech, and not as implying artistic excellence in Italian works of the eleventh and twelfth centuries"; and this might be applied, *mutatis mutandis*, to painting as well. A well-digested introduc-

tion treats of the condition of sculpture prior to the epoch of Niccola Pisano, whom the author rightly regards as the head of the movement of renaissance of sculpture, and with whom the history proper begins. Says Mr. Perkins: "For our own part we have no hesitation in leaving this long-accredited honor (that of giving birth to this revival) to Tuscany, for only there are to be found those works of the twelfth century which announce its approach, together with those of the thirteenth in which it reveals itself"; and here we can but agree with him entirely, the more as at no time has the southern portion of Italy, including Rome, shown originality or priority in artistic development. Nor is it possible that any such revival should take place where a general artistic tendency did not exist in the people, any more than that one man even like Niccola should, without a preparation such as existed only in Tuscany, where it was probably the inheritance of the old Etruscan blood, evolve by his personal influence a reformation or revival of art.

In reference to Niccola, Mr. Perkins makes one remark to which we should except as a matter of general philosophy of art:

"It seems at first sight strange that an artist of such extraordinary genius as Niccola Pisano should not have formed scholars content to repeat his types and work in his spirit; but we understand the reason when we look at the eclectic character of his work, and consider the unsettled state of men's minds about art at this time. To shape others, a man must himself have definite ideas, and these Niccola had not."

Unless *definite* ideas mean limited ideas, we should be inclined to maintain that Niccola had all the definiteness which we can expect of a man who absorbs and remodels the ideas of all around and before him, and that his eclecticism was that of which we have such a near and remarkable example in Turner, who worked in the vein of many artists whom he appreciated, and at one time was eclectic and then intensely individual, without ever losing what he had absorbed. That an artist should make imitators, it is necessary not only that he should be strong and definite, but that he should be limited; a man of large and catholic genius will form pupils without moulding them to any narrow resemblance to himself. They may not "be content to repeat his types," simply because his types are not final, but be willing to follow his spirit and show in their works his influence, and thereby, in their development, the wider nature of their master, working in a liberty which he taught them.

The book closes with the year 1600, when in truth Italian sculpture may be said to have reverted to "stone carving." A useful appendix is the index to towns containing the works of the various masters, in which some changes are already to be made, as works formerly in positions more or less exposed are being transferred to the museums. The renaissance of sculpture in Italy is every day more clearly seen to be the school of our modern sculpture, if we are to have any, and the works which treat of it in its various relations are becoming a very important element in our art literature. In its province, we know nothing which so well fills its niche as this work.

A Roundabout Journey. By Charles Dudley Warner. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

MR. WARNER is one of the pleasantest of companions in those travels that are made by one's fireside. The ordinary inconveniences of rapid transit through semi-civilized lands, or through those half-barbarized by tourists and their tormentors, seem to disappear from his path; the sun always shines, the world wears a leisurely look, and only so much of the inevitable occurs as may be easily accepted as food for humor. In this volume, which relates the adventures and describes the varying landscape to be met with in a journey round the western coast of the Mediterranean, there is the vividness, the picturesqueness, and the impression of a pervading indolence, familiar to us in the earlier books of Oriental travels from the same pen; and there is that light cheerfulness and tolerance which give the most agreeable *politesse* to a traveller, at least up to that evil hour when he entered Spain.

The ground gone over is the south coast of France, Sicily, Malta, some few miles of the Morocco shore near Tangier, and Spain. Roses bloomed from the start, and here and there some fine old legend of the romantic mediæval Mediterranean, the sea of the Norman, the Saracen, and the Crusader, gave itself to the traveller's hand. At Palermo he visited that curious cemetery that looks like an emigrant's baggage room, where 8,000 of the wealthy are exposed in death, their dried and weazened corpses, decked with crowns and lilies, kid gloves, fine shoes, and the like, being piled up in boxes with glass doors, or hung by the neck from the ceiling in all the ghastly grimace and what Mr. Warner calls the "limpness of irresponsibility for appearance which characterizes the dead." There probably is not on earth another so grotesque sight on the grand scale. It makes one think of the Sicilian vespers, the Pompeian museums—what not of the fierce extremes of a southern nature? But for the most part only delightful scenes rose along the way; the most charming of which seem to have been Taormina and Tangier, whence an idle man need never wish to stray; or such localities as were most colored by the neighborhood of the Orient. For anything Oriental, whether in costume or manner or habits of life, Mr. Warner has a soft spot in his heart. Though he may not approve, he is plainly attracted, and he turns away from the calm, the passion, the broad glowing colors of the scene even, with the air of one who likes the lotus, but has a practical fear that it will disagree with him.

The proverbial end to all good things came when Mr. Warner took the discommoding steamer for Spain. From the hour he entered and had difficulty in retaining a single hairbrush from his baggage for the necessities of his morning toilet, he was badgered with incivility and harassed by a growing dislike for Spanish food, particularly beans. He holds the cuisine of the country in disdain; and his humor, whenever he mentions it, would be pathetic were it not a trifle acrid. Listen to this:

"Our repast was all we could expect. The person who is fond of tasteless beans will find Spain a paradise. In this land of olives, those served on the table are bitter and disagreeable, and the oil, in which everything is cooked, is uniformly rancid. But it should be confessed the oil is better than the butter, when the latter luxury is attainable. Something seems to be the matter with the cows. I do not wonder that the Spaniards are at table a temperate and abstemious race. It is no merit to be abstemious with such food and cooking. The wine at Arcos, however, was a sort of manzanilla, that made us regard any food with favor. It was a medicinal draught, with a very strong flavor of camomile—a very useful root, I believe, in the manipulation of the market sherry, and exceedingly wholesome. So long as a man can drink this wine, he will not die. I should recommend the total abstinence society to introduce it into our country."

So he goes on, finding Spain a larger Arcos, except when he meets with some of the Moorish art or romance, which serves as a foil to degrade the present possessors of the land still more. They do not, it appears, even court their ladies with guitars. Courtship in Spain was like everything else—it struck no responsive chord in Mr. Warner's heart:

"The attitude of a lover in Spain is to stand motionless, hour after hour, at a heavily-grated window. We saw one slim gallant in the position, when we set out on our walk, and an hour after he maintained the same impassioned, patient embrace of the iron grating. It would seem to be a safe sort of courtship, and as intoxicating as talking with a nun through the grille of her cell."

Naturally, when he got out of Spain, Mr. Warner felt that he had got into paradise. But, clever as the sketches are, plainly as the scene is brought out—a European New Mexico, treeless, mountainous, dry, a land of torrents, and precipitous paths, and white shining cities, and burning skies; convincing as the proof is that the difference between the Spaniard and the literary idea of him is astonishingly great and disappointing, nevertheless we cannot but believe that "something was the matter" with Mr. Warner as well as with the Spanish cows, and that a slight change in the organism (unscientific as it would be) might have modified the environment. After all, it is not Spain present, but Spain past, that one wishes to hear about, and it takes an imaginative rather than a realistic observer to tell us the thing of interest. Whatever be the reason of our distrust of the comprehensiveness of Mr. Warner's story, no one will go to Spain on his recommendation. He concludes his work with an account of the Bayreuth "Parsifal," which seems to have got lost from some other volume and has unexpectedly turned up here, where it has no place.

Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache. Von Dr. F. Kluge. Strassburg: Trübner. 1882–83. Pp. 428. (10.50 marks).

THE introduction to this dictionary contains a brief history of the language. At the end are lists of the Greek, Latin, Italian, French, and English words mentioned in the work. The author accomplishes for German what Skeat attempted to do for English. He gives us a dictionary written according to the soundest scientific methods now recognized, and, after a critical sifting of what is settled and still to be settled, he embodies in his work the results of the investigations of the last fifteen or twenty years. Weigand was growing antiquated very fast, and, in fact, never seriously pretended to give us any connection between old or modern German and Indo-European philology. Skeat, though more ambitious, is not able to go back of Fick and Curtius, who belong to the old school of etymologists, though far in advance of Pott, Benfey, Diefenbach, and others. In fact, as Sweet has pointed out in his review of Skeat's work, the value of this lies mainly in its Middle-English word-tracing. Kluge evidently belongs to the so-called "neuere Richtung" of philologians, to which belong such workers as Leskien, Osthoff, Paul, Braune, Sievers, Hübschmann, Verner, the discoverer of the famous law that explains the last large group of apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law, Sweet in England, and Storm in Scandinavia. It would be out of place here to state their methods and principles, which have been frequently set forth and not unfrequently attacked. They have now gained such a foothold that they can well afford to desist from polemics and point to the results of their methods. Besides their work upon the narrower fields of the individual Germanic and other Indo-European languages, they have obtained important results in the investigations upon metre (Sievers, Vetter), upon accent (Verner), upon ablaut (nearly all of them), in phonetics (Sweet, Sievers, Storm), in the science of language

(Paul's 'Principles of Language-History'). Now comes Kluge with his Dictionary, and we are also promised a Comparative Germanic Grammar by Sievers, a great Compendium by Brugman, that is to supersede Schleicher's, and a Latin Dictionary by Osthoff.

Etymology no longer consists in "radicarian linguistry," as A. J. Ellis calls such speculation in roots, themes, bases, types, as the older philologians indulged in. It is now growing to be a science as strict and exact as any, in so far as it is based upon a phonology which, like a physical science, recognizes no exceptions that cannot in some way or other be accounted for. On the other hand, etymology has still to deal with those subtle and difficult elements in language-growth, viz.: analogy, based upon psychology, and the influence of one language and nation upon another. Kluge's work surprises one with the large amount of institutional and political history which enters into sound etymology without running into the sermons of Trench or the rhetoric of Max Müller. Examine, for instance, such articles as *Ostern*, *Brot* (*Laib*), *Kaiser*, *nackt*, *blind*, *Hagestolz*, *Burg*, *deutsch*, *Gott*, *Käse*, *Gast*, *Hanf*, *Hemd*, *Locke*, *Leiche*, *lesen*, *Mann*, the group formed by *Bursche*, *Haus*, *Frauenzimmer*, *Imme*, *Jugend*, and *Kamerad*. The principle that words are never borrowed singly but in groups is quite evident when we think of the English sporting terms in the languages of the Continent, and the French fashion terms in all modern languages. But it has never been so freely and successfully applied to the older stages of the language as by Kluge. The sailors' language spread from Low German (Dutch chiefly). French furnished gambling terms, *e. g.*, *Daus*, *Pasch*. The Romans, who, according to Pliny, imported German geese extensively, gave the Germans the words *Flaum*, *Kissen*, *Pfühl*, *Pipps*. Weaving terms went with the art of weaving from the Germanic nations to the Romanic, and not vice versa, viz.: *Filz*, *Haspe*, *Rocken*, *Kunkel*. With the introduction of Christianity among the Germanic tribes went the terms pertaining to the Church and faith, either directly from the Latin, or, through the Arian church and Gothic, from Greek. Words are not merely borrowed in groups, but also preserved and even revived in groups, if once they had grown obsolete. Thus a group, viz.: *Kämpe*, *Halle*, *Gau*, *Elf*, *Hain*, *Heim*, *Weigand*, *Wat*, was revived in the eighteenth century, during the influence of English literature, by the patriotic poets. Our oldest words are, of course, those expressing relationship, the names of parts of the body, the numerals (see the introduction).

Kluge is very cautious on slippery ground. He is bold enough to say, "I don't know," or "This is by no means certain," where others know, or think they know. Among English philologians it is still the fashion to make a word Welsh when they are in a dilemma. Kluge has rescued two words from that unknown and therefore safe territory, viz.: *Bruch* and *Hemd*. There are as many as thirty new etymologies, and many more that are partly or largely new; *e. g.*, *gehen*, *beben*, *Graf*, *Hirn*, *Hornisse*, *Degen*, *Gott*, *Amsel*, *Weichbild*. For *Nest*, Pott's view is vindicated. Compare the above words and many others in Kluge's and in other dictionaries, old or new, and it will be clear what an advance there is in the former. The proper names are included. Interesting is, *e. g.*, Bismarck, under *Bistum*, bishopric, from "*bischoves marc*," upon which the estates of the family bordered. The reintroduction of *th* for *d* in English father, mother, hither, Kluge explains as a phonetic transition brought about by *r*. But he does not say how *r* could bring this about. Skeat thinks it due to Scandinavian influence; but is not the last middle-English period a rather late one for that influence? It is due rather to analogy with the more frequent words in *-ther*, several of them old comparatives, *e. g.*, whether, other, brother, nether, wether, feather, leather. Any one having only a meagre knowledge of German can, particularly with the aid of the English word-list, use this dictionary for English also. A number of words, however, are put down as modern English which are hardly so; *e. g.*, coom, cant, therf, hele, mixen. "Chary" (sub *Karg*) does not mean "sad" now. The following cognates in German and English are not marked as such: *erst*, erst; *Flinte*, flintlock; *verloren*, forlorn; *grunzen*, grunt; *jucken*, itch; *hügel*, how; *Kappes*, cabbage; *sengen*, singe; *stottern*, stutter; *tapfer*, dapper; *strotzen*, strut; *taugen*, do; *Schosz*, *Schöszling*, shoot; *Wahn* (in *Wahnsinn*), wan (?), wane; *gewahr*, aware, beware; *Welker*, walker; *Wat*, weeds; *Pferd*, palfrey. The articles on *Star*, *Seide*, *Sprache*, *Seife*, *Ufer*, *dunkel*, *Fenster*, are good examples of how much regard is had for English.

In every respect, Kluge's work combines strict science with popular features. It is a model of conciseness and brevity. There is no learned clap-trap, such as Skeat's list of Aryan Roots, which have still the form that they were supposed to have twenty years ago. Many articles we could wish much longer. The declension of nouns and the ablautseries of the verbs will be missed by many. *Na*, *nu*, *nit*, hardly deserve separate articles. If *Amulet* is given, why not *Nummer*, a word of much older importation? Among the few misprints, the following are annoying: "Price" and "prize," under *Preis*; *Stil* for *Stiel*, under *Halfter*.

Growth of the English Colonies. By Sidney Mary Sitwell. London: Rivingtons. Small 8vo, pp. 125, with index.

THIS is one of the small manuals which have lately been published in England in considerable numbers. It belongs to the series called "Highways of History," and aims at an outline of each selected topic independently of the others. Instead of treating history in the form of annals, or of a general narrative, which necessarily passes back and forth among widely separated places and subjects, this runs through a completed but brief sketch of each colonial settlement made by the mother country, from its first beginnings to the present time. It therefore does not profess so much to be history as a full analysis or table of contents of larger histories, arranged by topics. The method has its valuable uses; for a small handbook of this sort is a convenience to have at one's elbow to verify a date, or give a quick outline of events one may not choose to run down in more elaborate works. The task seems to be carefully and conscientiously done, making a trustworthy little volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbey, H. The City of Success and other Poems. D Appleton & Co.
Armitage, E. Lectures on Painting: delivered to Students of the Royal Academy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Arnold, Matthew. Poems. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Baker, the Rev. W. M. The Ten Theophanies. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Brereton, A. Henry Irving: a Biographical Sketch. Scribner & Welford.
Browne, L., and Behnke, E. Voice, Song, and Speech: a Practical Guide for Singers and Speakers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
Cushman, Rev. G. F. Doctrine and Duty; or, Notes of the Church. Sermons. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Douglas, Amanda M. Floyd Grandon's Honor. A Story. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Dunbar, H. A Complete Concordance to the Comedies and Fragments of Aristophanes. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
Elseffer, Amanda S. Down in the Clover and other Stories. S. W. Green's Son.
Elwell, E. H. The Boys of Thirty-five: a Story of a Seaport Town. Boston: Lee & Shepard, $1.25.
Furneaux, H. The Annals of Tacitus. Vol. I. Books 1-6. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
Gosse, J. A Royal Pastoral and other Poems. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Jephson, Philippa P. An April Day: a novel. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.
Lytton, Earl. The Life, Letters, and Literary Remains of Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton. Part I. Autobiography. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 17, 1884.

The Week.

THE receivership of the North River Construction Company, which was precipitated on Saturday evening by impending attachments upon the West Shore and Buffalo Railway, marks the failure of one of the boldest and most gigantic enterprises of our time. We say failure, not in the sense that the West Shore Road is not an accomplished fact, but because the expected profit in the undertaking has been lost, together with the greater part of the capital of $10,000,000 invested by the construction company. The road itself will remain, and whether it goes to foreclosure and sale under the first mortgage, or whether it remains in the receiver's hands for an indefinite period, it will be a thorn in the side of the New York Central and the entire "Trunk Line Pool." The failure, we are informed, is the consequence of a great miscalculation of the cost of the work. Such miscalculations are not uncommon, but they are less excusable in this case than in those of distant enterprises, where the work is not subject to easy and frequent examination by the responsible heads and financial managers of the undertaking. The road itself is of the first class in every respect. It is probably the best piece of work, in its initial stage, ever done in this country, and its financial breakdown is all the more complete by reason of the thoroughness of its construction, for thoroughness implies cost. Contemplating the magnitude of the enterprise and of the losses which individuals have suffered through the decline of its securities, the reflection is forced upon every candid observer that the West Shore Road was, from a business point of view, unjustifiable and chimerical from the beginning. Building a new double-track railway alongside an existing four-track railway, flanked by two other railways having the same terminal points, was, perhaps, the most daring exploit in the way of railroad competition in our history, or, if matched at all, matched only by the "Nickel Plate" enterprise, which preceded it, the owners of which managed to "work it off" before the hard times came on. The public need not waste their sympathy upon the sort of reckless competition which the Nickel Plate and West Shore Roads exemplify. It is this sort of competition which produces commercial reactions, and intensifies and prolongs them when they come.

There were 9,000 failures last year, with liabilities amounting to $173,000,000, against $100,000,000 for the year previous. This not only makes a bankrupt law more desirable than ever, but makes the passage of one more probable. Bankrupt laws in this country have always been the product of periods of commercial depression, and the present case promises to be no exception to the rule. Never before, however, has there been so much intelligent discussion in advance, which makes it all the more likely that we shall now get a better bankrupt law than any of our former experiments yielded.

A noticeable feature of the financial situation is beginning to show itself in the advancing rates of sterling exchange. The immediate cause of this is the large falling off in the exports of breadstuffs and provisions during the past month, on account of the speculative holding of grain and provisions at the West, and to a large extent, also, by New York speculators. There have already been several failures in New York and California of grain speculators, who have mistaken the situation and overestimated the foreign demand for American wheat. The unwarranted speculation in grain and provisions is, however, largely traceable to the distrust which has prevailed in regard to American railway securities, and to the plethora of unemployed money in the market. Owners of idle capital could see nothing to invest their funds in with confidence except the staple products of the country. The result has been that prices have been kept too high to justify exports, and the recent falling off has made a scarcity of commercial sterling bills against such exports, so that rates of sterling exchange have advanced 2½ cents on the pound since the beginning of the month. An equal further advance would bring the rates to the gold-exporting price.

The defeat of Senator Pendleton may furnish the Democrats with the "issue" they are in search of for the next campaign. It is absorbing the attention of the Democratic newspapers at present, and arguments are brought forward on either side which could not fail of having a powerful influence in a Presidential canvass. On the one hand, the disciples of Pendleton say that his defeat has deprived his party of its only claim to being a reform organization, and that the only way in which this loss can be restored is to "cut off the Ohio Democracy" from the national organization, and give the State over to the Republicans without a struggle. The disciples of Payne, on the other hand, say that Pendleton's election would have dampened the enthusiasm of the "boys" in all parts of the country, for it would have been equivalent to a pledge not to "restore the Government to constitutional principles" by turning out all of the Republican office-holders in case of the election of a Democratic President. They also make it known, in a somewhat indirect way, that Mr. Payne is a Presidential aspirant, and that, if nominated, he would be "good for a half-million contribution to the campaign fund." Meanwhile the discussion of the tariff is deprecated as being premature.

Governor Hoadly's inaugural address shows that he has recovered the mental equilibrium which he enjoyed previous to his remarkable campaign, for it contains some unusually sensible observations. He calls the attention of his party to the increasing power of the independent voters, and intimates pretty plainly that its only chance for success is to follow such a course as will command the support of those voters. He recommends the adoption of a constitutional amendment changing the date of the State election, at least in Presidential years, from October to November, saying very truly that its position as the only October State exposes Ohio to "expense, inconvenience, and possible corruption and degradation of the franchise." On the question of the Scott Liquor Law, he advises against all efforts for its repeal, and recommends only such minor changes as will not conflict with the reasoning upon which the Supreme Court of the State decided it to be constitutional.

Governor Waller, of Connecticut, has devoted a portion of his annual message to some remarks upon the recent failures to discover the authors of atrocious crimes within his State. While expressing his opinion that the outside comment upon these failures has been more severe than the circumstances warrant, he admits that criminals have sometimes been aided in escaping justice by the "loose practice of permitting juries in exciting capital cases to separate two or three times a day during the trial, and to mingle with the public, exposed to all sorts of improper influences." This may account for some of the failures, but the trouble with many of the others lies further back. In several cases the inquiry has never got beyond the coroner's jury, and the failures have been obviously due to the practice of using such a jury as a means of detecting crime. Practically it amounts to an investigation by the whole State. Whatever evidence the jury has is communicated to the reporters, who communicate it in turn to the public, not only of Connecticut, but of the whole country. Ample notice is thus given to all guilty persons of the evidence in possession of the authorities against them. The services of the coroner's jury in capital cases have been abolished with excellent results in Massachusetts, and Connecticut's experience has demonstrated in the most forcible way the desirability of dispensing with them everywhere else.

Congressman Robinson's inquiry about the dress worn by our ministers at the courts of Europe may lead to startling developments. He says he is determined to know "whether our representatives abroad are made to crawl on their bellies in sackcloth and ashes before the potentates" of the Old World, or "whether they are dressing and acting like American citizens." He has been informed that "our representative to Persia had to take off his boots and crawl on his belly in the presence of the Shah," and he considers such conduct beneath the dignity of an American citizen. "Our representative," he adds, "should have applied his boots to the exterior of the Shah, instead of taking them off his feet." That is what Mr. Robinson would call acting like an American citizen. Where he gets his information about our Persian representative's conduct we have no means of knowing, but we trust

that he has been misinformed. Soon after arriving at his post the representative sent an eloquent account of his brilliant and flattering reception by the Persian Court, an account which was subsequently somewhat impaired by the information that, after the reception was well over, he was respectfully but firmly requested to pay for all the handsome presents which had been made him during the ceremonies. We are not prepared to believe that in addition to that embarrassing deception he has been called upon to travel about in the uncomfortable manner described by Mr. Robinson.

Many people have supposed that Mr. W. D. Kelley was wanting in a sense of humor, but this is clearly a mistake. He has written a letter to the Chicago *Journal of Commerce*, in the character of the champion of "free raw material," for which he says "he has done as much, if not more, than any American legislator." But the twinkle appears in his eye when he goes on to say that he does not consider broadcloth raw material, nor scrap iron, nor pig iron, nor steel, nor wool, salt, sugar, lumber, coal, nor iron ore. In fact, he considers nothing raw material which we can by any possibility produce in this country. It looks as if tropical fruits were the only raw material known to him; so that his championship of raw materials is really a very good joke.

Mr. Charles Dudley Warner has written a letter to the Secretary of the American Copyright League on the subject of authors' rights, which the League has printed. It is a strong appeal for an international law on the ground which we have for a long time urged as the only possible basis for a new movement—that of simple justice. Mr. Warner says that what he asks Congress to do is to recognize the right of every literary man to enjoy the fruits of his labor, just exactly as every wool-grower or cattle-raiser does, without regard to whether he is a British or an American subject. We understand that the League wants to try a treaty again; but it makes very little difference whether they try that or an Act of Congress, if they cannot get the public generally to recognize that international copyright is a moral question. Neither the Senate nor the House will take any interest in the matter until the time comes when Americans are just as ashamed to use the old argument about "cheap books" as they would be to recommend stealing from foreigners because it might give us cheap clothes. The difficulty is a moral one.

Judge Barrett's play "An American Wife" has drawn out from an American wife, Mrs. Judge Barrett, a letter in which she insists that this drama was jointly written by the Judge and herself, he writing the "light parts" and she the "serious." The play, she says, was originally called the "Watchword," and the names of both authors appeared on the title page. "An American Wife" has, we believe, not proved a sufficient pecuniary success to justify a lawsuit, which would, however, have been of much interest not only in dramatic, but in legal and matrimonial "circles." A husband has still, we suppose, a right to the products of his wife's services, notwithstanding the married woman's act; and we cannot see why he should not utilize them to make her furnish a serious basis for his dramatic humor, just as well as to do the general housework, if he can. A suit to decide this in the Supreme Court, left to Judge Barrett's brothers on the bench, would have been very interesting.

The Westpoint (Ga.) *Enterprise* very properly corrects the Lafayette (Ga.) *Sun* for a glaringly inaccurate account of the flogging of a school-teacher from the North at Westpoint during the Christmas holidays. It seems that this white man, who teaches a colored school, "took a bright mulatto girl, a pupil of his school," to an amateur dramatic entertainment in that place. Now, the *Sun* said that he "purchased reserved seats, and, his fair companion being of such a white tinge, the managers did not notice the civil-rights performance," but "their attention was called to the matter and the couple was forthwith moved out of the house." "It is useless to add," it went on to say, "that the teacher was of Northern parentage, and a resident of North America, and that he hardly knew himself the next morning, after receiving a sound thrashing by the boys of Westpoint." The *Enterprise* very properly corrects this, and shows that although it is true that the Northern man did "carry a mulatto girl into our opera-house," it is not true that he bought reserved seats. "He purchased two tickets, and he and the mulatto walked to the front part of the hall," but were soon found out and made to sit in the rear, where they remained till the close of the performance. "It is true," adds the *Enterprise*, "that the boys gave him a good whipping, but it occurred just after the show, and not next morning, as the *Sun* says. Now the public have the true facts." This shows how calumnies about the social condition of the South are got up and circulated at the North and elsewhere to prevent emigration to that region. If it had not been for the *Enterprise* it would have gone all over the country that "the boys" whipped a white school-teacher on the following morning for taking a nearly white mulatto girl, one of his pupils, into the Westpoint (Ga.) "opera-house," when the fact was that they whipped him immediately after the performance.

Judge Ferris, of the County Court of Nashville, Tenn., recently made the observation on the bench that the Criminal Court of the same city was "gutting" the County Treasury through the heavy costs incurred by it. On Thursday he met Judge Allen of the Criminal Court, who informed him that his charge was false. They then promptly took each other by the throat, and drew large knives, but were seized by the bystanders and disarmed. There is a good deal of unconscious humor in the remark of the despatch, "Both gentlemen stand high in the community." This is a very common adden dum to accounts of Southern homicides and fights. The writer probably does not reflect that it suggests inevitably to civilized men all over the world the question, What kind of community must it be in which such savages can "stand high" or stand at all?

Judge O. A. Lochrane, who, as attorney for the holders of certain bonds repudiated by their endorser, the State of Georgia, created no little stir several months since by declaring his intention to fix the liability to redeem them upon the United States Government, as that Government really was in control of the State at the time they were endorsed, has just taken another step equally bold and brilliant. It seems that the State of Georgia recently filed a bill in equity, praying that the Judge be required to deliver up to be cancelled deeds to certain property in Atlanta, which should be declared the property of the State, and to pay over to the State the rents and profits from it, which he has been enjoying. The Judge saw here an excellent opportunity for testing the validity of the above-mentioned bonds, some of which he had obtained, before the suit began, from innocent purchasers for value, unaware of their attempted repudiation. A few days since he brought in a cross-bill, setting up the State's indebtedness to him as evidenced by these bonds, and prayed for a decree in his favor against the State. In this cross-bill the entire history of these bonds is given, but the published "interviews" last autumn, which the Judge underwent, have made the public sufficiently well acquainted with the transaction. In his pleading is set out the following resolution, passed by the Legislature of Georgia in 1843, which is to-day curious reading: "Resolved, That we regard the slightest breach of plighted faith, public or private, as an evidence of the want of that moral principle upon which all obligations depend. That when any State in this Union shall refuse to recognize her great seal as the sufficient evidence of her obligation, she will have forfeited her station in the sisterhood of States, and will no longer be worthy of their confidence or respect." Judge Lochrane reminds the State of Georgia that this very pretty resolution was ordered to be transmitted to the Governors of all the States, to be by them laid before their respective Legislatures.

The tragic fate of Mr. Delmonico has called forth a good deal of moralizing about the culpability of those relatives of insane persons who fail to put them under control as soon as the first signs of mental unsoundness show themselves. Most of this moralizing, if not all, of course comes from those who have never had to assume the terrible responsibility of dealing with a case of insanity, and are therefore preaching with inadequate knowledge. But even if it all came from experts, we doubt if it would be of much use to any one who was called on for the first time to decide whether a friend or relative was losing his mental balance. As all alienists tell us, there is no disease whose approaches are so insidious as mental disease, none of which the earliest signs are so slight, and misleading, and varied. Any one who looks for these symptoms in a medical book will find that there is hardly anything a man does, which it is not his habit to do, that may not be and is not often a sign of brain trouble,

however harmless or rational it may seem in itself. Nobody keeps such a watch on an apparently healthy person engaged in the active work of life as to notice these slight aberrations at the very outset, or to attach any importance to them even if they are noticed. Moreover, there is a score of things which may account for such a man's acting a little oddly besides brain disease. There is dyspepsia, which almost always exerts a very powerful influence on temper and conduct, and produces all sorts of strange effects. And there are "business troubles," and "domestic troubles," and social or professional disappointments—all of which are apt, in a greater or less degree, to break into the routine of a man's life, and cause abnormal ways of talking and acting—which may be signs of insanity, but which, as a matter of fact, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, are not. If friends and relatives were to treat them as such, especially in a place like New York, it would convert the city into a huge Bedlam, in which one-half the population would be trying to induce the other half to put itself in charge of keepers.

The real-estate men in this country show but little interest as yet in the movement for the nationalization of land in England. This is because the circumstances of the two countries are so entirely different. The English reformers think that the people ought to get the benefit of what they call the "unearned increment" of land, or the rise in the value caused not by the labor and improvements of the owner or occupier, but by the general increase in population and consequent demand for land. Whatever may be the case in England, with up-town lots in this city, particularly on the west side, while there appears at one time to be an unearned increment, this is replaced a few years later by an unearned shrinkage. With this it is difficult to know what to do. Under our present land system it falls upon the owner, though he is sometimes able to shift it upon the mortgagee. The public, however, occasionally get the benefit of it, through the land being abandoned on account of taxes. No discussion of our land problem will be complete which does not show how the shrinkage as well as the increment is to be dealt with.

Mr. Labouchere has published in *Truth*, as a Christmas "message of peace and good will," what he considers to be the programme of the English Radicals. He is the *enfant terrible* of the Liberal party, but there is no question that his political talk contains more of what the English working-class voters are thinking about than the "safe men" of the Liberal party are willing to admit. He now declares that the Radicals mean to have manhood suffrage, electoral districts, payment of members, a cheap $250,000 monarchy, the abolition of the House of Lords, local government for Ireland, elective county assemblies, radical land reform—making the landlords mere rent-chargers, and forbidding all ownership of uncultivated arable soil—the disestablishment of the Church, free education, both primary and secondary, and direct taxation; the income tax to be progressive, and distinguishing, *à la* Bismarck, between income from labor and income from investments.

Sir Samuel Baker publishes an article in the *Nineteenth Century* on the future of the Sudan, of which he was Governor or Commander for several years. He now predicts dreadful consequences to the peace and order of the region if it be abandoned. The slave-trade, he says, will be revived, and marauding will prevail on a great scale; but he evidently makes little account of the element of religious fanaticism. The difficulty of holding the Sudan owing to the great patch of desert which intervenes between it and Egypt, he does not attempt to minimize, however, but looks to overcoming this by railroad communication. He is evidently a great Jingo, like all the military adventurers, and is strongly opposed to anything like an abandonment by England of any territory once occupied. He still mourns even over the loss of Kandahar.

The denunciation of Henry George by the Irish press, in spite of the adhesion to him of Michael Davitt, furnishes strong confirmation of the opinion we have all along expressed, that his following would in every country be confined mainly to the town population, or in other words to people who neither own nor cultivate any land. His scheme is one of confiscation pure and simple, and, if carried out, would really remove all property from the domain of morals. It is not perhaps for this reason mainly, however, that farmers take no stock in it. Their difficulty is that those who own land want to keep it, while those who cultivate land and do not own it, want to own it. The Irish farmers are just now expecting, after ages of waiting, to become proprietors of their holdings, and are therefore by no means in the mood to surrender them to the state and pay rent on them once more, on Mr. George's assurance that by so doing they will help the human race and solve the labor problem.

The latest news appears to indicate pretty clearly that the Chinese are preparing for war. In fact, the Marquis Tseng has intimated to an interviewer that the real fighting will shortly begin. The Chinese have one distinguished commander, a certain Tso Lung, who did great things both against the Taepings and against the border Tartars, and is described as one of "Plutarch's men"—that is, a person of extreme simplicity and honesty combined with genuine heroism. He believes in China thoroughly, and has for twenty years wielded enormous power, but does not steal a cent, and decapitates everybody whom he suspects of stealing. He is a military commander, too, of a high order. His hatred of women is unbounded, and not only includes his wife, but did include his mother when living. His chief of the staff is an expert executioner, whose presence during councils of war must exert a powerful influence in producing unanimity. The Marquis Tseng intimates that the French will have their bellyful of fighting before all is over.

A French marquis has got into trouble arising out of a colonization scheme known in France as the "Port Breton affair." The Marquis de Rays, about whom little appears to have been known, got up a bogus colony, lands in which he disposed of at five francs a hectare. He appealed to the religion and patriotism of investors, and called upon them never to forget that "France was powerful so long as she remained true to her divine mission." This appears to have been quite enough, and land ran up from 5f. to 20f. in no time. Port Breton is only 7,000 hectares in extent, but as no one knew it but the Marquis, 700,000 were bought, and the purchasers chartered a vessel and started off to colonize it. They did not know either, till they got there, that it was a kind of desert, shut in by high mountains, and that the soil was unsuited for any kind of cultivation or even pasturage. The happy pilgrims, ignorant of all this, went on board, sang a hymn, and set sail. When they reached the colony they found no means of support, and began to die of fever and hunger. The French courts are now looking into the Marquis's case. Experience does not seem yet to have taught the French investor that a man who calls himself a gentleman does not usually try to sell lands in foreign countries through appeals to their love of God and France, unless he is a swindler.

The full text of the treaty between Chili and Peru, as published by the *Herald*, confirms the view that we have always expressed in these columns of the probable success of the Iglesias movement. The one thing that was essential for a lasting peace in South America was that a Government should be set up in Peru which would accept the terms that Chili had won the right to impose by conquest. The attempt which Mr. Blaine made to set up a Government competent to treat proved a terrible failure, because it produced among the Peruvians the impression that the United States was going to dictate the terms, and this induced them and the Calderon "machine" (recognized as the Government by no Power except the United States) to keep up an attitude of bombastic defiance, which Chili brought to an abrupt end by clapping Calderon himself into jail. Then it began to appear that the determination that the Peruvians must die in the last ditch was really a determination arrived at not by the Peruvians, but by our energetic Secretary of State.

The Iglesias treaty contains terms certainly no better than Peru would have got at the close of the war. Tarapaca is ceded absolutely to Chili, and Tacna and Arica are to be occupied by Chili for ten years, at the end of which period there is to be a vote to ascertain whether the inhabitants desire to become Chilians or to remain Peruvians, and the annexing country is to pay the other $10,000,000. Half the guano hereafter produced is to go to the creditors of Peru. These are the main provisions of the treaty, which is reinforced by an additional protocol, giving Chili the right to maintain an army of occupation until its terms are ratified, and binding Peru meantime to maintain the occupying forces by the payment of $300,000 a month.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 9, to TUESDAY, January 15, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

SENATOR EDMUNDS on Monday was reëlected President pro tem. of the Senate by the Republicans. Senator Anthony declined the position on account of the precarious state of his health.

The Senate on Friday passed a bill appropriating $1,000,000 to continue the improvements already begun by the Mississippi River Improvement Commission.

Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, has introduced a bill providing a new scheme for a permanent basis for a bank circulation. Mr. Aldrich would issue a three per cent. bond, and with it redeem the outstanding bonds bearing a higher rate of interest at the market premium. This plan has been advocated by the Comptroller of the Currency. His theory was that the banks would be willing to exchange their four per cents for a new three per cent. at par, having the same time to run, if accompanied with an offer of a premium. The holders of the bonds would receive in the premiums their interest in advance, which would be available for loans at higher rates, while the Government would be able to use some of its surplus to save some interest which it would be compelled to pay later. Moreover, the country would be benefited by having the banks placed on a firmer basis.

The Senate Finance Committee on Tuesday continued the discussion of Senator Sherman's bill authorizing the issue to national banks of currency to the amount of 90 per cent. of the market value of bonds deposited to secure circulation; and Senator Aldrich's bill to facilitate the exchange of the 4 per cent. for 3 per cent. bonds was discussed at considerable length. No decision was reached. During the discussion Senator Sherman proposed an important amendment to his own bill, designed to meet the objection that the measure would base the amount of circulation upon a fluctuating standard. He proposed to authorize the Secretary to issue national bank notes up to 90 per cent. of the face value of the 3 per cent. bonds deposited as security for circulation. Where higher-rate bonds are deposited, he proposed to compute the interest above 3 per cent., and to allow circulation to the amount of 90 per cent. of the aggregate interest over 3 per cent. for the whole time such bonds have to run.

The Senate Committee on Agriculture, of which Mr. Miller of New York is chairman, is considering a bill for the Government inspection of pork, which, if passed, Mr. Miller thinks will do much to remove the opposition of European governments to American pork products. On Wednesday, resolutions were introduced in both Senate and House directing an inquiry into the facts of pork prohibition, and calling for a report as to what legislation is necessary to protect the interests of American citizens.

A bill was introduced in the House of Representatives on Monday by a Kentucky Democrat to repeal the national Civil-Service Law. An effort will be made by the friends of civil-service reform to secure a report as early as possible upon the bill. The Republican friends of the reform are anxious that the Democrats shall have an opportunity to define their position. The majority of the Committee on Civil-Service Reform, to which the bill was referred, unquestionably favor the bill.

It is believed that Mr. Morrison's tariff bill, which is to be presented to the Ways and Means Committee of the House, will propose what is known as a horizontal reduction, of an average of from 20 to 25 per cent., in the whole tariff list. It will contain, besides, provisions to correct some of the crudities of the existing tariff, and will propose some additions to the free list.

Chief Nimmo, of the Bureau of Statistics, reports that the reduction in the average ad-valorem rate of duty on dutiable goods under the new tariff for the quarter ended September 30, 1883, as compared with the corresponding quarter in 1882, was only 2.12 per cent., making due allowance for the changes in the law with respect to the valuations of casings and coverings. The reduction in the average ad-valorem rate of duty on sugar was only 2.7 per cent. for the quarter ended September 30, and somewhat less for the months of October and November. These reductions are much less than was expected.

Representatives of French commerce are becoming alarmed at the threats of reprisals on the part of the United States. Léon Choteau is announced by cable to be on his way to this country for the purpose of appearing at Washington as a lobby agent in opposition to retaliation. Representatives of French houses are already in that city.

The net decrease, owing to the reduction in postage, in the revenues at 140 principal post-offices for the fourth quarter of 1883, as compared with the same quarter of 1882, was $79,948. These offices collect about one-half of the entire postal revenues. The three offices showing the greatest loss were New York, $25,318, Chicago, $11,281, and Boston, $10,455. The largest increase was at Louisville, Ky., where the receipts for the last quarter of 1883 exceeded those of 1882 by $13,163.

Speaker Carlisle has nominated for Regents of the Smithsonian Institution Congressmen Singleton, of Mississippi, Wilson of West Virginia, and Phelps of New York. The last-named is a Republican.

The sentiment among the Democrats in Congress in favor of enacting a national bankruptcy bill seems stronger than it has been for years.

A call for $10,000,000 three per cent. bonds was issued on Saturday afternoon by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The Greely Relief Board will probaby recommend that two vessels be fitted out and sent to the Arctic regions at the opening of the season, in accordance with the views expressed by nearly all of the experts who appeared before the Board.

A caucus of the Republican members of the Iowa Legislature, on Tuesday evening, unanimously renominated Mr. Allison for United States Senator.

The defeat of Senator Pendleton of Ohio for reëlection has caused great dissatisfaction among the best elements of the Democratic party.

Governor Hoadly of Ohio was inaugurated on Monday with very simple ceremonies.

In the State Senate at Albany on Wednesday Mr. Robb introduced a carefully prepared bill amending the charter of New York city. It gives the Mayor, after January 1, 1885, sole power to appoint the successors of all heads of departments and all Commissioners, including the Commissioner of Excise, and all Police Justices and City Marshals, all members of any board or commission, the Commissioner of Jurors, and two Inspectors of Weights and Measures. Every head of department named, except as otherwise provided, shall hold his office for six years. The Mayor can remove the heads of departments, except street-cleaning, for cause, subject to approval by the Governor. A similar bill was introduced in the Assembly.

At Albany on Monday evening the Senate voted to direct its Committee on Cities to investigate the Department of Public Works in this city. The Tammany Senators voted for the resolution. In the Assembly a resolution directing that a special committee of five be appointed for the same purpose was carried on Tuesday. It is to report results and recommendations before March 15.

Considerable dissatisfaction with Speaker Sheard's standing committees of the New York Assembly is expressed. The Young Republicans who have been sent to the rear by the "old-timers" make no pretence of concealing their disapproval. The complaint is made that the organization has been used to restore to a position of influence men who have been condemned by the popular voice, and for the purpose of pressing on this session measures which have never found favor in Albany except among the jobbing element of successive Legislatures. Mr. Roosevelt, Chairman of the Committee on Cities, was displeased with the appointment of a clerk to his Committee without consulting him, and wholly without his knowledge. The matter was arranged on Monday to suit him.

In the Assembly on Friday a Prohibitory Constitutional Amendment was introduced, and the Speaker referred it to the Committee on Internal Affairs.

The report of the Railroad Commissioners of this State was sent to the Legislature on Monday. As to freight rates and transportation, a full account is given of the Board's labors. The complaints received have less to do with excessive rates than with other alleged abuses, such as unjust discriminations manifested against individuals in the giving of special rates and against communities located at non-competitive points. The Board issued 12,000 circulars calling for statements of complaints and abuses. About one hundred replies were received, of which a large number "alleged satisfaction with the existing condition of affairs." The report gives a detailed account of the proceedings of the Board in investigating the question of pro rata freight rates. The matter is to be further investigated.

The New York State Superintendent of Public Works, in his annual report, strongly advocates the protection of the Adirondack forests.

The New York Court of Appeals met on Monday in its new rooms in the State Capitol at Albany for the first time. A resolution from the New York Bar Association was presented, requesting the Judges to wear robes of silk. They will consider the matter.

The message of Mayor Edson, of this city, transmitted to the Board of Aldermen on Thursday, was a long and uninteresting document, summarizing the work of the various city departments, and making few recommendations of any moment. He asks for hearty coöperation in the work of the city Civil-Service Commission.

Leon Abbett was inaugurated Governor of New Jersey on Tuesday at Trenton. In his inaugural address he advises a radical reform of the tax laws, and the abolition of the contract system of State-prison labor.

The Texas Legislature has met in extra session. The Governor's message deals principally with remedies for the fence-cutting war. He recommends that fence-cutting be made a penitentiary offence; also that a penalty be imposed for fencing off the residence or land of another.

Governor Murray, of Utah, in his message to the Territorial Legislature, says: "Marriage should be made by law a civil compact, to be entered into only by persons competent, and the contract valid only as between one man and one woman. Any other marriage, under any circumstances, should be declared void from the beginning. Should individuals, denominations, or associations desire to impose any other additional requirements or solemnities upon the civil contracts, they should be regarded as religious obligations only, not to be enforced or annulled by process of the civil laws."

The North River Construction Company, which built the New York, West Shore and Buffalo Railway, was put in the hands of a receiver on Saturday evening, on the application of the President of the New Jersey and New York Railroad. Chancellor Runyon,

of Newark, N. J., appointed Judge Ashbel Green the receiver. General Edward F. Winslow, the President of the company, said: "The application was made in the interest and for the protection of both creditors and stockholders of the company, for the purpose of holding intact the assets of the company, among which is more than $20,000,000 of the stock of the New York, West Shore and Buffalo Railway Company, constituting a majority of its whole capital stock."

George De B. Keim was on Monday elected President of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company, to succeed Mr. F. B. Gowen.

A passenger train on the Erie narrow-gauge road was set on fire by oil upon the track near Bradford, Pa., on Tuesday. Of the forty passengers on board three were burned to death and fifteen seriously injured, some of them fatally.

A great gale and storm prevailed along the coast on January 8 and 9, doing serious damage to shipping, and wrecking a number of fine piers.

The trial of James Nutt for the murder of N. L. Dukes, his father's murderer, was begun at Pittsburgh, Pa., on Monday.

Funeral services in memory of Herr Lasker, the German Liberal, were held in this city on Thursday. President Andrew D. White, of Cornell, made an address in English, and Mr. Carl Schurz in German. On Saturday the body was placed on the steamer *Neckar*, for conveyance to Germany.

The body of Mr. Charles Delmonico, the noted restaurant proprietor of this city, who had been missing for some time, was found on Orange Mountain, New Jersey, on Monday. He had evidently died from exposure. His mind had been weakened by business cares.

Mrs. Valeria Stone died in Malden, Mass., on Tuesday. She gave to colleges and for public purposes, during her life, about $2,000,000.

The late Julius Hallgarten, of this city, bequeathed $50,000 to Dartmouth College, $50,000 to the University of the City of New York, and $58,000 to various charitable institutions.

William Morton, the Arctic explorer, died at Sitka, Alaska, on December 31. He was a member of the Grinnell polar expedition of 1849, of Dr. Kane's Franklin expedition when he discovered the open polar sea, of Dr. Hall's *Polaris* expedition, and was rescued, after the wreck of that ship, from an open boat at sea.

FOREIGN.

The display of energy at the Woolwich Arsenal, England, and the arrival there of immense stores such as are required by an army on the march, have given rise to the belief that the English Cabinet will soon decide to despatch reinforcements to the army in Egypt. The Economic Committee, recently appointed by the Khedive, recommends the discharge of fifteen hundred native officials. Abd-el-Kader, the Minister of War, estimates that the evacuation of the Sudan will occupy seven months' time and involve an expenditure of $5,000,000.

Nubar Pasha, the new Egyptian Premier, assumed his office on Wednesday. His ministry is popular in Cairo. Steps were immediately taken for the evacuation of the Sudan. A military commission under Sir Evelyn Wood will arrange the movements. It is thought that one year will be required to completely withdraw the Egyptian troops. The French press attack the policy of England in abandoning the Sudan, and it is asserted that Prime Minister Ferry believes that the present is a good time for France to regain her position in Egypt, but his Cabinet disagree with him.

The city of Khartum is now considered lost to Egypt. Col. Coetlogon telegraphed the Khedive on Saturday for instant orders to retreat. Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Prime Minister, telegraphed an order that all the Christian population should leave Khartum, but that the garrison should remain until further news should be received relative to the advance of the forces under El Mahdi. The main body of El Mahdi's troops, numbering seventy thousand or more, was on Sunday reported advancing upon Khartum. The Egyptian Minister of War will go to that city to superintend the evacuation. El Mahdi demands $10,000 ransom for four nuns and five priests whom he holds captives. On Monday the report was received that the rebels had burned and sacked Heluan.

Despatches from Khartum on Tuesday reported that the people on both sides of the Blue Nile had declared for El Mahdi. All communication with Sennaar has been stopped. Steamers sent to convey troops and despatches to Sennaar have returned after having gone a short distance. Another alarming rumor on that day was that Sheikh Senussi was advancing to join El Mahdi. If this report is true, Egypt is in the greatest danger, because the influence of Senussi extends along the whole North African littoral to Egypt, throughout the Syrian Desert, and among the Arab tribes bordering upon the Suez Canal. From Tripoli to Dongola, or to Alexandria, is only fifteen to twenty days' camel march.

The British military authorities having refused permission to General ("Chinese") Gordon to proceed to the Congo River, he has been compelled, at great pecuniary sacrifice, to resign his commission in the British army in order to fulfil an engagement with the King of the Belgians. He goes to the Congo in a fortnight, principally to suppress the slave trade in the district where the Sudanese slavers mainly procure their supplies. His resignation has not yet been accepted.

Despatches received from Hong Kong on Wednesday reported that an explosion, which occurred at Hanoi on December 28, destroyed two batteries of French artillery. Two thousand Anamites attacked a French post, which was held by fifty marines. After several hours of hard fighting, the enemy retired with the loss of 100 in killed and wounded.

The Marquis Tseng is living quietly at Folkestone, England, and is very bitter about the Franco-Chinese affair. He asserts that all accounts of French victories in Tonquin have been overdrawn. He says that at Hunghoa the French will find a sufficient force of Chinese to give them a proper reception. The capture of Sontay has, he claims, strengthened the war party in China. On Saturday it was asserted in Paris that direct negotiations between China and France would soon be resumed on the basis of a new frontier in Tonquin and amnesty for the Black Flags. China is also to guarantee the free navigation of the Songka River to Laokay. A Berlin newspaper on the same day published a decree by the Emperor of China, urging upon his troops an energetic resistance to the aggressions of the French.

French advices from Pekin, received on Sunday, reported that a mob was threatening to burn the Catholic churches and mission-houses, and that the feeling of the Chinese populace was all for war. The movements of Chinese military forces are incessant, and it is calculated that over 200,000 Chinese troops are now armed with Remington rifles. The authorities of the province of which Canton is the capital are vigorously preparing for war. Six thousand Chinese troops have been sent to Hainan. Barges have been sunk in the Canton River to block up the channel. A decisive battle is expected soon at Bacninh. Tuduc, formerly King of Anam, is reorganizing the insurgents.

At a dinner given on Monday evening in Madrid to free-trade leaders to celebrate the conclusion of commercial treaties between Spain and various countries, speeches were made in which great stress was laid upon the beneficial effect the provisional treaty made with America will have upon Spanish trade.

In a conversation upon Spanish political affairs, Señor Castelar recently said: "Like the majority of Spanish Republicans, I am favorable to free trade as a means of improving our relations with England, France, and the United States. These are our natural friends. The English-speaking races on both sides of the Atlantic have no better friend in Europe than myself, even though I have sometimes dissented from their foreign policy."

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday Señor Castelar condemned King Alfonso's visit to Germany, declaring that it was inopportune and imprudent, betraying as it did hostility to France.

By invitation of King Alfonso, the Comte and Comtesse de Paris went to Madrid on Saturday, and were warmly received at the royal palace.

The Russian Senate has decided to endeavor to obtain an immediate abrogation of the anti-Jewish laws which were passed in May, 1882.

The Russian budget for 1884 estimates a deficit of 3,406,662 rubles (about $2,843,000), which the Government proposes to cover by a new tax.

General Ratislav-Andreievitch Fadeyev, Russian Director of Roads and Canals, is dead, at the age of fifty-eight. He was the author of two works on Pan-Slavism which attracted much attention throughout Europe in 1860 and 1870. In the latter he advocated the protection of the Slavs, the partition of Austria, and a war with Germany.

Documents have been seized by the Russian police showing that a revolutionary league exists at Moscow among the students. There is a story in circulation in St. Petersburg that Jablovsky was one of the planners of the recent attempt on the Czar when hunting.

It is asserted that the officials in St. Petersburg have obtained possession of a letter in cipher, which was found in the lodgings of a Nihilist in London who had been closely communicating with Irish malcontents. The letter, it is believed, advises simultaneous attack upon the Emperor William of Germany and the Czar of Russia.

The system of boycotting has been revived in County Mayo, Ireland.

The *Irish Times*, of Dublin, intimates that the tour of Henry George and Michael Davitt through England and Scotland has been abandoned, owing to the hostility of one section of the Irish party to Mr. George.

The White Star Steamer *Celtic* arrived at Queenstown on Monday in tow of the *Britannic*. She had been out from New York thirty one days, struggling under sail, her main shaft being broken.

Mr. James Russell Lowell has accepted the Presidency of the Birmingham and Midland Institute, England, for 1884.

There was much excitement on the Stock Exchange of Glasgow, Scotland, on Tuesday, owing to the decline in values of the leading English and Scottish railway and Canadian securities.

Rosa Bonheur, the celebrated painter, who has been very ill, has recovered her health.

At the annual meeting on Thursday of the Montreal Corn Exchange Association, perhaps the most important trade organization of that city, resolutions were passed to the effect that it is the true interest of farmers, flour-millers, the grain trade, and the people at large to abolish all taxes on breadstuffs, and to establish untrammelled interchange of natural productions between Canada and the United States.

THE PROPOSED WINE RETALIATION.

THE suggestion made by M. Simonin, the French economist, in protesting against the exclusion from France of American pork, that the Americans would probably retaliate by excluding French wines, appears likely to be taken seriously by some people over here. The Boston Produce Exchange has actually adopted a resolution calling on Congress to pass a bill restricting or prohibiting the importation into this country of such products of the manufacturers of France and Germany "as are injurious to citizens of the United States; and particularly to restrict or prohibit the importation of the wines of those countries." What gives piquancy to this resolution is, that the preamble frankly acknowledges that the prohibition of the importation of American pork by the French and German Governments is not, as pretended, a sanitary measure, but a measure of "protection to their home industry," and therefore "an unjust discrimination against American production." This, from a body who are probably nearly all Protectionists, is what Mr. Squeers used to call "richness."

The project has so many of the marks of foolishness that it is not easy to say which one is the most conspicuous. In the first place it seeks to punish American wine drinkers for the sins of German and French pork-butchers. But it will fail to do this unless means can be found to prevent the importation of German and French wines through English merchants. France imports wines from Italy, Spain, Switzerland, Hungary, and California. Who is to determine what portion of the wine she sends to England is of her own growth, and therefore to be prohibited? What right have we to ask the English merchant where he bought his wine? The only way to make the retaliation effective would be to prohibit the importation of all adulterated wines, and then to station a corps of analytical chemists at every port to examine every cask and bottle that comes in. But this would not answer the purpose, because it would admit German and French wines that are found to be pure, and it is notorious that the Rhine wines of Germany are pure when they leave the place of production, the Government exercising, in the interest of German consumers, extreme vigilance to prevent adulteration. Moreover, the amount of German wines imported into this country is a mere trifle, and the loss of the trade would never be felt on the other side of the water except in the way of making Rhine wines a trifle less costly to the bloated aristocrats of Germany, who are our real enemies in this matter.

Again, it is to be observed that the proposed retaliation proceeds upon the idea that the exclusion of our hog products by Germany and France is a measure of protection to home industry, and not for the protection of health at all. If it is in reality a sanitary measure, they have a right to do what they have done. If it is, as we believe, a measure to protect the native pork producer against American competition, then we are bound to show that we have no laws protecting our own producers in any line of trade against the competition of German and French producers. It would be ludicrous to attempt anything of the sort, because we not only protect our cloth, silk, iron, and steel manufacturers against theirs, but we make a boast of it, and claim great merit for doing so. Senator Van Wyck is right in proposing to amend the law of retaliation so that it shall apply only to countries against whose products we have no duties levied for other purposes than revenue. Let us first cast out the beam from our own eye. But is it not rather a late hour for us to discover that French and German wines are adulterated? How have we found it out at all—by resolution of the Chicago Board of Trade, or by act of Congress, or by the inner consciousness of free-born citizens? If we are to retaliate, let us do so by some decent method. Let the National Academy of Sciences be called in to examine the wines of France and Germany which commonly reach our ports, and tell us what proportion are deleterious to health and how deleterious they are. Let us at least observe all the forms of respectability which these countries have observed before we imitate their folly. The truth is, that Germany and France injure themselves by excluding a cheap and necessary article of food far more than we can injure them by excluding their wines. The proper thing for us to do is first to make up a case establishing conclusively the wholesomeness of our exported hog products, as it is easy to do, and then inform those governments that their action is noted as unjustifiable and unfriendly. If any government can afford to make a permanent enemy of the United States for the sake of gratifying its own swineherds, let it do so and welcome.

MR. HEWITT'S EXPLANATION.

WE do not think Mr. Hewitt ought to have been condemned, even if he had called on the British Minister for the express purpose of telling him not to mind the O'Donnell resolution of the House of Representatives. Anybody who took any part in procuring the passage of that remarkable document, indeed, owed it to himself to tell everybody concerned that it was simply a bit of bunkum, which was never intended or expected to have any effect beyond pacifying the administrators of the Irish skirmishing fund. No public man in America of Mr. Hewitt's standing ought to have been expected to act as if he took the proceeding seriously, or to abstain from letting the British Minister know that it was a comedy.

Where Mr. Hewitt, in our eyes, lays himself open to just censure is in his attempting to show that there was some serious basis for the resolution in the nature of a precedent, or that it called for the discharge of a duty which the Government really owes to its citizens residing abroad. He said on Saturday:

"I observe that the newspapers criticise the resolution which I offered, from a mistaken idea that I proposed to interfere with the course of justice because O'Donnell was an Irishman. This is a mistake. I hold, with Marcy, Webster, and Seward, that the Government is bound to protect its citizens in their rights in a foreign country; and the right to be hanged according to law, and not in contravention to it, is just as sacred as any other."

But he does not hold with Marcy, Webster, or Seward at all, or rather Marcy, Webster, and Seward do not hold with him. His resolution asked the Government to procure a postponement of the execution of a foreign court, not because any wrong had been committed in the course of O'Donnell's trial, but in order to enable it to examine the proceedings, to see whether any wrong had been committed. In other words, the resolution asked the Executive to claim for itself the right to review the proceedings of British criminal courts in all cases in which the defendants claimed American citizenship. None of the eminent men whose authority Mr. Hewitt cites ever did, or, we venture to say, ever thought of doing, anything so preposterous. The rational American ground on such matters was clearly stated by Mr. Marcy in 1855, when he wrote: "All that we demand of Austria—and this we can demand as right—is that in her proceedings against American citizens for offences committed within her jurisdiction, she should give them the full and fair benefit of her system, and deal with them as she does with her own subjects, or with those of other foreign Powers." "Her system" was at that time a despotic system, and her jurisprudence differed widely both in substance and form from our own. This rule applies, therefore, *à fortiori*, to Great Britain. All that we have a right to ask of her with regard to the treatment of Americans accused of crimes within her borders, is simply all that we should permit her to ask, under like circumstances, of us—viz., a fair trial according to her laws. We were bound to presume that O'Donnell had such a trial till the contrary was shown. Mr. Hewitt had no reason for supposing that he had not had it, and has alleged none. The prisoner was defended by able counsel, who in no way impeached the procedure, and raised no point in arrest of judgment. What bothered them was what bothers the defence in all criminal cases—namely, the evidence. The only thing, in fact, which O'Donnell had to complain of was the jury's having believed the testimony produced by the Crown.

What Mr. Hewitt's resolution meant, therefore, if it meant anything, was that when the American Government did not like an English verdict against an American citizen, there ought to be a new trial. The notion that eminent lawyers, like Marcy, Seward, and Webster, ever put forward such a claim, or gave it any countenance, would hardly be worth examination if the use of their names in connection with this business was not likely—by giving an air of seriousness to the interference of the House on O'Donnell's behalf—to help the Irish advocates of murder and arson in the monstrous game of deception which they are practising on their poor countrymen. It is this which makes the whole transaction so pitiful. If Mr. Hewitt and his fellow-Representatives consider it consistent with their self-respect and their respect for their countrymen to get their Government to put forward ridiculous pretensions

in behalf of a murderer, it is bad enough, but it is not irremediable. They will get their deserts from the sober judgment and from the conscience of the American people. What we most complain of is, that they should needlessly go through a performance which is likely to increase the power of the apostles of assassination over the poor Irish in the United States, and give a sort of respectability to the truly infernal schemes by which the Irish cause has, during the last three years, been disgraced both at home and abroad. There are no worse or more cruel enemies of that cause than Americans who, either for their own amusement or for political gain, lead the Irish who give money so freely to the dynamiters to believe that the people of the United States put men like Joe Brady or O'Donnell in the noble list in which the names of Sarsfield, Emmett, Wolfe Tone, Flood, Grattan, and O'Connell, Kosciuszko, Kossuth, and Mazzini are enrolled.

ANOTHER SOLUTION OF THE MORMON DIFFICULTY.

THE Mormon problem came up again on Friday for discussion in the Senate, apropos of a bill introduced by Mr. Cullom, of Illinois, for the reorganization of the Territory of Utah. The reorganization this time is to make the Government consist of a Governor and Council of nine members, appointed by the President, who are to be citizens of the Territory. How this is to overthrow the moral authority of the Mormon Church, which is the root of the whole Mormon trouble, Mr. Cullom did not explain. He denounced the Mormons vigorously, as all the orators do, but his principal charge against them was that they disliked the United States Government, and imported paupers from Europe whom they taught to hate it too. To remedy this state of things, we must, he said, take from the Mormons all legislative power and put it into the hands of a council of nine appointed by the President, which would even be "an act of mercy to these misguided people, and would release them from the domination of their priesthood."

Mr. Cullom was followed by Mr. Brown, of Georgia, whose remarks will well repay the perusal of all sober-minded persons. He did what seems at this juncture to be very necessary—and that is, remind the people of the United States that our organized Territories are, like the States, inhabited by citizens of the United States, and that citizens of the United States have to be governed constitutionally, as long as they are not in a state of armed revolt. Now the Constitution prescribes that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, or held to answer for an infamous or capital crime without the presentment of a Grand Jury, or be punished without a trial before a jury of the vicinage, or be made the victim of a bill of attainder or of an *ex-post facto* law. It does not make any exception in the case of polygamists or bigamists, or priest-ridden people, or people who hate the United States, or who import foreign paupers. The provisions of the United States Constitution regarding the punishment of crime are not, in fact, intended wholly or mainly for the protection of the godly and well-disposed, but of the ill-conditioned, obnoxious people whom their neighbors would like to bring to justice. A large proportion of the white population at the South to-day—perhaps the bulk of its governing class—dislike the United States Government, and teach their children to dislike it; but would any sane man now propose for this reason to disfranchise them, or visit them with legal punishment of any kind? Probably two-thirds of our Irish are as priest-ridden as the Mormons, and as much disposed to put the spiritual above the temporal power, and as much occupied with non-American politics as the Mormons, and much less orderly and industrious; but would any rational person propose to cure these evils by taking the suffrage away from Irish Catholics?

A great deal of the talk about the Mormon difficulty, in fact, seems to be based on an idea which originated we know not where, that it is open to Congress to outlaw a whole community, in a time of profound peace, because some members of it commit a particular offence with the connivance or approval of others, or because the majority of the people of the United States dislike their religious opinions or the power of their church government. Some have even gone so far as to think that the President can declare martial law and send troops in order to extirpate unchastity in a particular district. But all this is a mischievous hallucination. The Mormons have done nothing which entitles us under the Constitution to punish them collectively. There is only one offence known to the United States Constitution which enables Congress or the Executive to inflict disabilities on a community *en bloc*, and that is armed rebellion. In time of peace we have no right to take away one man's vote because another man has too many wives, or punish him in any way because he has too much respect for his priests, or because we do not like his Bible. The great principle of this Government is that each man shall suffer for his own crimes only, and shall not suffer at all in time of peace without due process of law.

We are clearly on the wrong tack about Mormons and their polygamy. What social and material progress will not do to extirpate polygamy must be done by moral means. As Senator Brown very properly remarked, "the Christian Church is the true medium to deal with the Mormon question. Millions of dollars are sent out yearly to convert the polygamists of India and China to Christianity. Some of this money spent at home, among people who speak our language, might result in producing a great change in the condition of the Mormon problem." These are words of soberness and truth, and it is high time they began to be listened to. Wholesale punishment for obnoxious opinions, by what are essentially acts of attainder, is a dangerous precedent to introduce into the conduct of our Government, even if it could succeed in making the 12,000 Mormon polygamists give up their extra wives.

The most curious feature of the anti-Mormon crusade has been pointed out by Mr. James W. Barclay, an English member of Parliament, in the *Nineteenth Century*. He maintains that the hostility to the Mormons among Americans is in the inverse ratio of knowledge of them. The further East he went the greater he found it. He was deeply moved by the wonders wrought in the Utah Valley by Mormon industry, and by the beauty and comfort of Utah villages compared to the ordinary Western settlements elsewhere. He says that "the government of Utah by Mormons might be accepted as a pattern by many other States in the Union"; that "in no State or Territory are the taxes so moderate"; that there is no bonded debt in the Territory except $35,000 issued to build an irrigating canal; that the people have built 10,000 miles of irrigating canal to make their soil capable of the abundant productiveness which now characterizes it; that they are "tolerant, temperate, peaceable, and industrious"; that although the great bulk of the population is Mormon, in the city prison in 1881 there were 29 convicts, and in the county prison 6 convicts, but only 9 of them Mormons. In the penitentiary there were 51 convicts, but only 5 of them Mormons, and of these 2 were there for polygamy. Out of 125 prisoners in the lockup, 11 only were Mormons, and some of these for polygamy. The returns of arrests in Salt Lake City in the same year showed 169 Mormons against 851 Gentiles or Christians. Polygamy, Mr. Barclay insists, is already rare, and must die out soon altogether, and he denounces the Eastern fury against the Mormons as ferocious, and ignorant, and unreasonable, if not Pharisaical. This may be a rosy view, but it is worth consideration. A people who have done what the Mormons have done are not a worthless lot with whom it is vain to reason, and who can only be reformed by being knocked on the head.

THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND—II.

LONDON, December 22.

AT the basis of the social movement in England lie (as I pointed out in my last letter) two ideas. The first is the sentiment that it is a public duty to insure to all classes of the community a fair share in the material benefits, and even in the pleasures, to be derived from the wealth of the nation; the second is the conviction that the nation can best perform this duty by using the power of the state for the regulation of matters which in England have been hitherto managed by the free and voluntary action of individuals. If any one likes to say that these ideas savor of "socialism," I do not know that he will be far wrong. But it is not my purpose, at the present moment, either to attack or to defend notions which, whether false or true, or (what is more likely) partly false and partly true, assuredly exert great influence. I note their existence, and try as far as in me lies to trace out the causes or conditions of their prevalence. To do this with perfect success would be to account for the growth of what I have termed the social movement. Of achieving such success I have myself no hopes. All I hope to do is to call the attention of your readers to some few of the conditions of a noteworthy state of public opinion. I shall, for to-day, confine myself to the inquiry, What are the circumstances which have, in the England of to-day, aroused among the well-to-do classes an unwonted and, as far as English history goes, unprecedented interest in the welfare of the poor?

Before I attempt an answer to this inquiry, let me once more impress upon your readers the

existence of a condition of feeling which needs explanation, and which has not attracted all the attention it deserves. It is not a speculative view, but a matter of plain fact, that the present generation of Englishmen, and still more of Englishwomen, are influenced by a desire—in some cases amounting to a passion—for extending among the poor and the helpless the benefits and joys of civilized life. Any sceptic who doubts this should note with care many trifles which, just because they are trifles, are the straws that show which way the wind blows. Of these significant facts the approaching Bank holiday is one. This is an age of pressure. Teachers of all kinds warn us, with more or less reason, against over-work and against over-competition. Yet this busy, overpressed, excited generation have been the first generation of Englishmen to realize the necessity of securing holidays for every class of worker. The Bank holidays are merely the largest and most obvious of the many hours or days of rest which the benevolence or the public spirit of the wealthy have procured for the mass of the people. Any one who observes the habits of private families will admit that there has, during the last forty or fifty years, grown up a new feeling as to the amount of recreation and of holidays which ought to be provided for servants. Any stranger who walks through the streets of London or Manchester on a Saturday will find, often to his considerable inconvenience, that the Saturday half-holiday is in many trades becoming a custom enforced by opinion with the inflexibility of law. But this care for the repose and recreation of large classes is, for the present purpose, not by any means so striking a phenomenon as the various efforts made, often in rather unexpected quarters, to cast some ray of happiness over the dull or miserable lot of the children of the city poor. The society for giving dinners to poor children; the proposal advocated in the papers of a day or two back by Mrs. Westlake—certainly as practical and sensible a reformer as you can find—for providing rooms and amusements for infants who are necessarily left uncared for while their parents go out from home to obtain a scanty livelihood by hard labor, tell their own tale.

Let no one say that benevolence has always existed in every Christian country. The point to notice is, not the existence of benevolence, but the form in which it exists. There have been good men and good women in all ages who have wished well to their fellows and have labored for their benefit. The proportion, indeed, of such persons to the whole of society has considerably varied, and is, one may suspect, a good deal larger now than heretofore. But what is really new is, that benevolence has taken the shape of attempts to increase not only the comforts but the pleasures of the poor; and, further, that this sympathy with the miseries of poverty displays itself in quarters in which you would in vain have sought for it in other ages. Take, for example, the zeal with which the editor of *Truth* collects and spends money on presents of toys for children who, but for him, would probably have never known more of a toy than can be learned by peering through the windows of a toy shop. A cynic might suggest that the proprietor of *Truth* only follows the fashion. The suggestion would be, as far as my present argument goes, irrelevant: fashion, like hypocrisy, is a tribute to genuine feeling. But the suggestion would also, in all probability, be grossly unjust. I have no acquaintance with Mr. Labouchere; I am no admirer either of his politics or his paper. But I cannot see the least reason to suppose that a genuine pleasure in the joys of children, and a genuine wish to lighten up the lives of poor children, is not the actuating motive to exertions which must bring the blessings of many uncared-for little boys and girls on a paper which has probably not been overmuch blessed by any one else. Look at the matter from whatever side you will, the presents made by *Truth* are worthy of note. That now dull and respectable paper, the *John Bull*, held some sixty years ago or more a position not unlike that of *Truth* and the *World*. Theodore Hook was not, one may suppose, a personally ill-natured fellow; yet does any one think it possible that a hunt through the files of the *John Bull*, while under his editorship, would reveal a single appeal for means to provide Christmas gifts for the children of the poor? It is surely a sign of the times when the editor of a society paper seeks to imitate Jean Valjean, and give to a poor child his or her first taste of the joys of childhood.

The name of Victor Hugo recalls one main influence which has contributed to produce the state of feeling that I have tried to indicate or describe. If we seek for the source of the constantly increasing sympathy with the poor, we shall find it, to a great extent at least, in the general growth and development of the sympathetic sentiment throughout modern European society. And this turn of feeling has been at once stimulated and represented by the literature, and especially by the fiction, of the last half century. Here, as in other cases, the effect of a long course of teaching is most visible when the teachers have passed away, and when possibly modes of thought opposed to theirs are beginning to exert a new ascendency. Victor Hugo survives, but has not left a successor. Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Charlotte Brontë, Mrs. Gaskell, Trollope are now names of the past, and it cannot be said that the noble school of English novelists is now represented by any one who rises above respectable mediocrity. But these authors and others whose names will occur to your readers, though differing in many respects, have all at bottom agreed in one point: they have all preached a gospel of sympathy. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that with George Eliot the merits and demerits of man and woman were judged of wholly by the one test, whether he or she were able to feel for the woes and joys of others. It would not be hard to establish that this appeal to feeling which characterizes the fiction, is also a chief feature in the theology and in the ethics of the last half century. There is no author to be found who obviously desires more truly to base his moral views on fact and on science than does Mr. Leslie Stephen; yet the moral impressed upon readers by his 'Science of Ethics' is the duty of sympathy, and that, as far as man is concerned, love is the strongest force in the universe.

Nor can it in truth be said that the tendency to exalt feeling, and especially sympathetic feeling, has been opposed by any class of writers who have exerted wide influence. Carlyle looks, at one's first glance, like the resolute assailant of all sentiment or sentimentality. But he denounces one kind of feeling only by giving prominence to another. He does not urge or naturally lead his readers to trust in reason or in knowledge. He is at bottom more truly a sentimentalist than George Eliot, and quite as truly as Dickens. In truth, the admiration of Dickens for Carlyle, and Carlyle's appreciation of Dickens's gifts, are something much more than a mere trait of literary biography. They show how slight was the essential difference between the different forms in which the sentiment of modern England has displayed itself. Dickens did Carlyle's 'Revolution' into melodrama and dubbed it the 'Tale of Two Cities.' Carlyle was never weary of attacks on administrative routine, which were all summed up in Dickens's one expression, the "Circumlocution Office"; and there is nothing in the political economy of 'Hard Times' which was not concentrated by Carlyle into the nickname of the "dismal science." These two eminent writers represented and intensified two sides of what was really the current feeling of their age. They each, in common with a score of other more or less unconscious fellow-workers, promoted the development of sympathy. Their work has lived after them, and one may fairly assert that the existing generation of men and women in England have a capacity for entering imaginatively into the feelings of others (combined, unfortunately, with an even greater capacity for analyzing their own feelings) which hardly existed a hundred or even fifty years ago. If any one doubts this, let him study Fielding or Richardson, or Scott or Miss Burney, or Miss Edgeworth or Miss Austen. If he will go candidly through the not very unpleasant task, he will, I venture to say, easily conclude that while in genius, or even in talent, modern Englishmen are, to say the least, not a whit in advance of their fathers or grandfathers, modern Englishmen have developed a capacity for sympathetic emotion which was unknown even to the most imaginative of past generations. My student will also perceive that in nothing is this new gift or capacity more visible than in the altered attitude of English society toward the poor. The side of modern feeling, in short, is one phase or exhibition of a general mode of sentiment.

Another, though subordinate, cause of the widespread belief that all members of the community have a moral right to share in the material comforts of life, is to be found in the character of modern theological and religious teaching. It is easy to understand how it happens that many persons of education consider this to be an age of theological scepticism; but whoever looks facts in the face will, I am convinced, come to the conclusion that, whatever may be the ultimate issue of the long battle, of which no one living will see the end, between orthodoxy and scepticism, modern Englishmen are, in matter of fact, deeply influenced by religious and theological ideas. Now, nothing is more clear than that English theology has in one respect undergone a change or transformation. There probably is no clergyman or minister of any school who, whatever his beliefs as to the next world, does not attach a moral importance to the material conditions of life in this world which had hardly pressed itself upon the minds of the religious teachers who, at the end of the last, or the beginning of this century, moulded the moral aspirations of Englishmen. There has been a great deal of exaggeration in the charge of "other-worldliness" brought against men whose highest thoughts and strongest feelings were centred on the prospects of man in the next world. We should never, in common justice, forget that in England plans of practical benevolence or of extended philanthropy were forced upon the world mainly by men who were thought, by themselves and others, to be wholly occupied in saving men from ruin in the next world. But it cannot be doubted, nor is it in any way to the discredit of religious teachers, that the theological leaders of past generations did not look upon life in this world in the same light as do their modern representatives. To "speak as dying unto dying men" may have been a fair description of preachers who, even when trying to amend what was wrong in this life, were oppressed with the one thought, that their hearers must at all costs be saved from eternal perdition. It certainly is not a fair description of even the most orthodox among modern English theologians. The world has changed, knowledge has advanced, and theology has

changed also. This fact is important. When clergymen are occupied with filling the ranks of the Blue Ribbon Army, and with other schemes of practical improvement, it is impossible that their teaching should not stimulate their hearers to go and do likewise. To this must be added the weighty consideration that sceptics or agnostics constantly claim, and no doubt with truth, to share in the benevolence, the charity, and the so-called enthusiasm of humanity originally aroused by religious or theological doctrines. By a strange, though perfectly natural, turn of opinion, men who disagree on what appear to each of them vital questions of theological or anti-theological belief, find that they can act and feel together when engaged in works of practical benevolence. The secularist who holds that men must make the best of the only life they will ever have, and the orthodox clergyman who believes that to spend life well and virtuously on earth is the best way of preparing for life in another world, are each impelled to aid every scheme for improving the dwellings of workmen or for increasing the innocent pleasures of the poor.

The spread of democratic institutions, and notably the extension of the franchise, have been one undoubted cause of the interest taken by all classes of Englishmen in the condition of the people. But it would be a mistake to attribute too great an influence over opinion in England to any merely political arrangements. Constitutional changes have their importance—an importance which some writers and thinkers decidedly overrate; but, after all, the institutions of a country are on the whole the effect rather than the cause of the sentiments or opinions which prevail there. This certainly is so in England; it is far more true to say that the Constitution is becoming democratic because Englishmen of all classes are keenly alive to the rights and claims of the people, than that modern Englishmen wish to improve the condition of the people because the Constitution is democratic. The ten-pound householders and their leaders might, I am convinced, have resisted the agitation for Parliamentary reform in 1867 if their own sentiments had not become democratic. Even as it is, an impartial observer may doubt whether the political power of the working classes is now, or will be when household suffrage prevails throughout the country, nearly as great as it would appear to any one who studied only Acts of Parliament or electoral statistics. The advance of democracy tells on English life mainly by its indirect effects. Classes whose voice cannot be heard are neglected not because they are disliked or because any one wishes to oppress them, but because their existence is forgotten. When the mass of the people have votes, the rich and well-to-do begin to realize that the people exist; and in modern England to know that a class exists is with many among the rich (for reasons I have already explained) a sufficient reason for sympathizing with their sufferings, and for wishing to remove them.

A. V. Dicey.

IRISH LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Dublin, December 29, 1883.

The local government of Ireland, which now claims our attention, is a wide and complicated subject. It can be treated in but a cursory manner within the limits of this letter. The fullest and best information thereupon will be found in a work entitled 'Local Government and Taxation in the United Kingdom,' one of the Cobden Club Series for 1882. The County, the Poor-law Union, and the Town are the chief Irish administrative areas. It must be clearly borne in mind that the control of the police, education, and other similar important matters is centred in Dublin Castle, independently of Irish representative bodies, and that the Castle regulates, more or less, such functions as remain to them.

Ireland is divided into thirty-two counties, and these again into 325 baronies. The baronies — older divisions, I believe, than the counties—are of irregular areas, and vary in number from twenty-three in the County of Cork to five in the County of Leitrim. The principal local authority in the county is the Grand Jury. It is appointed before spring and summer assizes by the High Sheriff, who has been nominated by the Lord Lieutenant, from a list prepared by previous judges of assize. The Grand Jury consist of twenty-three gentlemen. The Sheriff is bound to choose from every barony a resident £50 freeholder or £100 leaseholder. He then completes the required number, at his discretion, from the £50 freeholders and £100 leaseholders of the county. In most of the counties, the number of baronies being under twenty-three, he has a wide discretion in selecting the majority. Regard is had principally to wealth or status.

Baronial presentment sessions play a subordinate part in the administration. Every magistrate in the county is entitled to attend and take part in the proceedings of these baronial sessions; but it is not etiquette or "good form" for any but the magistrates of the barony to do so. With them sit six or eight "associated cess-payers," chosen by the magistrates at the previous assizes from a list of the highest-rated cess-payers of the barony. One associated cess-payer is sent forward from each barony to sit with the county Grand Jury. The method of choice is tortuous, the ballot takes place on the day of sessions, and as the farmers are little disposed to travel far, on the chance of success in a ballot which would only give them a nominal part in the affairs of the county, the justices, usually men of leisure, have the whole business practically in their own hands.

The *personnel* of the Grand Jury is liable to considerable change each assize. It has no power when out of session. Conscientious consideration of the affairs of the county is out of the question, crowded as it must be into a few hours twice a year at the spring and summer assizes. (There are eight or nine months between the summer and next spring assizes.) Some 360 days of the year the paid officers have the affairs of the county practically under their complete control. There are, to be sure, certain checks. In case of emergency—the breaking down of a bridge, or the like—any two justices can order work to be done. Cess-payers are allowed right of appeal; but the judge has neither the special knowledge nor the time wisely to decide in such matters.

It will be remarked the part which the magistrates—practically chosen by the crown—play in this system. There is no suggestion of peculation; but it is inevitable that the interests of the many who pay the taxes (cess) should be neglected for the interests of the few. Thanks to the influence of public opinion and the press, there are fewer evils to complain of in this respect than there used to be.

This extraordinary system of Irish county government is one of the scandals of Irish administration. Its injustice and evils have been acknowledged for the past forty years. For the past twenty years Liberal and Conservative governments alike have held out hopes of radical reform. That the over-charged Imperial Parliament has never had time to grapple with and attend to it, is a strong argument in favor of some kind of Irish assembly for the regulation of Irish affairs. The wonder is that the system works even as well as it does.

The Grand Juries in 1879 dispensed £1,270,000. The annual amount has not fluctuated much within the past ten years. Two thirds of this sum was for county works, much of the rest being levied for purposes regulated by statute or by the Castle. The Grand Jury exercises discretionary power as to contributions to reformatories and industrial schools. Railways are sometimes aided by baronial guarantee. The projects for extending tramways over Ireland under the act of last session, entailing as they do possible county charges, require the approval of the Baronial Sessions and Grand Jury before passing up to the Lord Lieutenant for final sanction.

Every person in Ireland, as in England, has a right to poor relief in a workhouse, and to medicine and attendance if too poor to pay for them. This system is worked by Unions. There are 163 Unions in Ireland. Neither county nor barony has any part in their organization; the local authority of the Union is a Board of Guardians. The Board of Guardians is composed of an elected and an ex-officio element. The Local Government Board (practically the Lord Lieutenant) determines the number of elected guardians for each Union, and their qualification. Justices of the Peace, equal in number to the elected guardians, form the ex-officio element. The Local Government Board can substitute paid guardians for a board that has failed to do its duty. This power does not appear ever to be overstrained. Besides the control of the Union workhouse, the Guardians administer outdoor relief, medical charities, boarding out of pauper children, and sanitary acts. In face of the defects of the Grand Jury system of county government, almost every Government department utilizes them. The local Government Board rule minutely and absolutely over their proceedings. The arrangements of the workhouses are painfully denominational. The Catholics and Protestants are divided through almost every department like two hostile races of animals in a menagerie. This is extremely embarrassing and expensive. Some time ago a guardian, a friend of mine, told me that in going through the Protestant children's ward of the South Dublin Union he was shocked to find a painful case of idiocy among the children. Upon asking why the poor creature was not in the idiot ward, he was told that the other idiots were Catholics, and that it would not do to have him with them! The introduction of nuns and Protestant "sisters" as nurses in many of the Union hospitals has had the best results. Poor-relief and medical charities, which, upon the establishment of the system in 1838, were calculated would cost £300,000 per annum, rose in 1849 to £2,061,000. This amount fell steadily to £525,000 in 1859. Since then the rise has been steady to £1,237,000 in 1882. This increase of expenditure, in the face of a diminution of 3,000,000 in the population, is due partly to more extended ideas of the requirements of life, even in a poor-house. In 1874, the average daily number of inmates in Irish Unions was 47,000; in 1881, 54,000. This year they have fallen to 51,000. The cost of out-door relief has increased from £5,500, in 1860, to £181,000 in 1882. The average number of persons in receipt of out-door relief rose from 30,000 in 1874 to 61,000 in 1881. It has fallen this year to 59,000. There is something ominous in these figures. Ireland has fewer paupers in proportion to population than England. Taking an average of five years ending 1880, while in England and Wales one person out of every thirty-four of the population was in receipt of poor relief, in Ireland the proportion was one out of every

fifty-four. But in this respect we are going down hill. Eight or ten years ago the proportions were: England, one in twenty nine; Ireland, one in sixty-seven. The change here is largely due to the increase of out-door relief. Poor relief costs the people of England seven shillings per head of the population; it costs us four shillings per head. In 1876 the figures were six shillings, and three shillings and fourpence respectively.

The cities and towns in Ireland are under the charge of Elective Corporations or Town Councils. Their powers are, as I have already intimated, much restricted as compared with the powers vested in similar bodies in Great Britain. So long as the police are free from the control of the municipality, it is found impossible to depend upon their vigilance and effectiveness in enforcing the rules and regulations of the municipality. The Lord Mayor of Dublin has no more immediate control over the police of the city than an American visitor has. The expenditure of the city and town authorities in 1879 was £770,000. It is here, as perhaps everywhere else, steadily rising. In 1870 it was only £556,000. The expenditure in Dublin is £328,000, or twenty-six shillings per head of the population. The Dublin debt is about £1,000,000, £750,000 of which was spent on securing a splendid water supply. The total debts of the Irish cities and towns amount to £2,524,000.

It is not necessary here to enter into the minor local-government organizations—lunatic asylums, Harbor Boards, Drainage Boards, Inland Navigation Boards, and the like. The members of these boards are to a considerable extent nominated by the Lord Lieutenant. Their powers are limited and supervised. The Dublin Port and Docks Board, for instance, which has within the past sixteen years raised the port of Dublin from being of minor importance to that of almost a first-class port, with twenty-four feet at low water, and which has more than doubled the tonnage of the port within that period, is empowered to appoint some dozen police constables with jurisdiction on the quays. The selection of each of these men has to be submitted to and approved by the Lord Lieutenant; and a pension of even 2s. 6d. a week to an employee must be sanctioned by him.

A review of the Irish franchise and local government shows how very little direct power an Irish citizen has over the institutions among which he lives. If he possess the necessary qualifications, and have passed the ordeals of registration, he may vote for one or two members of Parliament every three or four years—for a city or county coroner once in a lifetime; for poor-law guardians every year; if resident in a city or town, for town counsellors each year. These are practically all the votes he can cast. If a wealthy man, he may, in a port like Dublin, have a vote for representatives to a harbor board. One of your election tickets is here a scrap-book curiosity.

The general character of almost all the Irish representative bodies has, under the influence of political events and tendencies, greatly altered of late years, wherever Catholics and Nationalists are in the majority. "Suspects" are now in the majority, and occupy the most influential positions on many Town Councils and Boards of Guardians. It remains to be seen whether they are upon the whole less devoted to the honest and sympathetic discharge of their duties than the former class of representatives. A great outcry has been raised at the change in the constitution of the Dublin corporation; but certainly its management of affairs is much better than in the old times, when "respectability" was all-powerful. The number of publicans (bar-keepers) in the representative bodies is to be deplored; they compose nearly one-third of our corporation. But if others will not, as they might, come forward to represent the people, the publicans cannot be blamed for doing so. This state of things cannot continue. The prognostication that the present class of representatives would be less sympathetic toward the poor, and less inclined to tax themselves for their benefit, than were the former representatives drawn from a higher rank in society, has so far been shown to be without foundation. Interesting statistics have lately been published as to the extent to which has been used the recently acquired power of imposing burdens upon the rates for the erection of better houses for the working classes. These statistics show that precisely in proportion as the various Unions are in sympathy with the people, although not directly elected by them, these burdens are readily—sometimes too readily—undertaken.

The Castle control over our local representative assemblies has some advantages which I trust may be continued under whatever Irish control eventually supersedes it. There is a perfect system of audit of accounts of local bodies, and malversation of public money is almost impossible. Everything must be bought under contracts which are publicly advertised for.

The discussions of the Town Councils and Boards of Guardians cannot be kept free from politics, which upon occasions interfere with the progress of business. One of the necessities for some central Irish representative body is that its establishment would leave an opening for the discussion of public questions, and would tend to eliminate their consideration from county and city affairs.

The Imperial Government contributes some £2,400,000 per annum toward the local expenditure of 5,200,000 Irishmen—medical officers, £73,000; pauper lunatics, £82,000; prisons and reformatories, £221,000; prosecutions and law costs, £87,000 (much more than this at present); police, £1,235,000; education, £571,000, and so on. The cost of the "extra police," which the Lord Lieutenant has the power to send to any part of Ireland, is a direct and often a heavy charge upon the district. These large contributions toward Irish local expenses are, unconsciously perhaps, part of a system of bribery to make the Irish people content under the present system—local burdens paid, loans for the improvement of land and for public works, for glebe houses and for schools, at low rates; an unnecessary number of judicial and legal offices. No one who desires the true strengthening and elevation of a people can wish for a continuance of such a system; but I sometimes wonder whether, when the real facts of the case, the real responsibilities necessitated by a change to a better system, are realized by the Irish people, they will rise to the occasion, and not prefer the flesh-pots of irresponsibility to the cares and obligations of local self-government. I cannot find that much more than £2,901,000 is contributed to the local burdens of 26,000,000 Englishmen. It is, therefore, evident that the first effect of Home Rule would be the increase of the direct fiscal burdens of the Irish people. Imperial taxation is in the main indirect. A moiety is derived from taxes on intoxicants and tobacco, which are not necessaries of life. Local taxation is paid in hard cash.

Searching in vain for facts as to the amount of imperial contributions toward Scotch local expenses, in an essay by a Scotchman upon local government in his county I read the following paragraph:

"People who have had experience of local business, and are in the habit of discharging responsible duties to their fellow men, are calculated to take a more sympathetic and enlightened view of national affairs than they might otherwise be able or inclined to do. Trust of this nature serves to deepen one's interest in the country and its business, and affords opportunity for the cultivation and development of faculties which otherwise might be latent, and often prove of great service in the administration of national affairs. Equally emphatic is the feeling in Scotland against the removal of much more of the local burdens to the national purse. This, in my humble opinion, illustrates the good sense of the people. Those who advocate the transference of one tax after another from local to national resources, seem to labor under the belief that by such a change they will obtain relief to their pockets corresponding to the amount of the taxation handed over. That, however, is a delusion."

I wish we could be sure of the prevalence in Ireland of such enlightened sentiments regarding the incidence of local burdens. D. B.

SCHERER ON DEMOCRACY IN FRANCE.—II.

PARIS, December 11.

M. SCHERER has shown the influence of the electoral interests to be the prevailing influence in the country. And these electoral interests can hardly be considered as general interests; as happens in countries where two opposite parties are strongly organized, they are narrow and personal. Some of the examples he gives must be cited. "Is it true," he asks, "that with universal suffrage and all its weight upon the deputy, a war—the most just and necessary war—has become impossible? Has the reduction of the military service to three years, which people speak of introducing in France, the interest of the army for its object, or the interest of the elector in the abolition of taxes?" The law on the magistracy, which has momentarily suspended the irremovability of the judges, was also dictated to Parliament by electoral interests. In vain did the Government attempt to seize this opportunity to diminish a certain number of the courts; it is obvious that the number of these courts and the number of the judges in each court are quite out of proportion to the needs of justice. "Those," says M. Scherer, "who had this very simple idea had forgotten that they had to deal with the deputies of the arrondissements, and that these deputies would upset ten governments rather than subordinate to the public good considerations of local advantage and of personal interests." The obnoxious judges have been removed, but the useless courts and judges have been carefully preserved. The electoral interests have also imposed, on the state first and afterwards on the great railway companies, the construction of an immense number of small railway lines, which are at the same time very costly and, for the present at least, very useless. The first thing a deputy promises to his arrondissement is a new railway. The famous plan of public works of M. de Freycinet, who had merely adopted all the lines promised by all the deputies, has been a lamentable failure. The state began to construct these new lines and to work them, but after a while it was proved that the state was entirely unfit for such an enterprise. Negotiations were opened with the existing companies, but they were opened too late, and they have ended in agreements which will saddle a very heavy burden upon the budget for years to come.

The electoral interests have been so exacting, so selfish, so unscrupulous, that the financial situation of France, which, a few years ago, was shown with an air of triumph to the whole world, has now become a serious subject of

alarm. Every deputy wants to grab something from the budget. "Apparently," wrote Léon Say some time ago, "the problem which many deputies wish to solve is this: How shall we make our departments, our communes, even our electors, live at the expense of the state?" And he added: "It is singular to see the nation send to the seat of government agents of incitement to expenditure." Public opinion cannot yet understand that to incite expenditure is to force an increase of taxation. The life of a minister is a continual struggle against thousands of placemen, hundreds of senators and deputies. A humorous deputy has lately given an account of his own life. An elector writes to ask him to procure a nurse for his new-born child; another tells him the symptoms of his malady, and begs him to consult a great doctor of the capital; hundreds of them ask for tobacco licenses; many deputies are obliged to pay secretaries in order to answer all the letters addressed to them, for the elector will at least have a letter from "his" deputy. The *République Française*, in its number of the 12th of April, 1882, cites a letter of an elector who asks his deputy for a silver watch, "as a token of his noble and benevolent person." It is needless to say that the senator or deputy must send his photograph to a number of his constituents.

What are the tendencies of a government founded on universal suffrage, unbridled, absolutely free and untrammelled? The people in such a democracy are always led, but the leaders can only lead by obeying and understanding the most profound and persistent popular instincts. We must, therefore, ask ourselves, What are these instincts? The verdict of Scherer on this point is severe. In his opinion, democracy can only appreciate material work. It looks upon those who use the pen, the word, the weapons of the intellect, as privileged beings. It can only appreciate mediocrity, to which it is condemned. It has the passion of simple and absolute ideas, which are sterile ideas. It does not feel the necessity of time, of reflection, of custom, of duration: it cannot understand that anything should interpose itself between its desire and the satisfaction of it—between a decision and its effects. It is, in this respect, childish, feminine, irrational. It is essentially antagonistic to liberty, because liberty supposes the free development of inequalities, and democracy abhors all inequalities. It tends to deprive the executive power of all force and all initiative.

"I will never cease to repeat it," says Scherer, "if the sovereignty of the people does not succeed in finding a basis of authority; if it does not derive from itself a force of resistance and a government capable of governing; if democracy, in other words, does not succeed in limiting itself, it is condemned to disorder. And, as society does not long support disorder, democracy is condemned to accept the first saviour who presents himself." Scherer goes so far as to adopt the opinion expressed by Macaulay in 1837, in a letter addressed to a biographer of Jefferson: he thinks, like the great English historian, that the masses, composed of men who have to gain their daily bread by hard labor, and who are occupied chiefly with the hard conditions of life, are not fit to take care of the general interests of a country and to solve economical problems. So far, the dark prophecies of Macaulay have not been accomplished; but we must never forget that the American Republic has found in its Constitution, in its Federal principle, in the absence of any powerful centralization or bureaucracy, those forces of resistance which counteract the blind force of democracy. I will also add that America, owing to these conditions, has not, as yet, shown that love of intellectual mediocrity which seems to Scherer to be one of the conditions of the democratic state; there is hardly a country where intellectual excellence and greatness are more valued. Democracy, in Scherer's opinion, tends perforce to socialism; and socialism, as it is the means of taking away from those who have in order to give to those who have not, is merely a new form of spoliation and of conquest. Force is not necessary to it; legal means can be employed. It is true that in France property is very much divided, and caution will be necessary. Still, the state will tend to become by degrees the arbiter of wealth; it will give work to those who have no work, it will play the part of Providence. Scherer asserts that democracy is making great progress in England, and finds a proof of it in the agrarian law made for Ireland, and in the extension of out-door relief, which he considers a means of propagating improvidence and idleness.

Democracy is not its own end; it is a form which calls for something to fill it—a force which tends to some application. In Scherer's opinion, a democratic form of republic tends inevitably to the levelling of fortunes, and is condemned to make a trial of communism in some shape or other. He does not believe, however, that the laws which regulate labor and property can be changed, and socialism can never be anything but a colossal and unfortunate experiment. If democracy abandoned itself to its instincts, its programme would be this: "To hinder the intellectual capacity from asserting itself, for fear of its ascendency; not only to strike at acquired wealth, but to make it impossible to reacquire wealth, for fear of its power; to establish the uniformity of social conditions, to the profit of the feeble, the mediocre, the vicious, and consequently to the detriment of force, intelligence, and morality." If this really be so, it becomes imperative for democracy to vanquish its low instincts, as it is imperative for the individual man to control his passions. We cannot arrest the current of democracy; we may hope to regulate it. We must find in democratic institutions some guarantees against the ignorance and the impatience of majorities. These guarantees are well known: they are the division of powers, repeated deliberations for all important laws, the control of a Higher Chamber in which other social elements than mere numbers are represented. I should be disposed to add to these, in a republic, the independence of the Ministers, and the constitution of a Cabinet more directly connected with the responsible President than with the Chambers themselves.

Democracy must also have as much regard for the highest culture as for the education of the people. As Scherer says:

"It pursues a high object in proposing to itself the good of the greatest number; but it is possible that it will only obtain this levelling at the price of universal mediocrity. If the universal *poule au pot* is decidedly better than the truffled fowl of the privileged, the elevation of the level of general instruction is not a perfect compensation for the loss of the literary and artistic culture of the great epochs; nor are the benefits of popular government an absolute compensation for the government of the most capable and of the best. I imagine that it will be hard for humanity to do without great men."

Science is progressive; morality is not. Egoism remains the foundation of human character, and democracy will not alter man in this respect. It is long since Renan said that he could imagine a society in which man should be admirably fed, clothed, warmed, lighted, and in which, nevertheless, he would be very miserable. The discoveries of science may even tend to lower humanity, in so far as they give an artificial life to those who would naturally have been rejected. Charity, philanthropy, chemistry, medicine, drainage, all the improvements, all that softens and beautifies existence, tends in one sense to contaminate the race. What is done for the individual man is not always done for the species. "Who tells you, leveller, that your levelling brings you up, and not down? The consumptive, the scrofulous live, but humanity suffers by it. The ignorant, the lazy are electors, but the state suffers by it."

These are hard words; they are a sort of protest by an aristocratic mind against democracy, and the protest is all the more bitter because this aristocrat is a servant of democracy. This philosopher, bred in Calvinistic ideas, who cannot divest himself of the notion of the fated inequality of men, who believes neither in liberty, as the democratic school conceives it, nor in equality, nor in fraternity, is enrolled under the banner which bears the words: "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity."

Correspondence.

CARLYLE'S VISIT TO GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The opening sentence of your review of Japp's 'German Life and Literature,' in the issue of the *Nation* for January 3, 1884, gives fresh currency to an oft-repeated erroneous statement concerning the life of Thomas Carlyle. Your reviewer writes: "Two generations have passed since Mr. Carlyle, having gone to Germany and 'found what he wanted,' returned home and commenced scourging his countrymen for their dislike of what was currently known as German vagueness and transcendentalism." Permit me to point out that Carlyle made only one visit to Germany, and that was in 1858, when he was sixty-three years of age, and after all his great works, except 'Friedrich,' had been written. Shortly after his death the statement that he had visited Germany in his youth appeared in various notices of his life, and was widely circulated. The author of an article in the issue of the *Nation* for February 17, 1881, wrote: "The fact seems to be—and it is an extraordinary fact—that it was not till he went to Germany, when he could not have been far from thirty years of age, that he developed any originality."

The recurrence of this statement in the pages of the *Nation* induces me to point out that it has no foundation in fact. D. H.

Washington, D. C., January 7, 1884.

[We stand corrected; but, for our immediate purpose, the *intellectual* "going to Germany" was the pertinent fact, and was really in our mind when we intimated a bodily journey.—Ed. Nation.]

THINGS SPANISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your review of "Books on Spain" interests me, as it was my good luck to spend some two months travelling in Spain in the spring of '80. As a guide-book I used O'Shea's, and think it the best guide-book I have ever seen, having used Murray's, Baedeker's, Black's, and some French books. I was most impressed with the coast scenery from Gibraltar to Malaga, going by boat, and the scenery around Malaga is the finest I ever saw. Apropos of a recent article of yours on a new translation of Scott into French, and your remarks on the popularity of Scott and Cooper on the Continent, the first

thing that drew my attention, under a low, dark arcade on the Square at Pampelona, was a set of books, 16mo, which looked old enough to be Loyola's copy of 'The Lives of the Saints,' but which proved to be a translation of Scott. They were the only books in this curiosity shop. At Seville I found an English edition of Cooper, as well as translations. There is scarcely a town in any of the Latin countries of Europe in which odd volumes of Scott and Cooper cannot be found. The best description of the bull-fights is that by Th. Gautier in his 'Voyage en Espagne.' Such, at least, was my conclusion after reading all the descriptions I could find at Mudie's, and after having seen the bull-fights in honor of the Queen of Spain, when she was found to be "en estado interesante." A.

January 8, 1884.

THE MORMON PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The United States Government having unsuccessfully tried every possible form of legal enactment to suppress Mormonism, please permit me to suggest that it would be well to adopt a thorough change of tactics. Petty persecution has never been successful; and, unless the Federal Government is prepared to kill the Mormons outright, it would be wise to refrain from irritating legislation. The Mormon women do not seem to feel oppressed; they will not avail themselves of the laws passed for their relief, and they appear to be satisfied with their lot, which is, perhaps, better than what most of them are accustomed to in Europe.

I would suggest that Government should establish milliners' shops throughout the Territory of Utah, where dresses could be cut and fitted at a moderate price to commence with. After the milliners get hold they may be left to themselves. Bonnets, and not bayonets, are the true persuasives for women. French milliners in all the small towns, and the latest fashions in the windows, would appeal to the weak side of the feminine heart. French boots are very eloquent. Let the lower terminations of Bishop A's latest acquisition be once clothed in elegant "bottines," and the venerable saint's purse will begin to feel the coming change. All his tender spouses will demand boots and bonnets, or else turn in utter wretchedness to the law for relief from marital injustice and oppression. Then, of course, Elder B and Apostle C will have to follow suit. If the Congress were not composed entirely of the stupider sex, this method would have been thought of long ago. What do women care for laws? They do not take the trouble to read them. They have as much respect for statutes as a New York belle returning from Paris has for revenue laws. Many of us in the East have to abstain from even one wife because of the expense of dressing her. It is in the atrocious plainness of their wives' dress that the Mormon men have the pull on us. Cannot some of our milliners be sent out West to equalize matters a little, so that we all might have one wife at least? If these Mormon elders once get into a struggle with the milliners, they will begin to economize, and cut off wife after wife, just as a man stops his periodicals in hard times. There is the true solvent for polygamy. A few women delegates—Congresswomen—would have seen it long ago. A Constant Reader.

Quebec, January 8, 1884.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those of our religious teachers who are in favor of resorting to the army as a means of solving the Mormon problem I had supposed were hardly considerable enough, either in numbers or influence, to justify the few references to their sayings and doings to be found in the columns of the *Nation*. But that sentiments of violence toward our polygamous population are not confined to a few eccentric and irresponsible guardians of public morality, the following facts may serve to show.

In the *Christliche Apologetik*, the official organ of American German Methodism, of the date of December 31, there is a report of the proceedings of a District Conference of German Methodist Ministers, held a few weeks previously in Le Sueur, Minnesota. Among the questions discussed at this Conference was that of the "Duties of Christian Citizenship." The leading speaker upon this theme said, with the apparent approval of his reverend auditors:

"Dieser ist ein eiterndes Geschwür auf dem Rücken dieser Nation, das wir mit dem Schwerte abhauen, und mit Pulver ausbrennen sollten."

That any of our German brethren should retain the sword as an agency of moral reform, is all the more remarkable when it is considered how the average German-American insists on his right to follow social customs palpably at variance with the genius of the land of his adoption. Geo. M. Fortune.

Virden, Ill., January 6, 1884.

THE STUDY OF DIALECTIC GREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Had those who teach Greek the same end in view as that proposed by teachers of the modern languages, viz., the attainment by their pupils of a ready use of the spoken tongue, and were the spoken tongue to be acquired the classical Greek, there would be no objection to the change "E. M. S." proposes in methods of instruction. Conversely, if a teacher of German aimed at making his pupil familiar with the literature alone, there is no doubt but that, after allowing him to browse about in the fields of the modern literature for a time, he would then turn him back to the old literary remains of earlier times, and set him to reading the 'Nibelungenlied' (the example used by your correspondent). Nor would the learner find much difficulty in this new field. Your correspondent has doubtless found out for himself that, after becoming familiar with modern high German, he found no more difficulty in reading the 'Nibelungen' than in reading Chaucer. We may assume the same for Greek. Given a familiarity with the classic tongue, the added trouble of learning Homeric forms is slight. One day would suffice a bright boy, at home in classical Greek, for learning all the divergent grammatical forms found in Homer. As to the vocabulary, the number of new words is not under any circumstances very large. In reading Demosthenes after Plato he finds as many new words as in older literature, and words he will meet with as rarely in subsequent reading. If one can read classical Greek at sight, he can read Homer with little extra labor.

The dialects of the classical period are, further, not so divergent as "E. M. S." appears to assume, for though Meyer claims more than two dozen Greek dialects, these are, of course, mainly known from inscriptions, affecting the literature but little. The works composed in dialects differing from Attic Greek, *e. g.*, Herodotus, are not so widely divergent from the latter that their peculiarities cause the student any great effort, and the vocabulary differs but little. It is, I think, for this reason a mistake to compare the Greek with the German dialects. One who reads Goethe without a dictionary would find himself at sea were he to read a page of the works of Reuter, and this not from divergence of forms alone, but from the enormous mass of new words. On the other hand, he who has learned the few comprehensive changes demanded by the dialect of Herodotus from the Attic forms, finds that, by changing according to a few simple rules, the words as they stand in Herodotus become what he knows them in Attic. The added vocabulary is a mere nothing.

The answer to "E. M. S.'s" question is then two-fold: we do not teach Greek as we do German, first, because we do not teach them with the same end in view; second, because there is no parallel between the importance played by dialectic variation in German and that in Greek. It would require less time to teach the student all the regular variations from the "classical" (Attic) model found in Doric and Ionian Greek than it would to give him an understanding of the peculiarities of one German dialect. A good scholar in Attic Greek could translate an idyl of Theocritus with five minutes' explanation of forms hitherto unknown to him. It would take more time than that for a well-informed student of German to get the cue whereby to translate such ordinary dialect as is found in Swabian songs, to say nothing of the prose literature in such dialects. E. W. H.

New York, January 12, 1884.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Early Church History, to the Death of Constantine,' compiled by the late Edward Backhouse, and edited and enlarged by Charles Tylor.

The *Critic* and *Good Literature* have effected a consolidation of titles and property. Their distinctive contents, too—original and eclectic—will be found combined in the new issue bearing the joint name.

The *Auk* is the designation of the quarterly journal of ornithology which, from the present month, continues and succeeds the Bulletin of the Nuttall Club, as the organ of the American Ornithologists' Union. Mr. J. A. Allen will edit it, with the assistance of Dr. Coues and Messrs. Brewster and Chamberlain. The publishers will be Estes & Lauriat, Boston.

Extraordinary inducements are offered to readers of the *Higher Republic*, the self-styled "organ of the literary societies and of the Culture League of America" (New York), which promises during the coming year to give "substantial condensations of thirty great world-books, including six novels."

The same cannot be said of the latest in the "American Heir" series of pamphlets—'Genealogical and Historical Record of the Carpenter Family . . . including a full, complete, and reliable history of the Carpenter Estate in England' (New York: James Usher). Mr. Usher concludes a very amusing and discursive account of his researches in the mother country by frankly reporting to the Carpenter Fund Association that "it may now be definitely taken as a fixed fact that the so-called 'Carpenter Estate' does not exist, except in the fiction of tradition and the hopes of expectant recipients."

A complete edition of the poetical works of A. C. Swinburne (New York: John D. Williams) furnishes solid evidence of the productiveness of this writer, as it fills a volume of no less than 730 pages of rather fine type.

Mr. W. J. Rolfe has added "Titus Andronicus" to the edition of Shakspere's plays which he publishes through Harper & Bros. The evidence for and against the traditional authorship is presented at some length in his preface.

Special List No. 1 of the Cornell University Library is a reprint from that periodical of the classified catalogue of works composing the Kelly Mathematical Collection. It fills nearly eighty pages in double columns, exclusive of the index.

The new edition of the 'Hand-Book for Readers,' of the Boston Public Library, possesses a more than local value; witness the lists of indexes to periodicals, of the periodicals accessible through Poole's Index, and of cyclopædias, and even the account of the several collections in the library.

Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* (New York: F.W. Leypoldt), for December, completes the third volume with an index, and with two fresh topics—"The Northwest" and "Philosophy in America." Mr. Foster gives notice that the task has now become burdensome to him, and that he cannot perform it after the close of the present year; by which time we hope that the important series of references on the Federal administrations will have been completed, and a competent successor to Mr. Foster found.

A suggestive paper on the "Disadvantages of the Upright Position"—or proofs of the evolution of man from the quadrupeds in the arrangement of the valves of the circulatory system—by Dr. S. V. Clevenger, stands first in the *American Naturalist* for January. The foot-note which the author appends to it is also valuable as a contribution to the history of the higher education in this country. It appears that the reading of this paper before the Chicago University Club last year cost Dr. Clevenger an appointment to the chair of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology in that University, of which the President is a Baptist clergyman.

The sixth volume of the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) is concluded with parts 84–90, at the title Forckenbeck. This is one of the more barren encyclopædic tracts, and gives occasion for few elaborate articles. Military matters, from fencing to fortifications and tactics, are well looked after, and much space is devoted to fire insurance, with the aid of statistical tables. The three chief biographies, quantitatively, are those of Paul Falk, the famous author of the now low-fallen May laws; Farragut, of whom the appreciation is very hearty; and Fichte. Florence is one of the longest geographical articles. The plates deal with national flags, fortifications, ferns, fish, carnivorous plants, and various machines. The maps represent Europe physically, historically, and ethnographically.

Insects still occupy the current issues (parts 105–112) of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (Westermann). Some of the colored plates are very effective, as for instance that representing the march of the army worm, the mounds of the termites, etc.

The same house sends us *Science et Nature*, a new journal begun to be issued in Paris last month, and embracing in its double title the American and English scientific weeklies. The first number commends itself at once to Americans by a description of the "redskins" (Omahas) at the Jardin d'Acclimatation, the illustration accompanying which, however, is not a favorable (though it may be a fair) sample of French ethnographical representation. The second number opens with a paper on Krakatoa, the illustration here being well engraved from a photograph. Other articles show the freshness of this "international review," as Paul Lévy's report on the present state of the Panama Canal, with an authentic view of the depot of Emperador; and D. Napoli's account of the lightning Eastern Express to Constantinople, equipped with "wagon-lits" (sleeping-cars). The contents consist chiefly of signed articles, the editorial hand appearing only in scientific summaries and book notices, a *chronique*, etc. The decidedly popular character of this journal is shown in its admitting scientific games and plays.

In the month of July last, a conference was held in London of the managers of hospitals. It is well known that many of the great hospitals of the metropolis are based upon very ancient foundations, and that usages exist in their administration which might well be changed. The object of this conference was to urge upon the Government the appointment of a Royal Commission of Inquiry, "to obtain reliable data upon which reforms should be based and to make recommendations." Fourteen papers were presented to the meeting, and a report upon them and of the discussions which they evoked has just been distributed. Much of this matter is, of course, local, but some of the points taken up are of interest in this country, especially these: on the best forms of administration in an hospital; on the relations of professional and lay authority; on the relations of hospitals to medical schools; on "Provident Dispensaries" (such as those lately established by Sir Charles Trevelyan and his co-workers), and on convalescent institutions. Among those who contributed to these discussions the names are found of B. B. Rawlings, J. S. Bristowe, Timothy Holmes, Henry C. Burdett, Thomas Blair, Sir Rutherford Alcock, Sir T. F. Buxton, Francis S. Powell, and many others well known as philanthropists or as men of high professional rank.

It is reported on good authority that Sir William Thomson, the distinguished physicist of Glasgow, has accepted an invitation to deliver a course of fifteen or twenty lectures at the Johns Hopkins University, beginning about the first of October, 1884. The subject and dates will be made known by an official announcement as soon as they are exactly determined, and arrangements will be made by which gentlemen from other colleges may attend the course.

Rear-Admiral Shufeldt, the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory, has communicated to the Royal Astronomical Society the results of Prof. Hall's computation of the mass of the planet Saturn. With the twenty-six-inch telescope of the Observatory he observed, in 1875, 1876, and 1877, the positions of the satellite Japetus relative to the primary, and, following the methods of Bessel, he determined the mean angular distance of the satellite from the planet to be 515.522." To find the periodic time of the satellite, he employed certain observations of the Herschels in connection with his own, giving for the sidereal revolution 79.3310152 days. A combination of these two elements gives for the mass of Saturn 1-3482.2 that of the sun—a value in close accord with the better previous determinations of this quantity.

Mr. Quaritch, London, will publish a series of twenty-nine photographic reproductions of the choicest cinquecento Italian engravings, including twenty plates of the Botticelli Dante (1481) and three from the 'Monte Sancto di Dio' (Botticelli, 1477). He will also publish a series of plant studies "for the use of artists and designers," by George C. Haité, with (as we gather from the prospectus) accurate drawings of fifty familiar plants in monochrome. We think that "artists and designers" would do better to give themselves the trouble of drawing from nature what they want. This process of working from information instead of knowledge is leading to the degradation and inanity of every art in which it is employed, and if an artist is not serious enough in his work to get what he wants at first hand, he will make but a duffer in art. Designers who are mechanical enough to work on such material will do equally well, or ill, on other people's designs.

Mr. Quaritch's more serious prospectus of a German work on the ornament of textile fabrics, illustrated by 1,000 patterns, printed in gold and colors, of ancient and mediæval fabrics, comes into another category of ideas. Of the results of art and its ways and modifications the artist cannot know too much or learn unwisely, copying slavishly being always debarred. This work will have as great a value for designers as anything published in this century, as the reproductions now made by German printers are scarcely to be distinguished by the eye from samples of the stuffs.

—One of the surprises of the past summer was the very sudden and very great success of a French book about England—'John Bull et son Île: Mœurs Anglaises Contemporaines,' by M. Max O'Rell, of which a translation has just been brought out by the Messrs. Scribner. This book ran through ten editions very rapidly indeed, with a promise of passing its twentieth. In England it was received with great curiosity, and with an evident willingness to make fun out of its obvious errors. The *Saturday Review* was almost the only paper in London which gave it the respectful consideration it deserved. For it is no hasty sketch, flippantly scribbled after a fortnight's scamper through Great Britain. Although written with Gallic brightness and lightness, it is based on extended study and actual investigation on the spot. Of course it is not for a moment to be compared with Emerson's great little book on England, or even with M. Taine's 'Notes'; but it considers phases of English life and character passed over by its predecessors. It is like Emerson's and M. Taine's books in that it is the work of an admirer, but of an admirer who has not left at home his French training, his keen eyes, and his critical faculty. It is the work of a sincere admirer, and yet the impression it leaves is not altogether favorable. For one thing, M. "O'Rell"—the name is evidently a pseudonym—has views about the British lower classes quite like those of Mr. Matthew Arnold, except that he seeks for a stronger adjective than brutalized. And in this we are inclined to think he resembles all intelligent and thoughtful American travellers in England, many of whom find London the saddest and most painful city in the world. But M. "O'Rell" does not confine himself to low life—indeed, he touches on it only incidentally; and his remarks on English society and English character from a Frenchman's point of view are interesting and instructive to an American, who must needs occupy a standpoint at once alike and unlike M. "O'Rell" blunders freely, but perhaps not as freely as one would expect. He is over-cautious and over-credulous. He is inclined to place too much reliance on what he sees and on what he hears. The assertion, for instance, that Mrs. Langtry appeared before crowded houses in New York while Mme. Patti sang to empty benches, is not wholly in accord with the facts. In general it may be said that M. "O'Rell's" information about America is as bad as his opinion of this country.

—In a late number of the *Overland Monthly*, Mr. John Johnson, jr., gives an interesting account of rudimentary society among boys at a large school near Baltimore, in the centre of a farm of 800 acres, over which they were permitted to roam at will. When nuts are ripe small parties of boys rush to desirable trees, shake them, and then go to other trees and repeat the process. Nut hunters coming to a tree already shaken are required, by custom so strong that it is held a very grave breach of honor to violate it, to pick up all the nuts shaken down by the first party before they can shake it further. This is not without justice, for thus the labor of shaking is not lost to the first

shaker. As to bird-nests and squirrel dens another custom is established. The first finder tacks his name on the tree containing them, and his right is respected till eggs or young are ready to take away. The rights thus acquired by the act of appropriation last but one season, but the custom, which was traditional, was established only after many conflicts and fights. The appeal, as in primitive society, is now never to equity, but always to custom. After conflicts respecting the distance at which other rabbit-traps could be set from that first set, a vigorous boy destroyed all others within a radius of twenty yards, and this limit became at last established. Thus ownership of land was developed. The first trapper owned all the game within this domain, and sometimes forbade others to walk within these bounds. A disused, unbaited trap gave no rights. At length "rings" were formed, and many traps were made and set on the best spots a day or two before the opening of the trapping season. Thus the enterprising and unscrupulous boys owned a whole swamp by dotting it with traps forty yards apart, and ate their game, not without sometimes giving a joint or neck to some poorer neighbor. Rights of devise to others on leaving school were at length admitted, ownership holding over from season to season; then the tracts were sold, and at last most of the desirable land fell into the hands of a few monopolists, against whom there was a combination, and at length a reform. A currency of "butters" arose, the unit of which was the ounce allowed every boy at a meal. A rabbit's leg was sold for three, while a pair of skates was worth forty butters. As these could not be eaten at once, a clearing-house system and bills or tags of credit were devised. It is to be hoped that other similar studies will tell us more of the spontaneous out-of-school life of children.

—A serious book which we have found very amusing, on 'Degrees, Gowns, and Hoods,' has just come under our eye. Its author is the Rev. T. W. Wood, "Vicar of Eldersfield, and a Chaplain of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England, author of 'Ecclesiastical and Academical Colors,' 'Guide to Ordination,' etc." All who are interested in academic millinery will find this volume as good as a book of fashion-plates. Here we have the significance of all the gowns and hoods still used in England succinctly stated. These distinctions are very important. For example, a Doctor of Divinity in the University of Durham may wear "a scarlet cassimere hood, lined with palatinate purple silk," but he must not be confounded with a Bachelor of Medicine in the same University, who wears "a hood of scarlet silk, lined with palatinate purple silk and bound with white fur." Our object, however, in mentioning this book is to speak of the pages devoted to this country. The author informs us that, after the appearance of his preliminary list, he received "unsolicited communications from Canada, the United States, and Australia," offering to supply information in respect to "the Universities and Colleges in those distant parts." Accordingly, "copies of University Calendars, or Catalogues, as they are called in the United States," were forwarded to him—"some large volumes," but others "mere pamphlets stitched in paper covers." From these sources, apparently, the author has found out that there is a tendency in the United States "to introduce gowns and hoods for the use of graduates." In order to see how far this tendency has gone, we turned at once to the chapter on "American (U. S.) Universities." At the head of the list is "Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, founded 1801," where we are told that the gowns are of black stuff or silk, and hoods are prescribed for the degrees of B.A., M.A., B.D., D.D., LL.D., and Mus.D. Next in the list of "American U. S. Universities" comes "the General Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church, New York," with two hoods (B.D. and D.D.) "The University of the South," with a list of ten hoods, stands third in order, and "Racine College," with its six hoods, closes this list. Then comes a statement that "the following United States Universities have not yet any academical costume"; and between the names of Harvard, at the head, and Yale, at the foot, we have a list of six "Universities": Dartmouth, Williams, Pennsylvania, Columbia, Kenyon, and Boston. After these chosen eight Universities, we have a long list of the principal "Colleges" which are empowered to confer degrees, including, we find, "Peddie Institute," "Princetown College," "Decorah College," "Sheffield Scientific College," "Simpson College," "Worcester University," and so on, *ad finem*. If Mr. Wood finds as much trouble in defining the colors and furs of academic hoods as he does in giving the names of "American Universities," we shall all agree with him in thinking it to be "most desirable that a recognized hood should be granted to the Theological Colleges, about which there could be no misunderstanding on the part of the College authorities, the students, or the public."

—The recently published first volume of the general statistics of the railroads of Germany ('Statistik der im Betrieb befindlichen Eisenbahnen Deutschlands') is a mine of well-organized information in regard to almost every branch of the subject of which it treats. Although the general subject of statistics of transportation is reserved for a second volume, the information furnished by the part already issued is so much in excess of the information we receive from any publication in our own country, that the first volume seems really complete in itself. The work is hereafter to be issued periodically, and it promises to be one of the most valuable of the imperial publications. The railroads of the empire are first classified under three heads: the trunk lines, the collateral branches, and the private roads. The trunk lines at the end of 1881 amounted to 33,707 kilometres (23,020 English miles), the collateral branches 192 kilometres, and the private roads, 1,477 kilometres. The trunk roads, again, are divided into three classes—those owned and controlled by the state comprising 22,325 kilometres; those owned by corporations but controlled and administered by the state, 3,737 kilometres; and those both owned and controlled as private corporations, 7,644 kilometres. The cost of construction was 8,400 million marks, or 248,850 marks per kilometre. The entire income of the roads was 886 million marks, while the disbursements were 494 millions. Of the income, 236 million marks were derived from passengers and luggage, and 591.2 millions from freight. There are 66 insurance companies for pensioning and assisting railroad employees, with a capital of 76 million marks; and during the year under review the receipts of these companies were 13.1 million marks, and the disbursements 9.6 millions. But perhaps what will seem to an American the most striking of these statistics are those which relate to accidents. The number of travellers in the whole German Empire killed on the railroads by no fault of their own was only 5, and the number injured was only 99. The number killed or wounded, as the result of carelessness on their own part, was 138. Of the employees of the roads, for every 1,000,000 of kilometres travelled 1.14 are killed and 6.89 are injured.

—The first part of the promised work of Herr Asmus on the domestic architecture and methods of living in Europe ('Wie Europa baut und wohnt') furnishes some interesting comparisons. London, in the twenty-five years from 1856 to 1882, increased the number of its dwellings from 258,000 to 420,000. In 1882, in round numbers, 20,000 new houses were built with accommodations for 120,000 inhabitants. Berlin, in the same period, had an accession of 175,000 inhabitants, though the number of new buildings is given as only 2,118. While in London the family frequently occupies the whole house, in Berlin the system of flats prevails, and consequently, while the average number of occupants of a house is only six, in Berlin it is no less than fifty-six. In Paris the average number of occupants is twenty-five and a fraction. In point of architecture the houses of Vienna are the most elaborate and in their appointments the most luxurious, as well as the most expensive. In Brussels is to be seen the most pleasing variety of architecture, where the Gothic and the Flemish Renaissance have been combined with the most artistic results. The greatest variety, however, is to be found in Hamburg. This, in the opinion of the author, is owing to the habit of the young merchants of spending a year or two in travel and study in England and in the other parts of Europe, or, perhaps, in America. Here are to be found excellent examples of the French, the Italian, the Greek, and the German Renaissance as well as of the English Gothic. In Munich a long rivalry has been carried on between the German and the Italian Renaissance; and both of these orders have been represented by masters of extraordinary merits. In Berlin there is a very marked tendency to break away from the traditional characteristics of the Greek Renaissance, and to adopt the more modern styles. With this tendency sandstone and limestone have come to be so generally used that, in the opinion of Herr Asmus, the appearance of the city will be quite revolutionized within the next ten years.

—Some months since, a German professor, K. B. Hofmann, in the *Wiener Studien*, confirmed an old suspicion that what we call soap was unknown in antiquity. The so-called soap found at Pompeii in 1825 and again in 1875 turns out upon analysis to be nothing but a fair specimen of fuller's earth. The antique *sapo* was no soap at all, but a kind of pomatum made of grease and ashes, which the Gauls and Germans used in order to turn their hair red. Cleanliness is next to godliness, but love of personal adornment is older than the first, perhaps older than the second, and it is with a certain pride in this historical retrospect that Professor Hofmann pictures to himself his unwashed ancestors with their heads full of pomatum. The survival of this custom has been noticed by travellers almost everywhere in Germany. This philological discussion of the soap question seems to have escaped the notice of the soap-fanciers, and in like manner, it is to be feared, the discussions of the poisonous character of bull's blood will be kept out of the knowledge of the general public, who ought to be interested in it, because another learned professor has seen fit to publish his lucubrations in the special philological organ known as *Fleckeisen's Jahrbücher*. In a recent number of this journal, Professor W. H. Roscher has considered at length the question as to the poisonous character of bull's blood, which is said to have shortened the lives of sundry worthies of antiquity, most famous of whom is Themistocles. It is true that the case of Themistocles seems to have little support, but it is, nevertheless, beyond question that bull's blood was often mentioned as a virulent poison. Modern experience seems to be at war with this statement, American physicians, as Professor

Roscher's article notes, often prescribe fresh blood as a regimen, with the happiest results. Coagulation might be supposed to make a difference, but coagulation is unkind enough not to make any difference, and it is hard to believe that what is the American's meat was the Greek's poison. The explanation suggested by Prof. Karl Ludwig, of Leipzig, in response to Professor Roscher's inquiry, is that the blood of animals affected with splenic fever being very poisonous then as it is now, the prejudice extended from diseased bull's blood to healthy bull's blood; just as, we may add, trichinosis has brought into disrepute the innocent and nutritious swine. It must be confessed that it is a somewhat suspicious circumstance that most of the antique deaths that occurred by means of bull's blood were set down as suicides; and yet it is not beyond the dream of probability that a German romancer should represent a lovelorn maiden as slowly wasting away under self-administered doses of American pork.

— We have before us a late Spanish work of great interest touching the history of the early explorations in New Mexico. The author of the work, Capt. Fernandez Duro, was deputed by the Royal Academy of History at Madrid to report upon the travels and career of Diego de Peñalosa in New Mexico, and the results of his investigation are given under the following title: 'Don Diego de Peñalosa y su descubrimiento del Reino de Quivira' (Madrid, 1882). The journal of a reputed expedition made by Peñalosa in 1662, from Santa Fé to the province of Quivira (a place first made known by Coronado in 1542, who visited it on his famous journey to the seven cities of Cibola), drawn up by a Franciscan Father, Nicolas de Freitas; a summary of the Spanish explorations in New Mexico and along the Gulf; an official report made to the King of Spain in 1685, describing the provinces of New Mexico, Quivira, and Teguayo, with other accessory documents, form the main part of Capt. Fernandez's report. The authenticity of Peñalosa's journal is discussed, with unfavorable conclusions. According to his own statement, Peñalosa was Governor of New Mexico from 1661 to 1664, and although his name does not appear in the official register of the Governors of that province kept at Mexico, he is borne out in this claim by other documentary evidence. In 1684 he is found at the court of France offering his services in an expedition for the conquest of the Spanish dominions in southwestern America. To prove his familiarity with the country, and to excite the cupidity of Louis XIV., he presents the narrative of his pretended journey to Quivira, showing the great riches that might be acquired by conquest. When we consider that his journal presents no information which the reports of the journeys of previous travellers (Coronado in 1542, Humaña in 1599, Oñate in 1605) do not afford, coupled with the fact that the archives of Spain, the contemporary histories, and Posadas, who recounts the explorations from 1605 to 1684, fail to give any account of Peñalosa, we must share the distrust which Fernandez entertains of his narrative. It seems quite likely that Peñalosa, after becoming embroiled with the Spanish authorities, and being deposed from the Governorship, should, in furtherance of the plan which he conceived for the destruction of the Spanish power in New Mexico, have made up from the relations of Coronado and others an account embellished with some marvellous descriptions. It will be remembered, however, that Dr. Shea, in 1882, brought out the original text of De Freitas's recital, with a translation and accompanying documents, mainly in order to establish La Salle's complicity in Peñalosa's designs against Spain. Captain Fernandez discusses this matter, and prints the documents bearing upon it. The most important part of his report is the bibliographical section, which indicates original authorities upon the expeditions sent from New Mexico from 1523 to 1783 for the discovery of the territories of the North, especially those to Cibola, Quivira, and Teguayo Quivira has been variously placed on the Mississippi, about midway of its course (Fernandez Duro), northeast of the Missouri (Shea), near the boundary between the States of Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri (Simpson), and west of the Platte (Savage). Some early Spanish maps show it southeast of Santa Fé, which, however, is manifestly not the Quivira of Coronado.

—The United States Transit of Venus Commission, under whose direction all the operations undertaken by our Government in connection with the transits of 1874 and 1882 were carried out, has lately communicated a statement with regard to the conduct of its affairs and the reduction of the observations. The number of parties organized for the observation of the transit of 1882 was eight, four of which were sent to the southern hemisphere, the other four remaining in the United States. The foreign stations were, with their Chief Astronomers, as follows: Wellington, South Africa, Professor Simon Newcomb; Santa Cruz, Patagonia, Lieutenant Samuel W. Very; Santiago de Chile, Professor Lewis Boss; Auckland, New Zealand, Mr. Edwin Smith. The home stations were Washington, D. C., Professor William Harkness; Cedar Keys, Florida, Professor John R. Eastman; San Antonio, Texas, Professor Asaph Hall; Cerro Roblero, New Mexico, Professor George Davidson. In addition to these parties, there were two others, equipped wholly or in part at private expense, but whose operations were conducted in such a way as to insure the strict comparability of their work with that of the Government parties. One of these was stationed at Princeton, New Jersey, in charge of Professor Charles A. Young, and the other at the Lick Observatory, Mount Hamilton, California, in charge of Professor David P. Todd. The photographic results will be derived from the labors of these two parties in the same way as from the Government photographs, and the final report will contain the work of all ten parties on a uniform plan. The Commission's report states that, on the day of the last transit, the sky was perfectly clear at about half the stations, while at the remainder clouds impeded the work more or less, but nowhere to the extent of producing failure. The number of photographic plates obtained at all the stations, and which will be available for measurement, are in the aggregate nearly fourteen hundred, of which about eight hundred were obtained in the northern hemisphere and six hundred in the southern. They are distributed with a fair evenness among the ten stations, except that Auckland and Washington were unfortunate in obtaining very few. The reductions of all these photographic observations are now going on, four computers being employed in the work. The photographs obtained at three of the stations have already been measured, and some progress has been made in the reductions based upon these measurements. It is believed that the sun's distance derivable from the transits of Venus in 1874 and 1882 must depend chiefly upon the photographs; and when it is remembered that the conditions of weather on the former occasion were so unfavorable as to allow only between two and three hundred available negatives to be made in both hemispheres, the remarkable success of the operations during the transit of December, 1882, will be apparent. If no unforeseen delay occurs, probably the definitive result from the photographs of both these transits of Venus can be arrived at in about four years.

—Steinway Hall was completely filled on Saturday afternoon when Mr. Theodore Thomas and an orchestra of Philharmonic musicians gave the second of the series of concerts for young people. The young people were of all ages, from five to seventy-five, and the only difference between the young and the old seemed to be that the former often frankly expressed by a beaming countenance the satisfaction which, in the case of their elders, assumed the appearance of more placid enjoyment, while both shared in the applause. If any one had doubted that children could enjoy simple orchestral music and remain absolutely quiet while listening to it, these doubts would have been dispelled on Saturday. The concert opened with Mozart's "Magic Flute" overture, and closed with Strauss's "Blue Danube" waltz. The Dance of the Blessed in the Elysian Fields, and the Dance of the Furies, from Gluck's "Orpheus," formed a fascinating number. Comparing this with the orchestral arrangement of Weber's Invitation to the Dance, which followed later on, it was interesting to note the difference between the antique quiet and stately dance rhythms of Gluck and the excited, rapid, passionate movement of Weber's waltz, the forerunner of those gems of Chopin and Strauss which embody the psychology of love more completely than all the lyric verse of the poets. The allegretto from Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, Rossini's "Tell" overture, and Gounod's quaint "Funeral March of a Marionette" formed the remaining orchestral numbers. Vocal numbers were contributed by Miss Ella Earle, who sang two Schubert songs with a pleasant voice and good expression, and by Mr. Remmertz, who sang Schumann's "Two Grenadiers" with so much vigor and impressive tone quality that he was obliged to repeat the Marseillaise part of it. There can be no doubt, to judge by the large attendance at the first two matinées, that these concerts will become a permanent feature of our musical seasons. Next year it will probably be found necessary to expand them into a regular series of popular matinées, supplementary to the Philharmonic concerts.

RECENT NOVELS.

All in a Garden Fair. By Walter Besant. Harpers' Franklin Square Library.

Round the Galley Fire. By W. Clark Russell. Harpers' Franklin Square Library.

The Bread-Winners. A Social Study. Harpers. 1884.

Hand and Ring. By the Author of 'The Leavenworth Case.' G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Vagabondia. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

Judith. A Chronicle of Old Virginia. By Marion Harland. Philadelphia: *Our Continent* Publishing Co.

Arius, the Libyan. An Idyl of the Primitive Church. D. Appleton & Co.

Guenn. A Wave on the Breton Coast. By Blanche Willis Howard. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The Mate of the Daylight, and Friends Ashore. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Jewel in the Lotos. By Mary Agnes Tincker. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Adrian Bright. By Mrs. Cady. Harpers' Franklin Square Library.

MR. WALTER BESANT, now that the partnership formerly existing between him and Mr. Rice is

unhappily dissolved, writes novels marked by a peculiar vein of fancy, which, if we must criticise it, we should be inclined to call a little unbalanced. Mr. Rice did something to balance it. 'All in a Garden Fair' is slightly grotesque. It does not want humor, but lacks judgment in the use of humor. It is, in fact, a confessed extravaganza—the taste for this kind of literary production seems to be growing—but then even an extravaganza may be too extravagant. For instance, the idea of the little community of retired bankrupts with which the book opens, is a very good one, but it hardly bears the elaborate development Mr. Besant gives it. The notion of a place where the consequence of a man depends on the magnitude of the sum for which he has failed in business is amusing, but it is here worked up till its absurdity begins to bore us. The ingenuity, resource, and fancy of Mr. Besant are so great that he is better equipped for novel-writing than many of his rivals of greater repute. Nor does he exhaust himself, as so many of them do. He needs the sort of balance which Mr. Rice's judgment seems to have supplied, and wrote better when he was, if we may use such an expression, collaborated, than he now does alone.

Mr. Russell has established for himself a peculiar literary position. He has almost a monopoly of the marine-fiction market, and is the author of more sea stories than any one else has produced since the days of Cooper and Marryat. Some of his short stories are among his best, and we doubt if any one can look through his last collection without finding something to his taste. The tale of the ship which put to sea with a bailiff who came on board to commence proceedings in admiralty, has a racy, rollicking flavor of reality, particularly in the description of the rage of the narrator (the mate) at the captain's being warned that one of the consequences would be his having "to purge" in court (*i. e.*, to purge himself of his contempt). The essay on sea songs and the false sea lingo used in them would be more to the purpose if the audience generally cared very much for accuracy in these matters. Sea songs and sea stories, if successful, are mainly written for landsmen, who would like "A wet sheet and a flowing sea" just about as well whether the author knew, or did not know, that the image called up to the nautical mind by the line is that of a small fore-and-aft-rigged vessel going before the wind, and very much pressed over.

We frequently referred to 'The Bread-Winners' while it was running through the pages of the *Century*. It may be described as a story of American life by a genial American cynic. It introduces us to the extremes of trades-unionism and fashionable life in an American city of the type represented by Cleveland, Ohio. The "Bread-Winners" are a trade-union, marked by that hatred of work and envy of the rich which the author evidently considers the distinguishing characteristics of American labor-reformers. The leading spirit among them is a thief and would-be murderer. The female type corresponding to this is given in Maud Matchin, a product of parental neglect, circulating libraries, and fashion newspapers. Vanity and greed are Maud's foibles, and if she is not a very agreeable character, that is not the author's fault. There are probably many hundred Mauds in real life in the United States who will not, perhaps, recognize the portrait themselves, but it will be recognized for them by their mothers and fathers, or more probably their uncles, aunts, and the clergymen under whom they teach, or escape from teaching, Sunday-school. Farnham is a sketch of an American gentleman; but, for some reason, the American gentleman is very hard to draw, and is apt to be a little too good to be true. In novels this type occupies a relation to the actual man of the world analogous to that in which the old-fashioned hero of romance stood to the actual gentleman of his day. The American gentleman has, no doubt, a high standard of good manners; but in American novels he has too good manners—just as the hero used to be so heroic that we could not endure him. Farnham is a good attempt: he is what we should call always the gentleman—but then that is different from being a gentleman. Judging from internal evidence, 'The Bread-Winners' was not originally intended as a "study," but the author, after laying the foundations for a long novel—and laying them carefully—reduced it to the proportions of a sketch, perhaps finding the labor involved in the execution of the original plan too great.

'Hand and Ring' would not have gained for the author the fame which followed the 'Leavenworth Case.' It is ingenious in combinations, and it accumulates one dilemma upon another in a fashion worthy of Boisgobey; but such a story depends for its success upon the completeness of the surprise at the end. Here the main interest is hopelessly broken by an attempt to transfer it from one centre to another. The situation into which the pair of lovers is thrown is admirably contrived. The man is on trial for murder; the woman affirms her own guilt; and yet, to the experienced observer, each proves his and her own innocence by the struggle to conceal the mutual conviction that the other is the murderer. After that moment the sympathy of the reader is lost; for, startling as it may be to find that the counsel for the defence is, after all, the guilty one, the reader has not been led up to it, and, in any case, no one cares much to convict a dead man. The tramp, hackneyed as the device would be, might better have been used. It would be difficult to draw the line beyond which it will not do to go in this kind of stories, but the incident of the detective's stratagem is clearly beyond it. Every one feels it an outrage that must be impossible, and just so much of the effect of reality is lost.

'Vagabondia,' Mrs. Burnett writes in the preface, was her first novel. Had it been her only one there could have been no reason for reprinting it. As it is, it is welcome with all its juvenile sins upon its head. Only a tyro could have made a hero of such an idiot (no other word will do). Yet the book has the promise of much that came after. The sisters, so convincingly beautiful that they need no adjectives from the author, are of one kin with the 'Fair Barbarian.' That picture presupposed more than one preliminary study, and we are glad to see some of them in this book.

A story from Marion Harland is a return upon old days when Mrs. Southworth and Mrs. Lee Hentz were in fashion, as fashion in novels of that sort goes. Marion Harland told always a story full of incidents and of brave and handsome men and women. It was, in short, of the romantic school, as that school was understood in the Old Dominion, but always pure and high in motive. The present 'Chronicle' is of fifty years ago, and made to include a much earlier time by stories within the story. Readers whose standard is set by the great novels will not care at all for it, but the many who like a story because it is a story, might do much worse than to read this. It is a striking coincidence that while the book was published just as accounts were coming of the blue and green suns observed last autumn in the Indian Archipelago, it contains a vivid description of the same appearance in Virginia long ago, of which there remain many traditions:

"The tranquil landscape lay now like an accursed region. The sun shone in an unclouded sky. There was no haze about it. The awful change was in the burning disk itself, or in the light emitted by it: some declared that both were blue; others that they were green. . . . At the corner of the house were collected the negroes. Mothers had babies in their arms; two or three sick persons had arisen from bed and dressed hastily in the first garments that came to hand."

The contrast between the real and the imagined, even in the hands of a fairly good writer, is strikingly shown in the account first of what a young girl saw as the light shone on the family group at morning prayers, and then of the interview between the scared negroes and their master. The first must be the story of an eye-witness. We are sorry it is too long to quote.

'Arius, the Libyan' is called "a theological novel" by an approving critic who holds a position of authority in matters of theology; but if even he "would not want to be answerable for either the theological or historical accuracy of the book," what can the secular mind do but assert its preference for dates not a century out of the way, and for such grouping and rendering of facts as shall bear some relation to the accepted accounts of history? The Codex Alexandrinus which the story makes the gift of the betrothed of Arius to him, "bearing yet upon its priceless pages the endorsement of Arius," was not written for at least a hundred years after his death. Besides, we hold it a duty to insist that words shall be used in their accepted meanings. That cannot be an *idyl* which contains two deaths at the stake, the whole of the Nicene Council, and the death of Arius after his long imprisonment. Only two or three chapters have anything idyllic about them, and the rest makes no subject for a novel. The author's strong admiration for the sturdy self-reliance of Arius makes his story forcible, but it would have been much more to the purpose to have studied the subject more thoroughly and then have made a biographical sketch. To parcel out long discussions between sundry interlocutors, and to call Athanasius "a beautiful young man," does not make a novel.

Two or three obvious deductions have to be made before reaching an estimate of 'Guenn.' The frontispiece is a mistake for which we hardly think the author responsible: it is just so much in the way of everything that is said of the beauty and the grace of the heroine. It is a brave venture to choose a subject so sad that only great merit in the telling of the story can ever bring the reader back to it. In the matter of characterization, it may be questioned whether so selfish a nature as Hamor's could be so cold. When these things have been said, it is pleasant to give to the rest thorough and hearty praise. This book goes by all the others that the author has written, back to the first half of 'One Summer,' and fulfils the promise that made. There is the same clear and distinct expression of the idea in the composer's mind—the going straight to the mark that is only possible when there is a mark to go to. At the same time, the book shows the effects of longer and wider experience. This one feels not so much in fulness of narrative, but in the strict limitation of character and action. Only the narrow mind writes out all it holds. The most remarkable thing about the book is its forbearance—the withholding of the hand. The story has in it all the possibilities of the tragedy that is at once the most sensational and the most commonplace in fiction. It is no ordinary power that makes such a story original in plot, and faithful to truth in the conditions in which it was imagined.

"Guenn," the fairest and the shyest of the girls among the fisher-folk in a little coast village of Brittany, is coveted and won by an

artist for his model. Wakened to new life by contact with finer natures, the girl throws her whole soul into her hopes for the success of the picture, and into her devotion to the artist. The work done, he departs as lightly as he came, and the poor child is broken-hearted—broken-hearted, not dishonored; and therein appears the originality of the story. We have already suggested the doubt whether so selfish a nature would be so negative a one, but the character will bear study, and the artist will prove to be only a man of ready talent, with not genius enough to have even its faults. But this carries us to profounder reasoning than the author herself ever thought of.

Miss Jewett's stories need no commendation, but we delay a moment to mark them as another example, of which there are so few among the works of women, of that careful study which finds and brings out what we have to call the negative side of life. The world is accustomed to such positiveness and downrightness of fact and motive that it does not often realize the force of what does not happen—the meaning of *not doing*. Of the stories before us, "The New Parishioner" and "The Only Son" are striking illustrations, and, at the same time, are by far the most interesting. Miss Jewett, moreover, has a style, in the true sense, a manner of expression, fitting and beautiful, and her own.

The same cannot be said of the author of the 'Jewel in the Lotos.' Perhaps dress may be *dowdy* and rivers *wriggle* in polite literature, but when in the midst of a moonlight scene which, one is expected to believe, is all that is poetic and inspiring, "the imagination begins to hum," the style is, at least, not elegant. The story suggests echoes, far off, indeed, of writers as unlike as "Ouida" and Mr. James. This, it may be, accounts in part for the tameness of effect produced even by incidents of the true sensational character. A gentleman's climbing into a lady's balcony by late moonlight is either a piece of high-flown romance or something worse than burglary. The author does not know how to make it the one, and does not dare to make it the other, so it all falls flat. Nor is this for want of fine writing, as the reader may judge from the following (the old man is the guardian of the heroine):

"Engrossed in study of those ever-living truths which still stand green amid the snows of age and in the frozen polar ring of death, unblanched by the electric breath of passing souls or strange visionary auroras circling round that icy mystery beneath the dim funereal torch of the North Star of life, his mind was never shocked by being pelted with the faded weeds of earth."

'Adrian Bright' will give the same sort of pleasure to the reader as he gets from some of his acquaintances—people whose goings-on seem to him altogether unwarrantable, who never accomplish much, nor say anything to be remembered, but who are bright, chatty people, who always have a good time themselves, and are always ready to share it with their friends. The hero and heroine could not be of less account and maintain their positions. One takes but a mild interest in their fortunes as compared with the ways and deeds of a family of artist associations and occupations, as nearly Bohemian as the respectability of Welbeck Street will permit. It is rather a curious study, the pass to which Bohemianism has come under the influence of the æsthetic craze, and the author has succeeded very well in rendering it with hearty appreciation and yet keeping all the time her own little smile of amusement. There is rather too much of it, and the jealous young woman had better have been left out; nevertheless, the book is good for an hour or two of entertainment.

ORVILLE DEWEY.

Autobiography and Letters of Orville Dewey, D.D. Edited by his daughter, Mary E. Dewey. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1883.

ONE cannot but think this an inadequate book. Dr. Dewey lived a very long life in the midst of exciting intellectual and political questions, and in one province of liberal thought he was a leader. A brief autobiography such as this, which tells next to nothing about its author's personality, even when eked out by selections from his correspondence with his ministerial or parochial friends, seems a slight memorial, especially as the letters, for the most part, have merely a friendly interest. Clergymen, it may be, like actors, have only a contemporary history; but within the limits of his own time Dr. Dewey's position and influence might have been more forcibly and intelligibly marked. As the matter stands, it is as if the volume were written in the last generation and meant to be read "in the forties," when the names of the old Unitarian divines were household words in New England.

The sketch of his own life by the aging clergyman opens in an old-fashioned way with reminiscences of a Massachusetts that has gone by, and it goes on rambling in both style and subject. The village of Sheffield, where he was born in 1794; the town-worthies, with their common library of 200 volumes, who read Pope and Johnson instead of the *Herald*, and quoted 'Paradise Lost' instead of stocks; the meeting-house, not too sacred then to be used for a play in which the child himself acted; the militia parade on training-day; the games in the street, quoit-throwing, running, horse-racing, the serenading boys—all the lost out-door sports that make the New England of that time seem like the merry England of old, even if Christmas was unknown to young Orville (named out of 'Evelina') except by the yule log that the Irish laborer, Richard, would bring in; the school-ma'am; the large-limbed, pale, hollow-cheeked minister, with his awful "Come here, child"; the heretic uncle, who, on his death-bed, informed the professionally-calling clergyman, "Sir, I desire neither your conversation nor your prayers"—all this he describes vividly, as if it were of yesterday.

The note, so struck, sounds on, although mournfully less, through his college days, his pastorates at Gloucester, Boston, and New Bedford; and when it dies out, the finest charm of his volume is lost with it. At New Bedford, for example, there was the old alchemist, Dr. Whittredge, of Tiverton, who kept a fire burning for forty years in search of the alluring secret, but never mentioned it except once after sermon time—"Ah, sir, this is the true doctrine! But it wants money—it wants money, sir, to spread it, and *I hope it will have it before long.*" At New Bedford, too, observation of an old deacon seems to have furnished Dr. Dewey with his extraordinary analysis of genius, which is too exquisitely materialistic not to be quoted, as coming from such lips: "The sanguine-bilious, I think, is the temperament for deep intellectual power—like Daniel Webster's. It lends not only strength, but protection, to the workings of the mind within. . . . I believe that I should have accomplished a great deal more if I had had, not the sanguine alone, but the sanguine-bilious temperament. Manasseh Kempton had it. He was the deacon, etc."

Whether it was the lack of the bilious element or not, Dr. Dewey was apparently dissatisfied with the results of his life. Through many difficulties he had made his way to a foremost place as an orator of his sect, only to be forced to leave his station in his prime because of some disease in the brain. Two or three characteristics only come out in his letters; noticeably, he disliked the special formalisms of "the cloth" and some of the duties that go with that profession, and, secondly, he never made up his mind. Early in life he regarded the reform he was helping to set going as the most important since the Reformation, and he spoke of preaching as the principal ministration of religion. As he went on he set more value on the religious mood simply, independently of its intellectual form; and at last, under the influence of Mansel, Spencer, and the comparative study of religions, he evidently came to the brink of that intellectual apathy which it is the fashion to call agnosticism. But there he stopped, holding fast to the emotional convictions bred by the habits of a life-time. In regard to the practical part of a clergyman's business, he was strongly of the belief that, as a class, the profession was much injured by the constant drain on the sympathy and the gradual loss of genuine feeling occasioned by private ministrations in families during times of trouble; indeed, he goes so far, in characterizing the debilitating effects of such experience, as to say "we are a sort of moral eunuchs." Not to put too much stress on the matter, he clearly wished the clergy to become secularized—if one may say so; to stand on a level with other men and among their kind, instead of being embalmed in the odors of sanctity and used on occasions of dread as a kind of fetish to charm off the Evil One. In this he may have gone too far, but he had much to ground his opinion on, as appears by his humorous description of the position of a clergyman at Washington in 1852, as he found it himself: "The gayety passes him by; the politics pass him by. Nobody wants him; nobody holds him by the button but some desperate, dilapidated philanthropist. People say, while turning a corner, 'How do you do, Doctor?' which is very much as if they said, 'How do you do, Abstraction?' I live in a 'lone conspicuity,' preach in a vacuum, and call, with much ado, to find nobody." Somehow, it was plain, the profession had lost its hold in the capital, and there was some glimmering of truth, at least, in his explanation of the matter.

Outside of his own domain, Dr. Dewey made no mark. He was not built to be a tower of strength to any cause. Just before the war, in the fall of 1859, he writes in italics, "*I can't take a side*"; and a man who could make such a confession then was meant for the rear. There is no doubt either of his disapproval of slavery or his loyalty, but he lacked courage to take the consequences of his thoughts; he wished "to wear round" the question; he desired to be "agreeable" to the South, and all that. One need not dwell upon this now, but it will be time enough to forget and forgive when the apologists for such conduct in such men are less numerous and more humble. This inability to take a side in politics is, however, only another phase of the same mind which in old age seems to have been doubtful of all the religious questions. There are few finer examples of the growth of irresolution in the mind than is here indicated; had it not been for the vague abstractions of Hegel and the optimism fostered by the theory of evolution, the intellectual fate of Dr. Dewey might have been melancholy. It must be said, however, that his memory is more honored by his own published works than by this posthumous volume, which is remarkably destitute of any literary or intellectual interest.

Folk-Lore of Shakspere. By the Rev. T. F. Thiselton Dyer, M.A., Oxon. Harper & Brothers. 1884.

MR. DYER has explained in this volume the

references made by Shakspere to the popular beliefs of his time on such subjects as fairies, ghosts, witches, the virtues of jewels or herbs, and the like, and also to the habits and customs of the nation in respect to marriage, burial, holidays, dances, etc. In the chapters on these topics he gives the substance of several separate monographs, such as Patterson's 'Insects Mentioned by Shakspere,' Hastings's 'Ornithology of Shakspere,' Ellacombe's 'Plant-Lore of Shakspere,' Beisly's 'Shakspere's Garden,' Bucknill's 'Medical Knowledge of Shakspere,' to all of which he makes ample acknowledgment, as well as to such well-known general authorities as Douce, Halliwell-Phillipps, Brand, Nares, Dyce, Furnivall, and other antiquarians. Thus, as these references indicate, his work is rather a compilation than the fruit of original research, and is a sort of dictionary to so much of Shakspere's subject, contradistinguished from his language, as has passed out of common knowledge. Such a volume has two uses—to elucidate the text and to illustrate the raw material on which Shakspere's mind worked. In regard to the first of these, as no strikingly new interpretations are suggested and none of the old difficulties are cleared up, it is unnecessary to say anything except to commend the lucid arrangement of the contents for the purpose of reference, and the thoroughness and fairness of the discussion of doubtful points. To this we will add only an expression of surprise at the single remark, "A pack of cards was formerly termed 'a deck of cards.'" The phrase certainly shows no sign of obsolescence in this country.

Of more interest to the general reader is the second use of this volume, as illustrative of the gross matter that Shakspere etherealized into poetry. It is most common now to take the coincidences of his dramas with contemporary life and thought as witnessing the keenness of his observation and the fidelity of his representation, as if the one were an unusual gift and the other a conscious virtue. In a sense, this is true; the knowledge which has almost approved him to the professions severally as one of themselves shows a wide acquaintance with men and books, and the present volume exhibits very plainly his familiarity with old wives' tales. Possibly, as is claimed, his mind might have furnished a universal gazetteer of the information of his age—not only of its learning, but of its folk-lore. There seem to be gaps, however, in his acquaintance with both these; he was neither a Roger Bacon nor a Grimm. In fact, what he knew best was the living knowledge of his time—that which was in people's minds and on their lips. The realism of his dramas, the debt they owe to actual life within his experience of its outward show, was not so much an effort of conscious art as the natural way of writing. So difficult is it for a modern to look on the drama as anything but the most artificial form of composition, that a poet, when he writes one, seems stepping on stilts; and a scholar, when he wishes to hear one, would rather go to his closet to read than to the theatre to listen. If one muse is more antiquated than another nowadays, it is Melpomene. But in old times the drama was as spontaneous to the popular heart as a ballad. It is sometimes remarked that the lyric, the simplest form of verse, is the dramatist's song (admirably shown by Shakspere); and, analogously, the drama in its perfection partakes of the unpremeditated outburst of the lyric in its essential nature.

Not to wander too far from the subject in hand, it seems to us that Shakspere's acquaintance with the folk-lore or other knowledge of his time evinces this intimate relation of the drama to the people rather than any special element in his genius or rules of art adopted by his own choice. He was merely the successor of the old ballad-singer, who stood in the market or the hall and sang ancient lays. He felt, perhaps not less by the secret intuition of genius than by the necessities of the development of drama as a national art, that he must bring on the stage the shearing-feast, the betrothal, the revels, the fairies'-court, the witches' Sabbath, the poor ghost, the coranto and canary and upspring; must wake pathos by the birds and flowers about which fit associations had clustered in old legends; must astonish with the unicorn, and the phœnix on the lone Arabian tree, and the anthropophagi; must, in short, make the springs of poetry gush from their early fountains in the sense of beauty in rustic surroundings, of wonder in rustic superstition, of pleasure in rustic exercises. He used the contemporary life of the city in the same way for wit, and the court for splendor or satire; but it is the "merrie England" of the country lads and lassies that gives his dramas the freshness of their charm.

Therefore, while, by the light of this book, the realism of Shakspere is acknowledged and laid to heart, the fact that he wore his realism "with a difference" ought not to be lost sight of. He was bred in the school of the people—that was all. He rose from them to the height of human imagination thereby. In our days it seems rather that realism is a condescension of the better to the worse, a stooping down of the mind to pick its golden coin out of the mire; not a people's life elevated in a man's, but a man's life debased into a people's. One cannot help noting, too, in the same connection, what there was really beautiful and noble in the England of Shakspere—what fine poetic elements were ready to the hand (although there was so much besides that was coarse, drunken, and lecherous, only endurable to art under the disguise of humor, if at all). The holidays, the games and dances, the feasts, the songs and proverbs, the freedoms and jollities, the pretty tales that made the redbreast and the pansy nearer of kin to mankind, the solemn offices of religion, the old Norse superstition that peopled the earth with sprites and elves and goblins—all this, and more, lived anew in his imagination; but now, when the Maypoles are cut down, and there are pianos in the farmers' houses, and the old-fashioned flowers bloom neglected, and the sad tale that little Mamillius would have told so softly "yond crickets should not hear it," has given way to stories out of Ariosto and Browning, who can be surprised that the English poets study Theocritus and leave realism to the French?

If any one would see how realism as a term of criticism is, like any watchword of any party, merely a bundle of prejudices, he could not do better than examine, by the aid of this volume, how Shakspere, the prince of realists, and able besides to give a local habitation and a name to airy nothings, dealt with the matter that his senses brought to him, so that the witches he shuddered at in his boyhood gained a sort of dignity that confounds them in the mind with the Norns of the North and the Fates of the South, and *Oberon* and *Titania* are as credible as *Bottom*. We have no space to point out the slight increments of fact, the mere sharpening of distinctions, the unnoticed clarifying of detail by which he transformed, or rather perfected, the creations of popular fancy and the festivals of the yeomanry, as in the "Midsummer Night's Dream" and "A Winter's Tale"; but the young author who thinks a note-book his best offering at Delphi may well read and ponder. Let any man who can trust his own judgment take this book, which is a compendium of Shakspere's local and temporal realism, and settle how much, after all, would "Lear" be injured were all this knowledge here contained erased from human records.

La Gravure en Italie avant Marc Antoine (1452–1505). Par le Vicomte Henri Delaborde. Bibliothèque Internationale de l'Art. 1883.

It is not surprising that M. Delaborde, with his rare advantages, his critical powers, and his refined artistic perceptions, should rank as a leading European authority on all points relating to prints and their history. The department of engravings at the National Library, Paris, over which he has presided for many years, contains, as he states in an historical notice, printed in 1875, more than two million two hundred thousand prints, some of which are unique, and many of exceeding rarity and value. During the terrible days of the Commune their fate trembled in the balance, and there is no doubt that the destruction of the building, with all its precious contents—a catastrophe which would have ranked in history with the burning of the Alexandrian Library—was averted by the courage, the patience, and the judgment of the officials, among whom M. Delaborde and his assistants were conspicuous. This entitles them to that sympathy which we feel for men who have shown an heroic disregard of personal risk in the discharge of duty, and gives to any work by M. Delaborde an interest apart from its special value.

In the history of engraving during the half century discussed in his pages, disputed points present themselves, from time to time, which involve questions of German or Italian precedence in invention, relative technical merit, etc.—questions too often decided by national prejudice when the judge himself belongs to either nation. Being a Frenchman, M. Delaborde has at least no inherited bias, and his temperately though firmly asserted opinions help singularly to lift the reader out of the region of controversy, and to shed light, where light is possible, into dark places. So, also, in doubtful matters connected with Italian schools of engraving, his calm judgment, fortified by experience, has persuasive power, especially as his opinions are always supported by reasonable arguments. M. Delaborde's volume opens with a discussion of one of the most hotly-disputed of all artistic questions involving national claims—namely, whether priority in the discovery of chalcography belongs to Germany or to Italy. In his opinion the printing on paper from a metal plate is an accidental and secondary fact, which may have occurred almost simultaneously in Germany and Italy; but as he considers the actual date of a print of little consequence in comparison with its comparative merit, he is unwilling to acknowledge that the famous Pax of Maso Finiguerra (1452), from which a unique impression exists in the National Library at Paris, has lost anything of its historic value by M. Renouvier's discovery of the German Passion suite of 1446, now in the Berlin Museum, the clumsily-executed work of an anonymous image-maker. He agrees with M. George Duplessis in considering the Florentine Pax to be the first real work of art in engraving, and therefore regards Maso Finiguerra as the real inventor of the process. Here we may note that while these gentlemen thus endorse Finiguerra's claims, Bartsch, Renouvier, Lippmann, and other authorities doubt their validity, and Passavant goes so far as to suggest that Finiguerra may have learned to take impressions of engraved work on paper from Roger van der Weyde, who visited Italy about the middle of the fifteenth century. In his argument M. Delaborde prefers æsthetic to strictly chronological grounds. Finiguerra, he says, invented engraving, since he

was the first to divine and reveal its real resources—the first to raise a simple industrial process to the height of a means of expressing the Beautiful. At the same time, he does not refuse their share of honor to the early German engravers—witness the following passage: "So long as nothing is shown but that which is shown, so long as nothing is found (and this is impossible) among the prints anterior to the second half of the fifteenth century equal in merit to the prints engraved a few years later, Finiguerra and his associates in Italy, the master of 1466, and Martin Schongauer, in Germany, will rightfully maintain the reputation which these prints have obtained for them, and the rôle which has been attributed to them." We do not deny, he says elsewhere, that engravings with the burin were made in Germany or the Low Countries before Finiguerra, but that in Italy or elsewhere any engraver before him had done really artistic work. He was the first in Italy who multiplied engraved work by pressure, and thus his Pax impression marks in some sort the official birth of engraving in Italy.

Xylography is accepted by our author as a German invention, and about this there can hardly be two opinions, as no Italian woodcut is known of so early a date as the Buxheim St. Christopher (1423); as the first German blockbooks were printed about twenty-five years before the first Italian work illustrated with woodcuts (1467); and, finally, as the playing cards with stamped and painted figures, whose importation was prohibited by a Venetian edict in 1441, were in all probability stencilled and not printed. It does not, however, follow, that the earliest Italian book-illustrations, those which adorn the pages of the 'Meditations' of Juan Torquemada (Rome, 1467), are of German design, as claimed by Lippmann, although the book was printed by a German printer, Ulrich Han. These illustrations, as M. Delaborde points out, reproduced the paintings executed by order of Cardinal Juan Torquemada on the walls of the cloister of S. Maria Maggiore, at Rome. The peculiar manner of treating draperies, the costumes of the figures, the cypress trees introduced in some of the backgrounds, and the general style, all attest their Italian origin.

We must refer those who are curious as to M. Delaborde's opinions upon the so-called Tarrocchi cards, the Monte Sancto di Dio, and the illustrations to Landini's Dantesque treatise, which pass under the name of Baldini as the engraver and of Botticelli as the designer, to the pages of his book in which they are discussed. There, too, he will find mention of Robetta, of Pollajuolo, and of Mantegna, the most inspired and the most able of all engravers before Marc Antonio. Of all his predecessors, Mantegna (says M. Delaborde) best deserves to be called a master of the first rank, from his elevated feeling and the originality of his style. Unlike Marc Antonio, who had a Raphael at his elbow, he drew everything from himself. His processes were poor; his want of experience in the treatment of light and shade was great; but, under a rough exterior, what a force of sentiment and poetry is perceptible! In the history of art, his name personifies "une âme, et une âme d'élite."

The Destructive Influence of the Tariff. By J. Schoenhof. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883.

DURING the summer of 1882 Mr. Schoenhof contributed to the *Evening Post* a number of letters entitled: "A Tariff for Protection—Of What?" These letters have been reprinted, with some additions, and are now published by the Messrs. Putnam for the New York Free Trade Club under the title given above. They make a convenient little volume of about 100 pages, packed with well-arranged figures and condensed arguments. The chief significance of the book is that it is the work of a manufacturer and appeals directly to manufacturers. The familiar cry of "doctrinaire" and "theorist" cannot be raised against such an author, and the Free Trade Club can do no more effective work than to press the circulation of this book among millowners. Sweet are the uses of adversity, and, if the present deplorable state of business shall open the eyes of the "protected" to the ruinous consequences of their stupid greed, we may well rejoice in it. The evidence is overwhelming that nearly every protected industry suffers more from the duties levied on its raw materials than it can possibly gain from the duties on its finished products. At the best it can secure only the home market, for protective duties do not help it when it tries to export its products, while the duties on its materials hinder it. Hence, as Mr. Schoenhof graphically shows, when there is any overproduction, a fierce and suicidal competition arises for the home market. The disturbance, which under natural conditions would be modified by its diffusion through the markets of the world, is pent up and intensified by our barbarous restrictions, until goods are slaughtered like stocks in a Wall Street panic.

The generous and enlightened spirit displayed by Mr. Schoenhof upon the subject of high wages is one of the most attractive features in his book. English manufacturers, although free-traders, are too apt to mourn over the high wages that they are compelled to pay in comparison with the low wages of France and Belgium. They look at the matter not only from the point of view of the capitalist, but also with the bias of the capitalist. Mr. Schoenhof writes as a capitalist, but with none of the hard, narrow feeling of the "master." He recognizes and emphasizes the fact—which is, to be sure, a truism with economists—that high wages mean highly productive labor, and that there is more profit in employing intelligent, skilful, and efficient workmen, and paying them well, than in employing bad workmen and paying them poorly. As he says, the use of machinery has wrought a revolution in economics. Where machinery is little used, labor is degraded; or rather, where machinery is much used, labor is elevated. Hence the figures industriously collected by the protectionists through the Department of State and otherwise, showing the low rates of wages in foreign countries, are ingeniously turned against them by Mr. Schoenhof, who proves that in the nail-making industry, for example, the labor cost in American-made goods is about 35 per cent. less, while the earnings of the laborer are 350 per cent. more, than in the Taunus district in Germany. This portion of his work is admirably executed, and is full of excellent ammunition for free traders. The excessive stimulation of the tariff has resulted in congestion. Manufacturers are now crowding each other so hard that an extremely irritable state of mind is prevalent among them, and there are abundant signs that the league that has so long dictated the legislation of Congress is in danger of disruption. Should the leaders once fall out, there would be a chance for some other members of the community to get their dues. We trust that the arguments of Mr. Schoenhof may effectively contribute to this end.

The Storied Sea. By Susan E. Wallace. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

THIS is one of the books which have no other apparent cause of existence than the itch for writing, and have yet no artistic quality which justifies the critic in putting them on the shelf of the Permanent. But for the air of forced gayety which pervades it we might class it as a cricket abroad: its chirp is attractive when you hear the first note, but becomes wearisome and betrays imitation, run through a volume even as short as is this. As romance, it lacks the dramatic quality of invention, and as travel it lacks the objective veracity. It is neither keen as observation nor just as reflection, and what strikes one above all things is that the authoress went out decided to see certain things and came home to write what she wished she had seen. A book of superlatives, even of Victor Hugo's, must weary even a patient reader, and we are willing to acknowledge that a very few chapters of 'The Storied Sea' satisfied our appetite for the marvellous. The best excuse for the unmitigated sparkle of the not costly gems is that they appeared as newspaper letters, and have not been worked together.

Building Superintendence: a Manual for Young Architects, Students, and Others Interested in Building Operations as Carried On at the Present Day. By T. M. Clark, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. 336.

DETAILS of construction and patented appliances change so fast that works on building, like those on other practical arts, quickly become obsolete. The growth of the subject and the need of watchfulness in keeping up with it are well illustrated in the introductory note to Prof. T. M. Clark's 'Building Superintendence,' which tells us that "between the stereotyping of the first and last chapters" the progress of experiment made it necessary to double the factors of safety used in computing beams from the ordinary constants. The way of the young superintendent is hard, and no amount of teaching will take for him the place of personal experience; but Prof. Clark's admirable book will give him a model of orderly procedure and of the minute care-taking which the planning and oversight of building work require, and a manual, as complete as can easily be, of the complicated details of building construction. It is a reprint of articles published in the *American Architect*, apparently stereotyped without alteration from the forms of that journal. Its method is that of Viollet-le-Duc's 'Histoire d'une Maison,' but leaving out the thread of narrative on which that is strung, and simply describing the progress of construction seen in the successive visits of a supposed inspector. This method, indeed, soon lapses, and the book becomes merely an essay on building. In spite of a more direct and business-like tone, we think the book loses by the change, for the first form leads the writer to suggest a variety of expedients called out by emergency, and to describe many of the tricks and evasions by which the ordinary workman tries to blind an inexperienced superintendent. This gives the young reader just the invaluable lessons he would ordinarily get only from practice; but the change of method transforms the book into a manual of specifications—a thing which has been made many times before, if not quite so well as Professor Clark does it.

Perhaps the equilibration of the arch, on pp. 278-285, and the discussion of roof strains which follows, might have been omitted with no worse effect than to suppress a few of the 336 pages in the volume. We should dread trusting any tyro with an important construction on the strength of his understanding of these discussions. If they simply impressed on him the idea that strains must be accurately computed by

some one who knows how, it would be well. But to encourage him to think that he could do so by mere imitation would be disastrous. Too much of such work is done by rule-of-thumb; and the Sisyphus labor of trying to present mathematical things in an unmathematical way is, we believe, worse than thrown away.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ladreyt, Marie-Casimir. L'Instruction Publique en France et les Écoles Américaines. Paris: Hetzel; New York: F. W. Christern.
McLaughlin, M. Louise. Suggestions to China Painters. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Munger, T. T. Lamps and Paths. Sermons. Boston: N. J. Bartlett & Co. $1.
Norris, W. E. Thirlby Hall. A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Rose, H. Ten Years: An Old World Story. Poetry. G. P. Putnam's Sons; London: James Nisbet & Co. $1.50.
Sumner, W. G. Problems in Political Economy. Henry Holt & Co.
Thackeray, W. M. Christmas Books. John W. Lovell Company. 20 cents.
Topelius, Z. Times of Charles XII. Translated from the Swedish. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Yonge, Charlotte M., and Weld, H. H. Aunt Charlotte's Stories of American History. D. Appleton & Co.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 24, 1884.

The Week.

It is said in Washington that any proposal of retaliatory measures by the European governments affected by our art tariff will result in adverse action by Congress rather than in a removal of the art tariff, as our people will not tolerate menaces. Yet the same people are preparing a retaliatory menace against the German pork measures. Suppose the Germans to be as irascible and impatient of menace as we, and their Government to respond to our hog threats by substituting a fixed duty on hog which will be practically prohibitive and put our pork out of the frying-pan into the fire! What can we reply? In our legislative wisdom we accept treaties of amity and commerce, and then we show our amity by making the commerce only possible on one side. We want the Germans, Italians, and French to take our pork, cotton, wheat, etc., with no duties, and we refuse to accept what might be sent us in return, on the ground that we must develop and protect our own production of the same articles, so that we may escape that mutual interdependence which is the basis of commerce. We begin a war of menaces, carry it on by a competition of prohibitory tariffs, and may find ourselves in a few years in the state of China, shut out from the rest of the world, refusing the products of other nations and they refusing ours. This is the logical and may be the practical result of our protective policy, which means, carried out in full, the extinction of commerce.

A movement is under way to have Mr. Hewitt's call upon the British Minister investigated by a Committee of Congress, and the "tail-twisting" statesmen, Messrs. Cox, Robinson, and Finerty, are credited with a determination to probe the matter to the bottom. Their zeal in the affair is attributed to various causes, one of which is an interest in promoting the Flower boom in opposition to the Hewitt boom. It is said of the advocates of the Flower boom that they are determined to crush Hewitt by showing that he has been trifling with the Irish vote. With Hewitt out of the way, Flower is expected to come to the fore as the strongest New York candidate for the Presidency. His claims are somewhat peculiar. They are sent out from Washington in the following order: He is worth from four to five millions of dollars; he served one term in Congress and made himself popular by the novel expedient of dividing Congressmen into squads of a dozen each and dining them sumptuously; he made two or three speeches, which gave him a position as a judicious, constitutional statesman, and had them printed; then he declined a renomination, and devoted himself to running for the Presidency on his "record." One of the speeches was circulated in this part of the country a few months ago, and we remember it distinctly as one of the most thoroughly "constitutional" efforts we have ever had the pleasure of perusing. It was, if we recollect rightly, a neat little pamphlet of about thirty pages. Ten of them consisted of an argument in favor of a bill, and the other twenty of the entire Constitution of the United States, prefaced with some such introduction as this: "In this connection I cite the Constitution of the United States, a document which cannot be read too often by the people of this great and glorious country."

Mr. C. P. Huntington is involved in a litigation which promises to throw some more light upon what are known as his "railroad methods." The suit is one brought by Mrs. Colton, widow of General Colton, to set aside a settlement made by Huntington and his associates with the Colton estate. The settlement was intended to cover transactions in railroad affairs in which Colton had been the agent of the syndicate for a number of years, and, in settling, the syndicate reduced the amount by some millions, on account of wholesale embezzlement practised by the General, as they alleged, in the course of his agency. The charge of embezzlement seems to have been based on the fact that the General received large amounts of money from the syndicate which he never accounted for. But the General's widow, thinking the matter over since, has come to the conclusion that, in "railroading," the receipt of money by a confidential agent who does not account for it is by no means conclusive evidence of fraud, and that there being no vouchers to show what became of it is merely strong proof that the agent did with it what was meant by his principals to be done.

To give "color," as the lawyers say, to this view of the matter, she has been engaged in an analysis of Mr. Huntington's own accounts, and has produced proof that in the years 1876–'78–'79 he spent in the course of business $409,335.67, for which no vouchers exist, and the use of which he cannot explain, except that it went to "agents and attorneys." The connection of this with the Colton litigation becomes apparent when we learn that it was during the period of this expenditure that Colton ("Friend" Colton, as he then was) was one of the agents of Huntington, and that Huntington himself was engaged in active railroad work against Tom Scott and his Texas-Pacific scheme. The nature of the work the letters to Colton make very plain. It is this correspondence from which we have already made copious extracts, and in which he speaks of his rival having "switched" off two Senators in one week, but reminds his agent that they can be "switched back with the proper arrangements when they are wanted." Switching off and switching back Senators would, we suppose, come properly under the head of operating expenses, though the most experienced men sometimes find it hard to discriminate between these and the construction account. Anyhow, it seems a strange suit to come before a court of justice—embezzlement on one side, met by the explanation that the money was not stolen, but used to corrupt Congressmen.

The House passed on Monday, under the lead of Mr. Holman, and by an almost unanimous vote (256 to 18), a resolution with regard to the land policy of the country the point of which lies wholly in the "application" of it. The first statement in the resolution consists of the legal platitude that "all the public lands heretofore granted to States and corporations to aid in the construction of railroads, so far as the same are subject to forfeiture by reason of the non-fulfilment of the conditions on which the grants were made, ought to be declared forfeited to the United States and restored to the public domain." This is followed by a statement that the land laws should be so framed and administered "as to ultimately secure freeholds therein to the greatest number of citizens," and that "to this end all laws facilitating speculation in the public lands, or authorizing or permitting the entry or purchase thereof in large bodies, ought to be repealed, and all of the public lands adapted to agriculture subject to bounty grants, and those in aid of education ought to be reserved for the benefit of actual and bona-fide settlers, and disposed of under the provisions of the Homestead law only." Finally, the Committee on Public Lands is directed to report at any time bills carrying these views into effect.

The Committee has under this resolution determined, it is said, to recommend the forfeiture of the land grant of the Texas-Pacific Railroad, including about 15,000,000 acres, on the ground that the recently published Huntington-Colton correspondence shows that the Texas-Pacific consolidated with a "hostile" road, in violation of the terms imposed by the grant. There is one objection to legislation of this kind which its promoters seem to overlook—Congress cannot resume lands once granted for forfeiture without passing upon a legal question affecting the rights of thousands of innocent persons who have settled upon the lands in the faith that their titles would not be upset. In doing so, moreover, it acts as judge in its own case. The Huntington-Colton correspondence seems to warrant an investigation, with a view to future legislation; but to use it in its present condition for such a purpose is hasty. The good and wise author of the memorable propositions which have set the Committee in motion will no doubt be among the first to protest against proceedings which look so much like confiscation.

The House Committee on Accounts, which has been investigating Keifer's performances with the stenographers at the close of the last session, has discovered that his nephew drew $3,850 from the Government for which he performed no service whatever. The

drawing of the pay was the least objectionable part of the transaction. Keifer forced one of the stenographers to resign after the work had all been done, and then put his nephew in the position so that he might draw the vacation salary which the stenographer had earned. When the latter protested, Keifer told him that he had nothing to complain of, since he could go to New York and get work on some of the newspapers, while his nephew, not being competent to earn anything, wanted the money in order to enjoy the summer. The stenographer, who was in poor health, had to give up his vacation and go to work on a newspaper. Keifer's conduct in the matter was about as contemptible as it could be, and the House will simply perform an act of justice if it compels him to refund to the cheated stenographer the money which he had earned.

Governor Robinson, of Massachusetts, wants "concurrent action" on the subject of divorce taken by the various States. No respectable State or person can possibly object to this, but there is, as we have frequently ventured to suggest, an excellent way of securing concurrent action, and, what is more, making it permanently concurrent, known as the passage of an amendment to the United States Constitution. Short of this we know of no way unless by a great national movement for the adoption of an identical constitutional amendment in all the States at once. Concurrent action by the Legislatures of States which have been steadily diverging in their marriage laws for a hundred years, we can hardly otherwise expect. Those who talk of it in such a matter seem to overlook the fact that even supposing that all the States were to enact an identical law on the subject, and that the Legislatures were never to repeal or alter it, still the fact that a marriage in New York was a New York and not a United States marriage, and a divorce in Connecticut a Connecticut and not a United States divorce, would remain. All the old difficulties, arising, not from difference of laws, but from difference of jurisdiction, and consequent differences in the judicial interpretation and application of laws, would remain. Besides all this, the idea of unanimous concurrent action in the case of States whose whole policy concerning marriage and divorce is radically different, may be dismissed as impracticable. In New York the only cause for absolute divorce is adultery. In States near by there are half-a-dozen. No concurrence is to be expected from such States. What is needed is a vote the result of which will be binding upon them even if they do not concur—*i. e.*, a constitutional amendment applicable to all the States.

A singular delusion on the subject of copyright occasionally comes to our notice in the columns of esteemed contemporaries—that the law of England discriminates against American authors. Thus the St. Paul and Minneapolis *Pioneer Press* publishes a long article in favor of the general principle of international copyright, but containing the following odd question: "Since when have not British copyright statutes contained a provision refusing protection to works copyrighted outside the realm of Great Britain?" If the *Press* will consult any standard work on copyright, it will find that the English copyright law has contained no such provision for many a long year. By the present law of England any country which gives reciprocal rights can secure international copyright with Great Britain, a series of international copyright acts having been passed for this purpose during the last forty years, which it will find enumerated in Mr. Drone's well-known treatise on copyright, at page 214.

But this is not by any means the whole of the case. The American author can now get an English copyright by first publishing in England, for the domestic law gives copyright to any author without regard to the place where he was born, on the very sensible ground that every author who is induced to publish there does something for the promotion of literature. During the discussion of the whole subject in 1878 by the Copyright Commission, a proposition of retaliation was brought forward, the treatment of which by the Commission is interesting reading just now in connection not only with books, but with the American-hog and French-claret retaliation scheme. They said: "It has been suggested to us that this country would be justified in taking steps of a retaliatory character, with a view of enforcing incidentally that protection from the United States which we accord to them. This might be done by withdrawing from the Americans the privilege of copyright on first publication in this country. We have, however, come to the conclusion that, on the highest public grounds of policy and expediency, it is advisable that our law should be based on correct principles, irrespectively of the opinions or the policy of other nations. We admit the propriety of protecting copyright; and it appears to us that the principle of copyright, if admitted, is one of universal application. We therefore recommend that this country should pursue the policy of recognizing the author's rights, irrespective of nationality."

The acquittal of Nutt was what might have been expected after the acquittal of Dukes. One is about as bad a failure of justice as the other. If there be any difference, it is in favor of the Dukes acquittal. There was some shadow of reason for believing that the killing of Captain Nutt by Dukes was not wholly premeditated; but there is no doubt at all that the killing of Dukes by young Nutt was a premeditated murder. Moreover, the acquittal of Nutt is much more dangerous as a precedent than the acquittal of Dukes, because it is doubtless based on the opinion that he did right—that is, that there are reasons besides the defence of life and property which will legally justify manslaying. In truth, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that there is of late all over the country, not only among juries, but in the press, and among plain people, a distinct decline in the sense of the sacredness of human life, and a distinct increase of readiness to take it, or condone the taking of it, unlawfully, as a remedy for various ills and wrongs. Lynching in punishment of real or suspected crime has, of late, apparently become more common in some of the not very Western States. The street murder has become more common at the South, and the public of the Eastern States looks certainly with greater indulgence than it did twenty years ago on the use of the pistol.

Some of the discussions on criminal jurisprudence which appear in the Western papers are of the most extraordinary character. The Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, commenting on Nutt's trial, maintains that he ought not to have been tried for murder, but for "the usurpation of judicial functions," or for "performing in an irregular manner an act of justice." It also wants to revive an old English process of 300 years ago, in Elizabeth's day, which it says it has discovered, called "the right of trial by appeal." Under this remarkable right, "Nutt could have obtained a judgment of an English court delivering over Dukes into his custody to be by him executed, shot, or hanged, as Nutt thought proper." It also severely criticises "Parliament" for repealing this "quasi right of the relative" as "too provocative of vindictive feelings." It finds only one excuse for Parliament—namely, that, in repealing a remedy which had so long existed, it "doubtless never occurred to it that it could not repeal those instincts of human nature to which the remedy owed its origin and its justice." Such articles as these, however, are far more likely to fix the attention of "Parliament" on the liquor question and the proper treatment of the insane than on the ancient Elizabethan "right of appeal."

A promising public career has been brought to an untimely end in New Jersey, by the sentence of ex-Speaker Egan to the Penitentiary for attempting to bribe a member of the Legislature. When Mr. Egan was elected Speaker of the New Jersey Assembly a few years ago, his portrait was published, and with it an eloquent biographical sketch, in which he was depicted as "one of the galaxy of young men of this country who have cleared their way to prominence by the force of their natural talents, aided by honesty of purpose and devotion to principles." The force of his natural talents encountered its first serious obstacle last winter. Mr. Egan was at Trenton as a lobbyist, and in the course of legislation it became necessary for him to secure the defeat of an obnoxious bill by bribing the chairman of a committee to desist from pressing it. He called upon the chairman at his house, and in a perfectly straightforward manner told him that if he would allow the bill to be "smothered" he could name his own price, and the interest which Mr. Egan represented would pay it. The chairman rejected the proposal, and told Egan that he should expose his conduct before the Assembly. Egan replied that he should not mind that since only they two were present at the interview, and his word and oath would go as far as the chairman's. But here is where the deception came in. The wife of the chairman was in the back parlor and overheard the whole conversation. In the investigation which followed, she corroborated her husband's testimony, and Egan was found guilty. The Grand Jury took up the matter and indicted him. He pleaded guilty,

and has been sentenced to one month's imprisonment and $500 fine. As the sentence carries with it disqualification for holding public office hereafter, the State has lost the services of an energetic statesman.

The speculation in grain seems to have culminated, and prices have been on the decline, as the investors in wheat and corn have seen their mistake and have been trying to sell out. But the accumulation of money in the banks is greater than ever. The last weekly statement of the New York banks showed an increase of $7,327,000 in the deposits, and an increase of $4,964,400 in the specie and legal tenders. At the same time the surplus reserve held by the New York banks over their required 25 per cent. was $17,284,225, being the largest since July, 1880. Rates of interest are as a consequence lower than ever before at this season of the year. The further disturbance of confidence caused by the recent collapse of the North River Construction Company, the great decline in West Shore bonds, the application for a receiver for the New York, Ontario & Western, and the rumors of probable applications for other receiverships, in the last ten days, has led to a general decline in the prices of both railway stocks and mortgage bonds, and it is only within the last day or two that there has been any improvement in the tone of the markets for securities.

The story that Jay Gould is "embarrassed" has drawn his attention to the criminal law of libel as it affects those who circulate "disquieting rumors." In the present condition of the stock market and of business, he would probably have the sympathy of the community entirely with him should he be able to bring any enemies of this description to justice. His embarrassment would mean disaster in dozens of corporations, and general public calamity; and a false rumor circulated to get people to believe such a story is peculiarly wicked and criminal. The last time rumors of this sort were set afloat, he exhibited "securities" to prove that they were not true. But a prosecution would probably be far more effective.

The "barbed-wire fence war" which has broken out in Texas seems to be in part, if not wholly, a result of the sudden conversion of the State, by a great influx of population, from a thinly-settled community, with land of little or no value and used for grazing purposes very much in common, into a populous modern community, with land constantly increasing in value, and with exclusive private ownership becoming more and more attractive. The fence-cutters, or "blue devils," as they are called, represent the primitive Texas of the ante-bellum period, when horses and cattle were the only property of much consequence in the State, and before the idea of fencing in lands held on a great scale in the open parts of the country sprang up. The sudden development of property in land (which always comes later in civilization than that in cattle) would probably not have caused so much trouble had it not been for the great "fencing facilities" afforded by the barbed-wire fence. No one has ever seen this sort of fencing but has felt that it suggests capital and monopoly much more than the plain old rail, or even the board fence, universally used by all citizens fifty years ago; and it is evident that the blue devils or fence-cutters are endeavoring to give the fence war the air of a struggle between poverty and banded wealth. They represent the fences as invariably being put up by aliens, Northerners, monopolists, bloated capitalists, and as being torn down by themselves in the interest of the honest Texas yeoman. At one point the blue devils seem to be nearly in the right. The fencing in of the State has resulted apparently in some instances in blocking up roads; and had the devils confined themselves exclusively to reopening these even by violence, they would probably have been in the right. But a road even in Texas need not be more than a few hundred feet wide. Yet when the devils open a road they destroy several miles of fence. To those not actually engaged in the war it will be suggestive to learn that the authority of Henry George has been appealed to to settle the dispute, on the ground that if land is by nature the common property of all men alike, a fence is "agin natur'." Henry George, however, has never, we believe, advised a general destruction of fences in any of his works.

The change of Ministry in Spain is an event of considerable importance, as it probably points to a change both in the home and foreign policy of the Government. It is the result of the division of the Spanish Liberals, on whom the King has lately been relying, into a series of shades or groups that cannot be got to agree. The late Ministry of Posada Herrera was composed of what is called the Dynastic Left, or in plain English Monarchical Radicals. But it had to accomplish the almost impossible task of keeping on good terms with the Crown, and securing for it the support of the Radical or Republican Radicals. The King's speech at the opening of the session was made to favor not universal suffrage exactly, but a plan of slightly limited suffrage produced by the Sagasta Cabinet in 1882, which would have created a total of 3,014,000 voters, while real universal suffrage would have created a total of 3,650,000. The difference between the two figures was so slight that the Minister thought it was not worth preserving, and he accordingly declared for the latter, thus alienating the Liberal Centre, under Sagasta, who will not hear of a great extension of the suffrage even in the moderate form proposed in the King's speech. The Ministry hardly fared any better with the Extreme Left, as was shown by the manifesto of Ruiz Zorilla, of that group, proclaiming the incompatibility of the principles of the revolution with the monarchical form of government under the house of Bourbon. All this proved that the Minister no longer controlled the men of the Left who served under him when he was in opposition.

These troubles have been still further aggravated by the visit of the Crown Prince of Germany, and the supposed desire of the Ministry to draw closer to Germany in a sense hostile to France, which, as a Republic of the Latin race, is still dear to the Spanish Radicals. Then, too, the attempt to make a treaty of commerce with England, by alienating the Catalonian protectionists, still further increased the difficulty of the situation. In fact, Posada Herrera seems to have had the usual fortune of people who try to bring utterly irreconcilable political ideas to work in harmony. He has fallen after a session of much acrimonious debating, and much alarm, not simply about the fate of the Ministry, but about that of the monarchy itself. Nor has the situation been improved by the construction put by the German semi-official press on the Crown Prince's visit. Spanish Liberals of all shades, as well as Royalists, were but slenderly pleased to read in the *Alsace-Lorraine Gazette* that the visit of the Prince Imperial "was intended to fortify the monarchical idea in Spain against the republican demonstrations in Paris directed against a royal personage." The Spanish monarchy cannot afford to be bolstered up in this way. The return of the Conservatives to power under Canovas has been for some time predicted as the only possible way out of the difficulty created by the Liberal dissensions. It is likely to have two important consequences. It will probably bring about a renewal of negotiations for the admission of Spain into the German-Austrian-Italian alliance, and her consequent separation from France. If the Spanish people can be reconciled to this, it will be through an appeal to their pride. They have long chafed under the secondary position of the Spanish monarchy, and its exclusion from a seat among the great Powers. Admission to this alliance would do a good deal to soothe this wound to their susceptibility, as a sign of the returning weight of Spain in European councils. But it probably also puts an end to the pending attempts to make a commercial treaty with England. The Conservatives are Protectionists, and their most powerful support comes from the iron manufacturers of Catalonia.

The *Perseveranza*, of Milan, has an article on the recent supplementary elections under the new law extending the suffrage. Under the old system an average vote of one-third of the citizens qualified to vote was cast. As to the new, the *Perseveranza* says: "The number of the electors that took part in the elections was small enough in the past, and exceedingly small now that we have the extension of the suffrage. This shows how entirely artificial was the agitation which led to this extension." In four sections of the city of Bologna the election failed entirely, the voters not taking the trouble necessary to effect the primary organization; and Bologna is one of the most solid centres of Italian liberalism. It is clear that one of two alternatives obtains in Italy—either the form of government or its general attitude toward the population inspires no confidence in the voting classes, or they are indifferent as to how the country is governed. In the former case a revolution will be the inevitable consequence of the first great national depression or disaster.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 16, to TUESDAY, January 22, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate on Wednesday Mr. Hoar's bill, relative to the electoral count, was passed without debate, in order to get it before the House as soon as possible. It is the bill which passed the Senate last year. Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, proposed an amendment to the Anthony retaliatory resolution on the same day, which may open the entire tariff discussion. He proposed that the Foreign Relations Committee should inquire whether or not France, Brazil, Mexico, or other countries have discriminated against exports to the United States. The resolution is directed at the export duties on coffee, sugar, and other products sent to the United States.

The Senate on Tuesday adopted the Anthony retaliatory resolution, amended so as to require the Committee on Foreign Relations to prepare such legislation as shall tend to protect American exportations of meat to France and Germany.

The opponents of the Mexican treaty made a vigorous fight in Washington to prevent its ratification by the Senate, which had to be effected before January 20th, or the treaty failed. The opposition claimed that the treaty was not a bona-fide commercial one, but a "job" which would be worth $50,000,000 to its promoters in the next few years. The Senate on Friday, in executive session, refused to ratify it by a vote of 39 to 20, a two-thirds vote in its favor being required. A motion to reconsider it was then made, but the Senate adjourned until Monday before acting upon it. The advocates of the treaty became again encouraged when they learned that an agreement had been signed with the Mexican representative in Washington by which the time for the ratification of the treaty had been extended six months, or until July 20th. The greatest difficulty in the way of securing the ratification of the treaty is the provision which admits tobacco free. This has secured for it the solid opposition of Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia. The assumption has been that the treaty would not only permit the free importation of tobacco, but would also relieve it from internal taxation. The friends of the treaty are so anxious to have it ratified that it is believed they may be willing to sacrifice tobacco.

A resolution was made on Monday in the Senate that any further debate on the treaty be had with open doors. It was declared out of order to offer such a resolution in open session, and when considered in secret session it went over under the rules.

In the House of Representatives a storm was raised on Wednesday by a resolution introduced by a Republican calling for an investigation of the method of Mr. Payne's election as U. S. Senator from Ohio. This was promptly voted down. Resolutions were passed on Thursday calling upon the Postmaster-General and Attorney-General for reports and documents relating to the Star-route prosecutions. An investigation is aimed at. The bill appropriating $1,000,000 for the improvement of the Mississippi River passed the House on Thursday by a vote of 215 to 64. On Friday afternoon the House went into Committee of the Whole on the Fitz-John Porter Relief Bill. The discussion was continued until Tuesday evening, without a vote being reached.

The House on Monday voted to repeal the iron-clad oath, Mr. Boutelle (Rep., Me.) alone voting nay. It also, by a vote of 261 to 18, passed a resolution declaring that the forfeitable grants of land for railroad purposes ought to be forfeited and the lands restored to the public domain; that all laws under which public lands may be acquired by speculators ought to be repealed, and the remaining public lands be held subject to homestead entries only, and that the Committee on Public Lands be instructed to bring in bills to accomplish the objects mentioned.

A resolution intended to purify the floor of the House from lobbyists was introduced on Monday. It provides that it shall be the duty of the Speaker to ascertain the nature of the business of ex-members on the floor, and that in case they are found to be engaged in lobbying he shall exclude them.

Mr. Shaw, of Illinois, a Democratic Representative, has introduced a bill in Congress to repeal the Civil-Service law, similar to the Clay bill mentioned last week. When asked for his reasons for introducing such a bill he replied: "I want to get our fellows in, and get this law out of the way. It is contrary to the spirit of our institutions. I do not think the President or anybody has any right to interfere in any such way with the patronage, and do not want to be dictated to by any commissioners in any such manner."

Senator Edmunds, at a meeting of the Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads on Thursday, in a conversational way gave his views on several points involved in the consideration of the Postal-Telegraph Bill. He entertained no doubt in regard to the constitutional right of the Government to build telegraph lines. He was strongly opposed to the purchase of existing lines. His views on the remaining features of the subject were substantially those embodied in his bill. The telegraph interests will be heard by the Committee through representatives.

At a meeting of the House Committee on Appropriations on Monday, it was decided to report a bill for the appropriation of a sum necessary to fit out a Greely relief expedition. The measure covers the recommendations of Secretaries Lincoln and Chandler, providing for three vessels. The President is authorized to fit out the expedition as soon as possible. The bill passed the House on Tuesday.

The President on Monday nominated A. S. Worthington to be United States Attorney for the District of Columbia, vice George B. Corkhill. Mr. Corkhill was prominent in the Guiteau trial as Government counsel.

Senator-elect Payne, of Ohio, gave a dinner at Columbus on Thursday evening to his supporters in the Legislature. He made a long speech defining his views. He favors a reformed tariff, but not free trade. As to the civil service he said: "The process of reform is, first, by electing a Democratic President—and that is assured the present year, unless unwisdom and madness from the gods are permitted to block the way. Secondly, by a pitiless and radical overhauling and purging of the present service."

After balloting for several days the Democrats of the Maryland Legislature on Friday elected Judge E. R. Wilson to the United States Senate to succeed Mr. Groome.

Francis W. Rockwell (Rep.) was elected from the Twelfth Massachusetts Congressional District on Thursday to succeed Mr. Robinson, who resigned to accept the Governorship of that State.

The Republicans in Congress held a caucus on Wednesday evening to prepare for the coming Presidential campaign. Senator Edmunds said that in his opinion the outlook of the Republican party for success next fall had not in fifteen years been so promising at this early stage of the campaign as it is now. A resolution presented by Senator Hoar was adopted, extending "sympathy and coöperation" to all persons in the South who are "struggling to exercise the vital and fundamental right of free suffrage." A Congressional committee was partly agreed upon.

The primary elections of the Republicans in this city on Friday evening, under the new plan of organization, resulted in a practical victory for the Machine, fifteen of the twenty-four districts remaining completely in their hands.

After a long deadlock, Alderman Kirk (Tammany Democrat) was elected President of the Board of Aldermen of this city, on Monday, by a combination between the Republican and Tammany members.

The Senate and Assembly Committees began their investigations of the Public Works Department in this city on Saturday. Commissioner Thompson appeared before them and testified in his own behalf.

Several similar bills, likely to create considerable discussion, are before the Public Health Committee of the Assembly. They provide for the establishment of a Medical Faculty as an attachment to the Board of Regents of the University. The proposed Medical Faculty is to consist of nine members. One bill directs that the Faculty shall be appointed by the Board of Regents, but one of the other bills gives the appointment to the Governor, without regard to confirmation by the Senate. Six of the members are to be taken from the "school" having the largest number of practitioners in the State, two from among the next largest class, and one from the next largest. That is to say, it is fair to assume the "allopathists" are to have six of the nine members of the Faculty, the homœopathists two members, and all the others one. Under one bill, the candidate for authority to practise medicine will have to apply to the Board of Regents. Thence he will be turned over to the Medical Faculty, where he will be subjected to examination by a subordinate board of three examiners appointed by the Faculty. For the purpose of conducting the examinations, semi-annual meetings of the Faculty are required to be held at New York or Albany.

At Albany, on Wednesday, Speaker Sheard announced the committee of five to investigate the Public Works Department in this city. Mr. Roosevelt is Chairman, and the remaining members are good men. In the Assembly, Mr. Moore introduced a bill for producing revenue for the State Government. It provides that the funds shall be raised by direct tax on corporate franchises or the business of railroads, insurance, trust, guarantee, express, telegraph, telephone, steamboat, car, and transportation companies, and banking institutions in the State. The Governor shall appoint, with the consent of the Senate, a Commissioner of Taxes for three years. The bill creates a State Department of Taxes with the necessary clerks.

Mr. Howe's bill for the appointment by the Governor of a commission of five to examine into and report upon the present contract system of prison labor was passed by the Assembly on Thursday by a vote of 74 to 41. The opposition was Democratic.

As a result of the recent conference with Pope Leo, each of the American bishops in Rome has received printed instructions in regard to the future course of the Church in this country. These instructions will be conveyed to the Plenary Council to be convened in Baltimore in November next, where they will be debated and perhaps amended, and then returned to Rome for the Pope's approval as canon law for the United States. They relate to higher education for the priesthood, the appointment of episcopal consultors to be known as Canons, the method of nominating episcopal candidates, and the improvement in the method of pastoral visitation. It is intimated, though not affirmed, that Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, will be the next American Cardinal.

Mr. Robert Harris, Vice-President of the New York, Lake Erie, and Western Railroad, and formerly of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, was unanimously elected by the Directors President of the Northern Pacific Railroad on Thursday, to succeed Mr. Villard. He accepted the position.

Ex-Speaker John Egan, of the New Jersey

Assembly, who recently pleaded guilty to an indictment charging him with having attempted to bribe Assemblyman Armitage, was sentenced on Thursday at Newark to imprisonment in the County Jail for thirty days, and to pay a fine of $500 and the costs of prosecution.

The defence in the Nutt murder trial, which was opened on Wednesday, set forth the plea of mental imbecility aggravated by the excitement attending his father's murder. His family physician, mother, and other witnesses were called to substantiate the plea. The case was closed on Monday and given to the jury, who brought in a verdict of acquittal the next day.

Charles Delmonico's will leaves his property to his sister, two nephews, and a niece.

The steamer *City of Columbus*, which sailed from Boston on Thursday for Savannah, went ashore on Devil's Bridge, off Gay Head, at 3:45 A. M. on Friday, and at once began breaking up. She carried fifty-nine first-class and twenty-two steerage passengers, and a crew of forty-five. Of these, fifty-five first-class and fourteen steerage passengers, and twenty-eight of the officers and crew, were lost. Gay Head is a promontory forming the western extremity of the island of Martha's Vineyard, twenty-two miles from Edgartown.

William H. Guion, late of the steamship firm of this city, made a personal assignment on Saturday. His liabilities are about $200,000. The firm is not affected.

FOREIGN.

General "Chinese" Gordon started on Friday night for Egypt on a special mission, after a long conference with the Duke of Cambridge and Lord Wolseley. The immediate purpose of the mission is to report upon the military situation in the Sudan, and to provide in the best manner possible for the safety of the European population at Khartum and the various Egyptian garrisons; also to conduct the evacuation. The details of his mission are given by the London *Times* as follows: "He will meet Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Consul-General, at Suez, and come to an agreement in regard to the coöperation of the English authorities in Egypt, as far as may be necessary. Mussa, chief of the Hadendowa tribe, whose sons General Gordon saved from death, to which they had been condemned by the Egyptian officials for having committed raids, will be summoned to Suakim, and General Gordon will go under his escort to Khartum, where he will assemble the heads of the tribes and announce that he has come on behalf of England to restore their liberty and remove the adventurers who have been the curse of the country. He will also inform the chiefs that the slave trade must cease. As soon as he has finished his task in the Sudan, he will go to the Congo country and deal with the slave trade at its headquarters. General Gordon expects to be five months in the Sudan." The mission of General Gordon meets with great approval in England, but there are some serious protests against the Liberal policy and the prospective loss of the Sudan.

It was reported on Saturday that negotiations had been opened between Egypt and Abyssinia. The latter demanded the cession by Egypt of the Bogos territory and the port of Massowah, which adjoin the northeastern boundary of Abyssinia, under a threat that the King of Abyssinia would declare war with Egypt if this demand was refused. Egypt is willing to cede the Bogos territory and the port of Zula, which is south of Massowah, on condition that Abyssinia shall operate against El Mahdi. This arrangement is regarded as probable.

Baker Pasha's negotiations with the tribal chiefs in the Sudan have been successful. The sheikhs who have visited the Egyptian camp represent 38,000 men who are willing to fight. A despatch from Khartum to the London *Times* on Tuesday said that no order for the evacuation of that place had yet been given.

A private telegram to the Austrian Consul at Khartum, on Thursday, reported that all the higher Egyptian officials at El Obeid had been massacred.

Herr Streker has arrived at Prague, bearing an autograph letter to the Cabinets of Berlin, Paris, and London from the King of Abyssinia. Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Commissioner in Egypt, requested Herr Streker to unfold his views with regard to an equitable basis of peace between Abyssinia and Egypt. It is expected that England will intrust Herr Streker with a mission to King John of Abyssinia.

An interview was published on Thursday in London with a leading member of the Chinese Embassy. He said that China had not yet declared war against France, although her memorandum to Prime Minister Ferry, in which China declared that an assault upon Sontay, Hunghoa, or Bacninh would be *casus belli*, would be carried out to the letter. The attaché most positively declared that the Chinese Government would never entertain a proposal to evacuate Bacninh as a basis of negotiations for the settlement of the Tonquin question.

A leading member of the French Embassy in London asserted that this interview gave substantially a correct account of the situation of affairs, except that he believed that the Chinese troops would be withdrawn from Bacninh. France did not intend to declare war against China, as she had not received any trustworthy information that the garrison at Sontay was composed of regular Chinese troops. He did not know what France would do if Chinese troops should oppose the French at Bacninh, but France was determined to take Bacninh at all costs.

From Parisian sources it was reported on Monday that M. Waddington, the French Ambassador to England, in a recent interview with Earl Granville, the British Minister of Foreign Affairs, declared that France would not recommence negotiations with China until all her objects in Tonquin had been achieved. M. Waddington, it is said, informed the French Government that Earl Granville approved the views of France in the matter.

It was reported in Paris on Tuesday that Admiral Courbet has been ordered not to attack Bacninh until he has received further orders from the home Government.

A decree of President Grevy was published in Paris on Saturday, providing for the reorganization of the French settlements on the Gold Coast of Africa, by placing them under the jurisdiction of the French Commander-in Chief at Gaboon.

Prince Victor Napoleon, in reply to an inquiry from M. Cassagnac as to how far the Bonapartists might count upon him, says that at present he has no political rôle to fill, and that he intends to hold himself in reserve until duty calls him to serve his country.

The Nihilist Prince Krapotkine has been transferred, on account of ill-health, from the prison at Clairvaux, where he has been incarcerated the past year, to the Infirmary in Paris.

The trade of Paris is more active than at any time during the past year, and the attempts of the workingmen to create an agitation are, it is said, made merely for political effect.

A championship billiard contest in Paris was concluded on Friday night, the score being Vignaux 3,000, Schaefer 2,868. It was played in five evenings.

The Spanish Ministry was defeated in the Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, Señor Sagasta's counter address in reply to the King's speech being adopted by a vote of 221 to 126. The Cabinet at once resigned. King Alfonso failed to effect an arrangement with the Liberals, and called upon Señor Canovas del Castillo, a Conservative, to form a Cabinet. This created a sensation. The Cabinet was gazetted on Friday, and there was general rejoicing that the crisis was over.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) has made a bitter attack on Señor Emilio Castelar, the Spanish Republican leader, who, it says, only prefers a republic because he fancies that that form of government would afford him opportunities to enrich himself.

The Centre party in the Lower House of the Prussian Diet intend to move the abrogation of the law stopping the salaries of Catholic clergymen, and a revision of the May laws. The Vatican and Prussia have settled the question in relation to the training of the clergy in seminaries, and the negotiations for the restoration of bishops to their former dioceses are proceeding.

A committee has been formed in Berlin, under the presidency of the President of the Reichstag, to superintend the funeral of the late Herr Lasker. It has been decided that the funeral ceremonies shall take place on Monday, January 28. They will be on a grand scale, and societies from all parts of Prussia will participate.

Prince Bismarck is now in better health than for many years.

Baron von Friedenthal, Austrian Minister of Commerce, has approved a scheme for a regular monthly line of steamers between Trieste and New York. The steamers will begin running on the 1st of February.

M. de Giers, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, arrived in Vienna on Sunday morning. He was driven immediately to the Imperial Palace, where he was received by the Emperor of Austria, who gave a dinner in his honor. He left Vienna on Tuesday.

M. Boland, the Belgian journalist who was expelled from France some time ago for alleging that he had bribed certain members of the Chamber of Deputies, was sentenced to three years' imprisonment and a fine of $400 at Liége, Belgium, on Thursday, for obtaining money on false pretences to establish a bank.

The Court of Queen's Bench, London, on Tuesday rendered a judgment in favor of the Bishop of Manchester. The latter had refused to induct a Ritualist clergyman into the living at Miles Platting, and the suit was brought to compel the Bishop to do so.

A riot broke out at Enniskillen, County Fermanagh, Ireland, on Saturday. A body of police charged the mob, and was assailed by the Nationalists with a volley of stones. The Orangemen also stoned the police and afterward stoned the Catholic schools.

A summons has been issued against the Park Club of London for permitting the game of baccarat to be played in its rooms, with high stakes. The club maintain that the prosecution is illegal. The affair has caused a decided sensation in the principal London clubs, which will be affected by the decision of the case.

Monsignor Cesare, a dignitary of the Romish Church, was murdered in Rome on Thursday night, and his room plundered. His man servant was seen to issue from the room with bloody hands, and has been arrested.

The second session of the fifth Parliament of the Dominion of Canada was opened in Ottawa on Thursday. Sir John A. Macdonald met the House with a following of 140 supporters, and the Opposition benches contained 79. Few important measures will be considered during the session, among them a bill for the more equitable distribution of insolvent estates, and a bill extending the franchise to young men and unmarried women and widows who have a qualification of $400 a year.

The last stronghold of the revolution in Hayti is broken. Miragoane surrendered to the Government on January 10.

THE PREVENTION OF ELECTORAL MUDDLES.

THE Senate has again passed the bill to regulate the counting of the electoral vote, and it has been done at this time in order that it may be brought up and debated in the House early in the session, and thus have a chance of passing. The bill introduces two changes of importance into the existing law regulating the subject. In the first place it changes the *time* for the voting of the Presidential electors from the first Wednesday in December (U.S.R.S., sec.135) to the second Monday in January following the election. The object of this is to give as much time as possible after an exciting campaign (like the Tilden-Hayes contest of 1876-77 for instance), for passions to cool, for the exact facts of the vote in every State to be ascertained, and (as we shall presently see) for the State itself to provide a solution for any question that may have arisen. It may be objected to this that in 1877, the rage and fury of the contest was at its height in January, so that the time allowed by the bill would not have been enough. But, in the first place, what we have got to provide against is not a precise repetition of the Tilden-Hayes contest. The fierceness of that came from the fact that it pitted South against North, Rebel, or ex Rebel, against Union man, and, worse than all, white against black—rearoused the passions of the war, then just dying out, and now fortunately quite dead, so far as practical politics are concerned. Such a contest will not trouble us again during our lifetime; nor need its recurrence be provided against. What is far more likely in the future is a contest turning upon the vote of a doubtful Northern State, like New York, for instance, and a "muddle" arising simply out of some charge of fraud, to sift which would require a little time and patience, and possibly a summary decision of the title of the Presidential electors of the State by local machinery. Six or eight weeks seems long enough for this. Moreover, a limit to any very much greater extension is imposed by the fact that the new President must come in on March 4, and any questions arising out of the election ought to be settled as early as possible before that date; for while there must be time to get at and decide the facts, the longer the struggle is kept up the greater the temptation to factious, tricky, and unprincipled men to keep it undecided beyond the 4th, for the sake of getting from a disputed succession what they cannot hope a fair decision of the questions involved will bring them.

The next change in the law is a provision to enable each State to provide machinery for the settlement of any dispute concerning its Electors. Each State may, pursuant to its law existing on the day fixed for the appointment of the Electors, determine any controversy concerning their appointment, or that of any of them. This determination must be made at least six days prior to the meeting of the Electors, and is to be conclusive evidence of the lawful title of the Electors, and shall govern in the counting of the electoral votes. With this provision certainly no fault ought to be found by Democrats, for it is in accordance with the most conservative States-rights view of the Electoral College. The question may be raised whether it is necessary for Congress to pass such an enabling act, on the ground that the States have the power already; but in that case the law can do no harm to them, while the pledge given in it that the State determination shall be *conclusive*, is a valuable guarantee that, when the matter is once determined in this way, the question will not be reopened at Washington. How far the States will take advantage of this provision remains to be seen after Congress has passed the act.

On the second Wednesday in February the two houses are to meet to count the vote, with the President of the Senate in the chair. The language of the Constitution (XIIth Amendment) is merely "the votes shall then be counted." On the counting, any objections are to be made in writing, and when they have all been received the two houses are to separate and act upon them each in its own chamber. No State which sends a single return can be thrown out except by an affirmative vote of both houses. If more than one return is sent in, the determination by the State tribunal is to govern. In case, however, of a question as to which of two or more State tribunals has the right of determination, a concurrent vote by both houses is required to settle the question. The same concurrent vote is required in case there has been no determination by the State.

Comparing the act with the Electoral Commission Act of 1877, we see at once that what is proposed is, to enable each State to provide its own machinery for deciding summarily the disputes which, under that act, were sent to a commission called into existence for the purpose. Then, as now, no electoral vote was to be rejected from a State sending in only one (Elec. Com. Act, sec. 1). Then, as now, double returns were to be decided by a tribunal. In 1877, however, nothing but a United States tribunal was possible. Discussion among the best lawyers of the Senate since has convinced them, as we presume it has convinced most other people, that if the States choose Electors, it is the States which ought to be left to decide what Electors they have chosen, and that the function of "counting" votes ought not to be pushed to the point of making Congress a Returning Board. It may be said that the proposed act still leaves open the possibility of a dispute between the two houses on returns where the State has determined nothing; but in such a case it would be clearly the fault of the State, and no act can guarantee us absolutely against all chance of trouble.

CONGRESSIONAL PLEASANTRY.

THE correspondents at Washington seem to have been amusing themselves by extracting explanations from Mr. West about Mr. Hewitt's reported apology for his O'Donnell resolution. Mr. West has submitted to the interviewing process apparently with too good a grace, for they are now ridiculing him for being so easy of access and having so much to say. The Washington correspondent of the *Herald* has taken the trouble to fish out Mr. West's despatches of two years ago to his own Government, in which he expresses more or less concern over the dreadful language of Mr. Robinson of New York about the British Government, and over a resolution of inquiry as to the number of American citizens held in custody in England and Ireland, introduced in the House by Mr. Orth. There is certainly something funny in Mr. West's grave treatment of these matters; but it is on the whole creditable to Mr. West, and rather complimentary to our Government, that he should not have seen it. The late Lord Lytton once told Mr. Matthew Arnold that he had attained the highest measure of success for a literary man in "being taken seriously by the judicious." It ought to be for legislators and politicians a sign of excellence also to be taken seriously by sensible men—that is, to have it supposed that they mean what they say, and do not talk for the sake of making a noise or misleading people who listen to them.

But anybody who takes our House of Representatives seriously on the strength of what he knows of European legislatures, is likely very often to make amusing mistakes, for two reasons which do not present themselves at first blush. One is that there is no European representative body, except the German Reichstag, which has so little power over the Executive branch of the Government, and, therefore, feels so little responsibility for what it says. The House of Commons, or the French Assembly, or the Italian Parliament, can drive a Ministry out of office by a hostile resolution, and, therefore, the Ministry carefully watches its temper, and does not venture wholly to disregard its measured utterances. For the same reason the House itself, knowing what serious consequences its utterances may have, takes care that they are measured, and that they are not wasted on trifles or used for simple bunkum. Under this head may be included the fact that in a community of states like Europe, in which each nation has immense hosts all ready for war, and often watching for an excuse for war, political men soon acquire the habit of weighing their words, and of taking care that nothing shall drop from them at which foreigners may take offence when no offence is meant. The masters of thirty legions, in short, have to be touchy and punctilious, just as the men who carry revolvers are here, for the legions will not serve the thick-skinned or the meek. Our Representatives occupy no such position. The Executive is not responsible to Congress, is not made and cannot be unmade by it, and can have no serious duties or responsibilities put upon it by any Congressman's speech, or by any vote or resolution of the Lower House. Moreover, the United States have no dangerous or sensitive neighbors, all armed and equipped for war. No foreign Power, however touchy, can take offence at anything said here inside a fortnight—for offence by cable, we believe, does not count, and there is very little anger nowadays in the world which language two weeks old can kindle.

The second reason is one which Europeans find it more difficult to understand, and that is, the large part that talk plays in American politics. There is an old English proverb that "fine words butter no parsnips." In American public life, they do butter parsnips, and very liberally. The large

number of deliberative bodies which meet all over the country every year, in the shape of conventions and caucuses, have created a custom of satisfying both public and private claims by means of phrases, which is unknown in the Old World. The nominating conventions draw up platforms which are simply either a string of propositions that no decent man would deny, or of promises which nobody expects the party to keep, and yet the public looks for them and enjoys reading them, and no party would venture to discard them. The "complimentary vote," too, for the man who is not to be elected, and the "unanimous resolution," which is really carried by a small majority, are all parts of what may be called an elaborate system of political etiquette, in which empty phrases are used, as they are in social etiquette in France and Spain, simply to make people feel comfortable, soothe ruffled susceptibilities or disappointed hopes, and make the machinery of politics work smoothly. Americans understand it all perfectly, and are not a whit surprised when they see the habit of saying both dreadful and nice things which are not seriously meant, carried into the halls of Congress, but are nearly as much surprised when foreigners take them in earnest as a Spaniard would be if you proceeded to take possession of his house under the polite formula in which he places it wholly at your disposal.

That Mr. West should think it worth while to write home about Robinson's resolutions, or about Mr. Hewitt's demand for a stay of execution in O'Donnell's case, is therefore not greatly to be wondered at. He has really been hardly long enough in the country to get what is called "the hang of the thing." Americans know that when Robinson or any one else is hurling defiance at kings and emperors, he is either assuring some portion of his constituency that he is alive and kicking, or is simply expressing general dissatisfaction with the condition of the bulk of the human race.

THE STABILITY OF THE PRESENT MEXICAN GOVERNMENT.

The reciprocity treaty with Mexico, which is now before the Senate in secret session, is, as far as can be judged from what leaks out about the debates upon it, in a considerable degree dependent for its confirmation on the ability of its promoters to show that the prospects of the existing régime in Mexico are good; or, in other words, that the Government with which we are treating is likely to last, and the country likely to prosper under it.

Mexico is entering upon her eighth year of unbroken peace. This is an experience which she has not so much as approached since 1810. The wars of the Independence were no sooner ended than the fierce internecine strife of domestic factions was precipitated, which, in its turn, was calmed for a time before the French intervention, only to break out again in fresh fury when once the hated foreigner was disposed of. But since the brilliant *coup* in 1876 of that most romantic figure in Mexican history, General Diaz, the sound of the pronunciamiento has been no more heard in the land; no "plan" or "cry" of any importance has been put forth. What is the cause of this new era of quiet? Before giving what we conceive to be the true answer, we will notice one or two of the explanations which are current in the newspaper press, and which have appeared in recent articles and books on Mexico.

It is frequently said that the Mexicans have become tired of revolutions, that they have learned the lesson of the disasters of their country, and have now made up their minds to devote their energies to the development of their natural resources. This is little more than a restatement of the fact whose explanation is sought. One would think that thirty or fifty years of anarchy would have sufficed to "tire" the Mexicans of political chaos, yet the conflicts of 1876 seemed to be waged with as much enthusiasm as those of 1826. Why the sudden flagging of ardor since? We are told that the new railroads, stretching out over the entire country, have wonderfully strengthened the Government by enabling it quickly to mass troops at any desired point, and so to quell any uprising before it becomes formidable. But there does not appear any good reason why disaffected generals could not utilize the new means of transportation, for the purpose of speedily rallying their adherents, in such a manner that the Government would have little advantage over that of the days when soldiers moved only on foot. And suppose the Government troops should join forces with the rebels, as often used to be the case; the railroads would only accelerate their attack on the capital. Suppose General Treviño, of the Department of the North, were to "pronounce," what effect could the northern divisions of the Central and National Railways have, except in his favor? We must go deeper, and learn why there is so little disaffection; why all the prominent military leaders are content to support the Government, and are not continually, as was their wont, raising the standard of revolt. It is urged that this unprecedented period of peace is due to the great personal influence of Diaz, who has made himself master of his country, and causes peace because he wills it, by his irresistible power, either winning the admiration or crushing the antagonism of any who might be his rivals. This is nearer the real solution, though it is incomplete without an explanation of the means which Diaz has used to create and maintain his power. If he has been more successful than Santa Anna or Juarez, it can only be due to a better command of the situation, not to superior personal prestige. It would seem, then, that we ought to look to the external circumstances of the Government more than to its mere *personnel* to find the cause of its stability. To come at once to the point, it is our opinion that it is almost wholly a matter of revenue. The vital question of Mexican politics has always been the financial question. The lack of stability, so conspicuous in the administrations of other days, was due to a lack of the funds necessary to carry on the Government. The unprecedented peacefulness of the past eight years is due to the unprecedented revenues of the past eight years.

One of the most acute though little known writers on Mexico is a French Abbé, Emmanuel Domenech, who was chaplain of the French army in Mexico and held the position of Director of the Press in Maximilian's cabinet. He published 'Le Mexique tel qu'il est' in 1867, and a 'Histoire du Mexique' in 1868, both of which works, though highly valuable, are out of print. He makes it very clear that the want of money had been the great determining reason of the fall of Government after Government, up to the time of his writing. When independence was finally achieved there was a perfect rush of the upper classes of the country for a share of those revenues which were no longer to flow into the treasury of Spain. There was speedily developed a rage for office-holding (*bureaumanie*). Scores of applicants elbowed each other for every vacancy. The disappointed candidates went away ripe for rebellion. So with the army, officers and men. When poorly paid, or not paid at all, they swiftly passed from grumbling into open revolution. All that any general had to do was to promise his troops better wages, and they would follow him anywhere, on any errand. "The Mexican soldier, forcibly torn from his house, his family, his pursuits, had no more reason for fighting for one party than the other; he would desert as soon as he was not paid. Well paid, well fed, and well clothed, Mexicans will fight faithfully for those who pay them, whoever they may be." "It is evident from the history of the rise and fall of every Mexican Government, that the cause of the rise, as of the fall, was solely the lack of money. As soon as the executive power could no longer give security to the great proprietors, nor furnish lucrative situations to the ambitious, or money to the generals to pay the troops, revolution would burst out, and the Government would fall. 'The good of the country,' 'liberty,' 'the rights of the people,' were the pretext, but private interest was always the real cause of the revolution." These opinions of the Abbé he supports by an array of facts which make his position unassailable. He shows how Juarez had but a meagre following until he made himself master of the Vera Cruz Custom-house, and confiscated the property of the Church, when partisans thronged to his support. He makes it incontestable that the fall even of Maximilian, after the departure of the French troops, was largely caused by the impossibility of providing for the financial needs of the empire.

Now, if we can show that the converse also bears out the theory—that the modern period of a firmly established Government is likewise the period of increased and sufficient income, that troops and office-seekers are contented because they are well provided for—it will be good proof of the view we have advanced. To do this needs only a glance at the official statistics. At the celebrated conference of Maximilian and his ministers at Orizaba in 1867, when he made the decision to remain and try to establish the empire, the flattering hope of a revenue of $11,000,000 was held out before him. The income at present is $32,000,000. The remarkable thing about this advance is that it has gone on in great leaps, principally since 1876, when Diaz came to power. Here is where large

credit is due him for statesmanship. He clearly saw that it was not so much a question of persons or of the form of government as of an assured and adequate income, without the necessity of resorting to forced loans. Accordingly he set himself resolutely to the task of reviving a strangled commerce, of making unused resources available. He sought the alliance of American capital. In the face of an intense opposition, he pushed through the charters and subsidies of the new railways. He encouraged and facilitated all kinds of investment and enterprise. Agriculture, mining, manufacture, awoke to new life. The public revenues enlarged. There was enough to pay the troops. Numberless new places were created for clamorous applicants: inspectors, contractors, agents, swarmed along the lines of the railroads. The demand for 50,000 laborers, at what were thought fabulous wages, greatly eased popular discontent, and gave employment to disbanded soldiers and guerrillas whose occupation was gone. Every new project of canal or harbor gave a comfortable place to a half-dozen engineers, who assiduously designed, advised, inspected, and drew their salaries. The new plan has, thus far, been completely successful. Money, employment, content, all have abounded. In 1881 there was a surplus revenue of $800,000. What would Maximilian or Juarez have said to that?

Yet the heavens are far from being unclouded. It is evident that the Government is under a great strain. Expenses are more than keeping pace with income at present. The subsidies of the railroads are a terrible drain. The outlay on army and navy consumes one-third of the entire revenue. Curtailment seems impossible. The question is whether increasing income will enable the administration to meet the pressure. That is the hope of Mexican financiers. But there are symptoms of coming failure. The Government has been forcing into circulation a vast sum of depreciated and unpopular coin. Hence the late "nickel riots." The telegraph reports the negotiation of a loan of $5,000,000. The Opposition papers are making ominous prophecies. It is all a matter of book-keeping. With the balance on the right side, all will be well. On the wrong side—well, General Diaz says it must not be on the wrong side.

THE GLADSTONE MINISTRY AND THE SUDAN.

THE London press and London society have begun to prophesy all sorts of dreadful things as likely to result to the Gladstone Ministry if anything serious should now happen in the Sudan, in consequence of their failure to make preparations to defend it. Should Khartum fall, they say, or another Egyptian garrison be massacred, the English people will rise in their might and hurl Gladstone from power. The provincial newspapers take no such view, however, and, as the memorable election of 1880 shows, they are far more likely to be right than the metropolitan critics. The Jingo fever never took hold of the bulk of the Liberal voters, and is never likely to do so. They have repudiated absolutely the Beaconsfield doctrine that England is bound to put itself in the way of responsibilities abroad, on what Lord Salisbury called the "Elizabethan plan." The Liberal doctrine is, that she is bound not to shirk responsibilities which are plainly forced upon her, but she is not to reach out for them. The occupation of Egypt was accepted by the party in England because, given the need of maintaining the Indian Empire, it seemed to be a necessity. For the same reason that the occupation was delayed as long as possible, it was made as little of an occupation as possible. The Government of the Khedive was not interfered with any more than was needed to restore and maintain order. Everything was done on the assumption that if he got a fair chance he could set up and carry on a stable government, and that it was desirable that Egypt should be administered as far as possible by native officials.

The experiment has been fairly tried, and has, as many good Liberals foresaw, broken down. Both the Khedive and his officers have proved unequal to the task imposed on them. The Constitution drawn up after the expulsion of Arabi has come to nothing, as Lord Dufferin anticipated, because the Egyptian people are not fit to work any constitution. They have not reached the deliberating or discussing stage in government at all, and know nothing of any government which does not consist in commands sanctioned by corporal punishment. In the meantime the finances have continued to be unequal to the strain put upon them by the enormous debt. The country shows itself still less able to meet the public burdens than under the late Khedive. There is a heavy deficit every year, and no money whatever for the protection of distant dependencies like the Sudan. The Tory critics of the Ministry insist that they should have foreseen all this from the outset—that is, have assumed after Tel-el-Kebir that the Khedive would be unable to govern the country, and have taken the Government, finances and all, wholly into English hands, or, in other words, have annexed Egypt. But this is the very kind of assumption that the Liberals dislike. They hold that to justify the occupation of Egypt the need of it should be demonstrated by events, not guessed at by Cabinet ministers or military commanders. Of course it would be well to have foresight enough to be able to solve such problems at the very start, without experimentation. But the Beaconsfield performances in Afghanistan and South Africa did not recommend this off-hand process. Lord Salisbury and Lord Lytton and Sir Bartle Frere tried it, and failed miserably, and their successors naturally fight shy of it.

The breakdown of the Egyptian administration in the Sudan is the natural consequence or accompaniment of its breakdown nearer home. Like the breakdown of the Tory attempt to put Yakub Khan on the Afghan throne, it has been attended with some lamentable consequences, such as the massacre of Hicks Pasha's force. It is now said by the Opposition, in fact, that Gladstone is responsible for Hicks Pasha's fate, because he advised the Khedive to give up the Sudan. But then he did not advise Hicks Pasha to try to reach El Obeid across the desert. On the contrary, the British military authorities at Cairo tried to dissuade him from doing so. It is his disregard of their advice which has made the False Prophet such a great man. He had already been beaten back from Khartum, and was much demoralized, and would, if let alone at El Obeid, probably have seen his forces dwindle. The success which the Hicks defeat almost forced upon him has now made him formidable to anybody who wants to keep the Sudan. It has accordingly become the fashion to goad Gladstone by exalting the Prophet's horn, just as during the Beaconsfield administration it used to be the fashion to goad Gladstone by exalting the Russian horn. The more terrible Russia appeared, the worse man Gladstone was made to appear in not being alarmed by her. In like manner the more terrible El Mahdi can be made to appear, the more reckless and careless Gladstone can be shown to be because he underrated the Mahdi.

"Chinese" Gordon, who is without doubt incomparably the best man for the crisis, has now been sent to the front, not to save the whole Sudan for Egypt, but to save all of it that Egypt in her present condition can possibly afford to keep, or can govern. This must be the programme unless England determines to reconquer the Sudan herself with British or Indian troops; but there is no sign whatever that English Liberal opinion would sanction any such enterprise after the experiences of 1879–80.

COOKS.

THERE is said to be a good deal of trouble in the domestic-service market, owing to the dearth of cooks of the class that most people in moderate circumstances want. We have heard recently of an intelligence-office which finds such difficulty in supplying the demand for cooks that it has offered a bonus for any one who will bring it in one; and we believe the case is not a solitary instance. Of course, there are in New York a great many cooks. Those who keep a *chef*, on the salary of a United States judge or district attorney, have comparatively little difficulty, but, although we continually hear of the rise in the scale of living, for most of us it has not risen to that point at which we can keep a *chef*. The moment, however, that we go below the *chef* level, the process of getting a plain cook in New York is surrounded with extreme difficulties. This is not because our standard is extraordinarily high. By a good plain cook we mean a cook who knows how to cook the ordinary dishes eaten by the mass of those who live in "side" streets, in plain twenty or twenty-five-foot high-stoop or English-basement houses, or apartments—not the millionaire nor the tenement-house population, but the prosperous, well-to-do New Yorker. Almost all this class has been brought up in the same way on plain Anglo-Saxon cooking—involving mainly a capacity to produce a clear soup, to roast, broil, boil, or stew the ordinary kinds of butchers' meats, to make, not sauces, but gravy, to produce those simple messes known as puddings, and to prepare vegetables for the table so that they can be eaten. Now we do not exaggerate when we say that it is almost impossible to get this kind of

cook in New York for love or money. The cook that you do get when you go in search of a plain cook, does not appear to be able to do a single one of these things, and often seems ignorant of the very nature of the articles which she undertakes to get ready for the table. What is her idea of soup? A thick substance which suggests a stew of the day before, out of which the meat has been taken, and has then been treated with lukewarm water and grease in equal quantities. What does she do with beef? Our belief is that after being detected, as she not unfrequently is, in an attempt to pass off fried steak upon the household, she resorts to the convenience which the oven affords and serves beef baked. As to vegetables—to say nothing of potatoes, in the course of boiling which she always manages to introduce the water into the vegetable, and so produces the almost universal "soggy" result we know so well—spinach, a vegetable she is particularly fond of cooking, perhaps on account of its rich, green color, she generally sends on in the condition in which it would have disgusted Nebuchadnezzar. When it comes to such a dish as an omelet, we do not like to think, much less to write, of what she does.

The only explanation of such a state of things seems to be that the persons who introduce themselves into our kitchens under pretence of being cooks, are nothing of the kind. They are not cooks and never have been, but they have heard that in America there is a great demand for cooks, and that high wages are paid for them, and they therefore call themselves cooks. They are impostors, and in their hearts must have a great contempt for us in not seeing through the imposture long ago. Look at their advertisements. We have one or two before us, of a kind that appear in the newspapers every day, and that reveal at once the general view of the business taken by them. The first contains, after the address, these words—how often have we read them!—"Young woman as cook, or to do general housework." A few lines further down we find another advertiser offering in the same way, "English woman as cook or to do general housework in a small family." The idea which underlies these advertisements evidently is that the same person goes about from house to house, taking her turn at the range in one and doing the general housework in another, as the family likes best. She will do either one or the other equally well. When we remember how vast is the improbability of any such system of rotation in service being possible; how few cases we have ever known in which a woman who had really learnt to be a cook desired to alternate between that function and the other; and how few chambermaids we have met who were also competent cooks, we see that the idea involved is that any strong, healthy woman, who can make up beds, dust furniture, wash windows, and sweep floors, can also cook—or, in other words, that cooking is something for which no training is needed, and nothing is required but the food and a fire. If we look a little further down the column we find advertisers who go a step beyond, and jocularly add to their notices such expressions as "Two years' references. *No cards*," or "Call Saturday. *No cards*"—phrases which strongly suggest the roars of laughter which must shake the sides of the stalwart girls when, after composing these contributions to the Want columns, they read them aloud to a merry little circle of other "cooks."

This state of things has at last brought us face to face with the question, Is there no substitute for cooks? It has always been taken for granted in English and American literature that, in the words of a poet who has devoted a good deal of time and reflection to the subject,

"Civilized man cannot live without cooks."

But what Owen Meredith meant was civilized cooks, or cooks who knew how to cook—not the race of savages who have in our time assumed the honored name, and masquerade as cooks because they are convinced by what they have learned about us that we do not know the difference. The rise and growth of a system of catering which shall enable the householder to get a dinner without having to employ a cook, may be already detected as among the things which give promise of a brighter future for New York and all other large American cities. This city really presents a field such as no other great modern city affords for an enterprising caterer. Not much capital is required. Two or three central kitchens, a few carts and fast horses—and the United States is the home of fast horses—with these any good restaurateur could supply meals to families by the hundreds at a much cheaper rate than any family gets them at now. The great development of apartment life here furnishes a strong reason for immediate success. Families living in apartments are just those who find most trouble in getting cooks. Cooks, it is well known, prefer houses, partly because, owing to the greater accessibility of a kitchen in an apartment, they are sooner found out than in establishments where they are in a quarter of their own; and most people who live in apartments do so in a measure for the sake of economy, while what cooks like is waste.

Of course, it will be said that there is the great difficulty of serving a dinner sent round in a cart—dinners *à la cart* they should, we suppose, be called—really hot; but leaving aside the question how often, as it is, people get their ordinary domestic dinner hot, this problem has, we believe, been solved by the use of steam, by one pioneer concern, which is now engaged in a praiseworthy attempt to reduce the number of cooks in New York. How far this or any other such scheme will succeed, must depend of course on the character of the meals and the punctuality of the service; but it will be indeed surprising if in this home of invention, in this land in which so much time and thought is spent on the invention of labor-saving machinery, we should much longer be obliged absolutely to depend upon such a crude, and primitive, and wasteful appliance as our domestic kitchen, with its savage and untaught administrator. We like not infrequently to think of New York as it might be rather than as it is—as filled with countless happy homes and flats, where the approach of the dinner hour no longer calls up dreadful anticipations of mistake and disaster, but of pleasure and content; where, punctual on the stroke of the hour, the fast team of the provider rattles up to the door—the breed of horses developed by the Fire Department might, we should think, be used for this purpose—bringing with it that great desideratum of our life, a dinner involving in the background neither kitchen nor cook.

THE LAST DAYS OF LOUIS XVII.

PARIS, December 21.

THERE is such a love of the marvellous in the human mind, that there are many people who still believe that the unfortunate son of Louis XVI. and of Marie Antoinette did not die in the Temple. There have been several false Louis Seventeenths. I have known one personally—a handsome old man, with the Bourbon nose, who did not look like an impostor; he was good, kindly, and mad. He used occasionally to come and take his dinner at a very modest table d'hôte in the Rue Jacob, where I went as a student. At present there is no Louis XVII., but there are some pretended heirs of the Dauphin. Five of them bear the name of Naundorff, and live in Germany; some have taken service in the German army, and I have been informed that they have friends who try to make proselytes in their favor, especially in the ranks of the lower clergy in France.

No serious person in France believes now in the claims of any "false Demetrius." Still, some interest must always attach to the documents which concern the young Prince who was the victim of the Convention. M. de Beauchesne has written a touching book on the Dauphin, which has had several editions. M. de Chantelauze, the son of the Minister of Charles X., who is a very laborious historian, and who has given us very interesting works on Mary Stuart, on Cardinal de Retz, on Cardinal Mazarin and his nieces, has been fortunate enough to discover new and very conclusive documents on the young Prince. Hitherto the historians of Louis XVII. have only known of two inquests made by order of Louis XVIII., after the Restoration. One had for its object the discovery of the remains of the young Prince in the Cemetery of Saint Margaret; the other, the authentication of the heart of Louis XVII., which the surgeon Pelletan had kept for himself when he made the autopsy. There was another and a much more important inquest made, which was kept secret, the King having confided the care of it to his favorite, the Count Decazes, who afterward became the Duke Decazes. The King charged the Count Decazes, who was at the time Minister of Police, to find out all the people who had shown marks of kindness to his unfortunate nephew, and to acknowledge their perilous devotion. M. Decazes was so fortunate as to find several guards and employees of the Temple, and, among others, the civil commissioner who had witnessed the death, the autopsy, and the funeral of the Prince.

After the Revolution of 1830, all the papers and documents collected in this inquest were placed in the Archives, where they were forgotten till M. de Chantelauze brought them again to light. Among the employees of the Temple was the Prince's servant, Caron, who still lived in 1817. Caron declared, on the inquest, that he brought his meals three times a day to the young prisoner, and had taken him a *bouillon* half an hour before his death. One of the last keepers of Louis XVII., Gomin by name, was found in 1817 in Paris, and soon afterward the police found the very last, Lasne, who had been a

commandant of the National Guard in the section of the "Rights of Men." Lasne was a house-painter; the agents of Decazes represent him as a very honest and good man. Two municipal officers, who had rendered small services to the Prince, were also found, and Louis XVIII. made one of them a Knight of the Legion of Honor. The inquest furnished very interesting details about the doctors who had seen the Prince. The most important discovery was that of the widow of the famous Simon, who was found in the Hospital of the Incurables, in the Rue de Sèvres. There is a feeling of universal reprobation attached to the names of the shoemaker, Simon, and his wife, who were the keepers of the young Prince. The agents of Decazes seemed to believe, however, that the wife of Simon, far from having tortured the child confided to her charge, took care of him as a mother. "And what," says M. de Chantelauze, "at first sight seems no less extraordinary, is the fact that the Sisters of the Incurables were of the same opinion as the agents of the police. During the twenty years which the widow Simon spent in this hospital, where she died on the 10th of June, 1819, she was placed under the direction of Sister Sainte-Lucie, who learned from her many particulars, true or false, concerning the Temple." Sister Lucie was still living in 1830, and one of her friends, Sister Nicolas, who even now survives, at Clichy, has given notes to M. de Chantelauze, in which it is said that "the widow Simon was naturally good and mild. She professed to have only ill-treated the little Prince during the visits of the municipality. These visits over, she and her husband treated the child with mildness."

It would not be surprising if Simon and his wife were less ferocious than the Commissioners of the Paris Commune, who from time to time came to see their victim. But if we may believe that they did not make the young Prince suffer constantly in a material sense, it is too well proved that in a moral sense they tried to debase him, that they did all they could to efface in him every trace, every memory of his royal origin. Simon was a *sans-culotte*, and his ambition was to make a *sans-culotte* of his prisoner. He had great claims on the gratitude of the Commune and of the Convention. After the death of Louis XVI., all the Courts of Europe had recognized young Louis XVII. as the King of France; Marie Antoinette treated him at once, though they were both in prison, as a king. Numerous conspiracies were formed in order to free the prisoners of the Temple. The Convention was alarmed. The death of Marie Antoinette was resolved on, but she was first separated from her son. M. de Chantelauze says that the most dangerous conspiracy made for the rescue of Louis XVII. was that of Michonis, which was discovered by Simon. Michonis was one of the guards placed by the municipality of Paris at the Temple; he and four others, moved by the spectacle of the misfortunes of the royal family, planned their escape. Simon, who was also a municipal guardian, discovered and denounced the plot. Michonis and another died on the scaffold. In order to recompense Simon, the Convention gave him the whole charge of the education of the Prince. At the same time, he was to act as a spy near the Queen and Mme. Elizabeth. He was charged to collect all possible information, even from the mouth of Louis XVII., for the trial of the Princesses. By the most atrocious coercive measures, Simon forced the young Prince to become one of the accusers of his mother and of his aunt, and to become an unconscious instrument of their fate.

A fact on which M. de Chantelauze much insists is this: Simon was determined to ruin the Queen. To send her to the scaffold was a mission of which he seemed to have been proud. He tormented and brutalized the child as long as he could hope to get a word from him which could be used against Marie Antoinette. After her execution the brute seems to have become milder; Simon made himself a companion of the innocent child, and played with him in his prison. While the Queen was still alive, Simon cut the beautiful locks of Louis, took off the mourning dresses, and gave him the costume of the *sans-culottes*, with the red Phrygian cap. He forced him to wash his room and to clean it. He taught him obscene songs, he refused to give him his food if he did not sing the "Marseillaise." The poor child had a truly noble heart. One day, after Simon had beaten him, he asked: "Capet, if the Vendéens delivered you, what would you do?" "I would pardon you." Chaumette, the procureur of the Commune, sent playthings to the child, and, among others, he put in a small guillotine. It is doubtful if the followers of the King of Dahomey can have more horrible inventions. Simon, for his ignoble work, received from the Commune a salary of 6,000 livres; his wife had 4,000 livres. The two sums together would represent now about 40,000 francs. They spent all this money in fine repasts and in drink. They tried constantly to make the child get drunk with them. Simon had reduced him to a state of abject terror, and thus turned him into an accuser of his mother. Hébert, the Communist, invented the accusation; he taught Simon a lesson; Simon taught it to the child, who did not even understand it. It is impossible even for stern history to reproduce textually the imaginary accusations made against Marie Antoinette; history only remembers her sublime protest: "J'en appelle à toutes les mères!"

The Convention was satisfied when the daughter of Maria Theresa ascended the scaffold. The work of Simon was done; he resigned his office of governor of the son of Capet. The Convention judged that it was not necessary to replace him, as it was decided that the guardianship of the young Louis should be confided to the men of the Commune. This measure was disastrous, in one sense. Thus far the young Prince had been regarded as a state prisoner; the men of the Commune simply looked upon him as an ordinary prisoner. He was subjected to the regimen of thieves and assassins. He was deprived of a single servant. At the age of eight he was thrown into a noisome cell, all alone, and his cell was not cleaned sometimes for days. He lived thus six months more, but he was fortunately seized with a skin disease, and finally died. Death was to him a deliverance. Hardly anything was known about his last end, till M. Decazes found the Civil Commissioner Damont, who had been called to the Temple the day of the death of Louis XVII. He spent three days in the Temple, and wrote a detailed report, the original of which is now in the national archives. Damont recognized the child, though he was much altered. The last words of the Prince were these: "Put me in a place where I shall not suffer so much." It had at first been decided to keep his death secret. Four deputies, however, went to the Temple the next day to verify the identity. Damont saw the autopsy. He kept for himself some hair of the young Prince, which he placed in a morocco box. The report will be found *in extenso* in the appendix to the interesting work of M. de Chantelauze. It is followed by a "Procès-verbal of the autopsy of the son of Louis Capet, made in the tower of the Temple on the 21st Prairial, year III.," signed by two doctors, Dumangin and Pelletan. The doctors note two tumors, one on a knee, the other on an arm; they make, also, a number of medical observations, and conclude thus: "All the disorders of which we have just given the details are evidently the effect of a scrofulous vice which had existed for a long time, and to which ought to be attributed the death of the child."

M. de Chantelauze has collected many portraits of Louis XVII. He gives us in his work only the charming portrait of the child as a Dauphin, with the cross of the Holy Spirit and the *cordon bleu*. The eyes are beautiful, and the features are extremely noble and elegant.

Correspondence.

PACIFIC-COAST VIEW OF THE CHINESE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May a constant reader of the *Nation*, an admirer of its wit, wisdom, and critical acumen, taking the following sentences clipped from recent editorials, as a reason for inquiry, ask why you so persistently misrepresent American, and especially Pacific-coast, public opinion as to the Chinese question?

"We have actually undertaken to exclude from the United States the inhabitants of a great empire for no better reason than that they worked for too small wages, and that their standard of living was low" (*Nation*, Dec. 20, 1883).

"The mere irritation, in fact, caused to certain classes of our people by the spectacle of Chinese frugality, industry, and cleanliness is of itself a reason for their detestation of Chinamen" (*Nation*, Nov. 15).

Now, on the Pacific coast, those of us—to whichever one of these "certain classes" we may belong—who desire to see this magnificent empire something other than an abiding-place for a population of paupers, coolies, and millionaires, who, in fact, wish that it may develop into a great state, in all that the words imply, believe that the *Nation*, in discussing this Chinese question, so vital to us, is in some respects wrong. For instance, we had supposed, until you came to enlighten us, that not all "the inhabitants of a great empire," but only a certain class of its inhabitants, were excluded from the United States by the anti-Chinese legislation; that the rate of Chinese wages, the standard of Chinese living, while cutting some slight figure in the discussion of the question, were by no means the determining reasons for the passage of the Anti-Chinese Bill. On full consideration of the whole matter it had seemed to some of us heretofore that not one single solid argument could be advanced in favor of Chinese immigration, and that in any true sense the Chinaman is neither industrious nor frugal, as not the most hide-bound pro-Chinese fanatic would for a moment contend that he is (save, in some cases, as to his individual person) cleanly. Industry, in any proper sense, implies much more than working twelve or fourteen hours each day like an animal, then, after stupefying one's self with opium, going to sleep in a veritable sty or stall. Frugality means more than the division of air, food, drink, and women, so that those expenditures which enable men to refine themselves, to make human life decent, may be kept at the lowest figure, at the sacrifice of everything that to an American or European makes life worth having.

But the bestialities of the Chinese might be passed over did there seem to be any possibility of correcting them by allowing their perpetrators to stay here, to cast in their lot with us, to become, all unfit as they are, citizens of the State, as other immigrants become its citizens. But as you know, Mr. Editor, even the bones of John have to return to China—the very safety of his immortal soul demands the pig-tail, and a final

resting-place within the borders of the Flowery Kingdom. Damnation is for him averted *per contract*, and his forwarders to our shores agree to return him, dead or alive. He *cannot* stay here! And this is the conclusive argument against the Chinaman. Not that he works for too small wages, not that his rate of living is too low, but that he comes here as a parasite—to feed upon our substance, not to increase it. In and about the city of San Francisco there are many thousand Italians, who, with the Chinese, monopolize certain work, especially market-gardening and fishing on the Bay. They live for at least as little as the Chinese, they work for as small wages, they have made it impossible for Americans to compete with them in their chosen labor; yet no man ever heard any Californian propose a restriction of Italian immigration. The Italian comes here to stay; his family, if he has any, comes with him; poorly qualified as he is to become a citizen of a republic, he is welcome. We have faith to believe that his children will be an improvement over their father.

So it is, Mr. Editor, that those of us who read the *Nation* are aggrieved, and we think justly so, at its tone toward us. We are—that rarest thing—a community unanimous on a question of public interest. And when we see the *Nation* sneering at us, confounding what we conceive to be unanswerable arguments in our favor with the nonsense of demagogues, or the utterances of ill-advised friends, we have a right, we think, to ask you, is this ignorance or malice?

Piloting an old Eastern friend of mine the other day through the garbage-heaps of the Chinese quarter, I said to him: "Do you notice anything peculiar in the appearance of the hundred or so Chinese children whom we have met?" "Nothing peculiar—excepting the difference of costume and race, of course—but they all seem to be boys. Not one in ten is a girl. Why is that?" The question was to me at first a poser, but on taking counsel with a Chinese acquaintance of mine I learned (after considerable cross-questioning) that a prejudice exists among our soft-voiced Oriental friends against girl babies, and that as soon as these are born they are quietly made away with—except, of course, such as are wanted for purposes of prostitution or for sale as servants. "All lightee in China!" observed my Mongolian friend. And these are the "industrious, frugal" immigrants whom you wish to force upon us! Do you wonder we object to them somewhat?

Very respectfully yours,

SAMUEL BRADLEY WIGGIN.

SAN FRANCISCO, January 1, 1884.

[We are willing to amend the first of the above passages so as to make it read "for no better reason than that they worked for too small wages, that their standard of living was exceedingly low, and that they refused to remain permanently in the country either alive or dead." We do not see our way to amending the last one. By "certain classes," we mean the lazy, improvident, and dirty Caucasians, and we must maintain that to them the spectacle of Chinese frugality, industry, and cleanliness is extremely irritating. There may be other reasons for detesting the Chinese, but with some people this is "of itself a reason."—ED. NATION.]

THE ISSUE OF PAPER MONEY BY THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is the *Nation* quite true in saying (issue of Jan. 3, p. 3) that "the issue of paper money is left to the banks by all solvent governments?" Did not Peel's Bank-Charter Act of 1844, in England, separate, as far as then practicable, the issue of paper money from banking business proper, as a preliminary step (in the view of Sir Robert Peel, Lord Overstone, Torrens, etc.) to the final abolition of all banks of issue in the kingdom save one, which should have no connection with the business of discount and deposit? The issue department of the Bank of England was by that act entirely separated from the banking department. Sir Thompson Hankey, Governor of the Bank of England in 1851–2, says on this point (v. p. 2 of his work on Banking, 3d Edit., London, 1876): "Since 1844 the Directors have had no control over that part of the currency which consists of bank notes; that is, they have had nothing whatever to do with the amount at any time in circulation in the country." No other bank of issue is permitted in London, and the amount which other—country banks, as they are called—may issue, is restricted by the same act. No new bank of issue can be created; and the law is so framed as to favor the relinquishment of much of the country-bank circulation, with a view to future fresh arrangements for the total extinction of country bank-note circulation.

J. McLaren, in his 'History of the Currency' (2d Edit., London, 1879, p. 183), says:

"By this act no new banks were to issue notes, and any bank already existing which ceased to issue them was not to be allowed again to resume that privilege. All private banks, too, were limited, under heavy penalties, to the average amount of their issues for the twelve weeks preceding the 17th day of April, 1844, and the Bank of England was allowed to compound with issuing banks for the transfer to her of that privilege; the object of all these provisions being evidently the gradual extinction of the private issuers. By this act it was also provided that the Bank of England might issue additional notes upon securities, to the extent of two-thirds of the lapsed issues of the country bankers, on being authorized to do so by an order in council."

Pardon my calling your attention to this point. It seemed of too much consequence to pass unnoticed.

Yours with sincere respect,

E J. LEONARD.

MERIDEN, CONN., January 9, 1884.

[We do not see clearly what our correspondent's point is. We never said that all banks in England issued notes, or that any bank had the power of fixing the amount of paper circulation afloat. What we said was that all solvent governments leave the issue of paper money to the banks, which is true of England as of other countries. The Directors of the Bank of England do not fix the amount of paper afloat any given time. No bank does or can do that. But whatever paper gets afloat in England is issued by them, under certain legal restrictions providing for redeemability. It is a mistake to suppose that the Issue Department is not part of the Bank of England. It is, as Bagehot says, "half" of the Bank, and issues such paper as the Bank is permitted by law to put afloat, and the paper thus put afloat is all the paper money there is in England. None is issued by the Government, as the Exchequer Bills are not money.—ED. NATION.]

CABINET OFFICERS IN CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the discussion of the executive-government question through your columns, it is well to remember that circumstances have already necessitated a far closer connection between our legislative and our executive than at first sight would appear to be the case. There are probably many persons whose objection to the presence of Cabinet officers upon the floor of Congress lies in a vague fear of too close an association between these two coördinate branches of the Government, who, if aware to what extent such association now exists, would prefer to make it public and to subject it to some sort of regulation, rather than give continued opportunity to secret and unofficial relations.

The English Cabinet is an evolution, and what is regarded as the essential instrument of parliamentary government is a body unknown to the laws. In this country a written constitution has restricted the growth and modified the form of what, under a different experience, would doubtless have taken on the characteristic features of its English prototype. Ever since the administration of Washington, as, to a certain extent, even during his administration, it has been customary for heads of departments to be consulted by members of Congress and by committees as to methods and ends of legislation, and often to act initiatively in bringing to the attention of Congress objects in their opinion requiring its action. The Constitution authorizes the President to make recommendations to the law-making power, and thus clothes the Executive with a *quasi*-legislative authority. The long reports from every branch of the administrative system, packed with facts and bristling with suggestions and theories, which are discharged upon Congress at the beginning of every session, are in their way indications of the necessary relation between the law-making and the law-enforcing powers. It is, moreover, a common thing for bills to be prepared in the departments and then passed by Congress, thus in an indirect way allowing the Executive to enact laws. The newspapers have lately given us the chief provisions of an important bill, prepared at the State Department, for conferring extra-territorial jurisdiction upon a number of our consular representatives; and similar instances as to other departments have been made public.

Not many persons, probably, would object to these things, for certainly the service of special knowledge and of great experience is thereby secured in aid of wise legislation. But why, if conference and coöperation between the executive and the legislative branches be both inevitable and capable of being beneficial, should not steps be taken in recognition of these facts, and in the direction of their publicity and their healthful operation? It is vain to attempt to delude ourselves with words. What do we mean by the "policy" of an administration, if that administration's only duty is the mere routine of doing prescribed things in a prescribed way? The fact is that an executive "policy" is possible even with us, and we expect it to be so. The presence of Cabinet officers in the House and Senate would necessitate a consistent policy upon the part of the Administration, for it would be always subject to examination, to inquiry, and to the necessity of self-defence and self-justification. It would raise the *personnel* of the Cabinet in respect of ability and reputation. It would save both time and money. It would vastly tend to purity and openness in public matters. Whether it would also in time render necessary the incorporation of the other principle, of ministerial responsibility, into our system, and whether such a result is to be desired, are questions pregnant with importance, and from whose discussion no harm can come.—

Respectfully, C. A. TOWNE.

LANSING, MICH., January 14, 1884.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think I have detected in the *Nation* a dislike to controversies between your contributors. Luckily there is no need that "G. B." and myself should offend your reluctance. The inference I read out of or into M. de Laveleye's paper in the *Contemporary* was not his main purpose, but I think a fair corollary. Whatever his purpose in citing them, the facts he stated showed a marked instability and weakness in the conduct of government in several countries named, where the Cabinet sits with the Legislature, and where the executive and legislative are representative and closely identified. It seems to me that "G. B." projects an a-priori scheme of government, and then disclaims any responsibility of using forecast as to how it will work. But he is bound to use forecast and wise prevision when he touches the machinery of a clock or a government.

I do not share at all his desire to relieve either the national executive or legislature of that paralysis of functional efficiency he deplores. I cannot recall any scheme of overt statesmanship since the war, planned by either President or member of the Cabinet, the failure of the adoption of which has been a serious harm to the country. "G. B." complains that since the war, Congress has never been able to do anything at all. That reminds us that M. de Laveleye, in the article before referred to, says: "Every year, Mr. Gladstone, whose inexhaustible activity has been spent in obtaining so few results, laments, with an eloquent sadness, the sterility of the session." So the trouble is not ours alone.

In fine and finally, as much risk of harm as of good goes along with any increase in the efficiency of government. The inability to do, which "G. B." complains of in our General Government, exists in all representative governments, so that to give the Cabinet and Executive a more direct legislative power and seats in Congress does not promise much help; and until election of Federal officials by the people, or a fixed and stable civil service, takes this tremendous power and burden of patronage away from the President and heads of departments, I for one do not want to see the relation between these and Congress made closer, or the legislative power of the Executive increased. S. M. C.

Keokuk, Iowa.

DR. CLEVENGER AND THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your notice of Dr. S. V. Clevenger's interesting paper in the *American Naturalist* for January, you say that "the foot-note which the author appends to it is valuable also as a contribution to the history of the higher education in this country." Perhaps this is true. But it seems to me that it is valuable also as showing how the most pronounced materialism may go hand-in-hand with a truly Oriental imagination; or as a commentary on the boasted superiority of the study of science over the study of the classics, by its tendency to develop that saving enthusiasm for plain facts which reports "the things that are as being, and the things that are not as not being"; or, again, as showing that the passion for the martyr's crown is not confined to the poor deluded products of Sunday-school training.

To begin with, there is no "Chicago University Club." A few years ago a number of persons living in the neighborhood of the University of Chicago arranged to meet once a week for friendly discussion of literary, political, scientific, and social topics of the day. This developed into an organized club, at first under the name of the "Nation Club," subsequently changed to the "University Club"—in recognition, I suppose, of the courtesy of the University authorities in permitting the club to hold its meetings in one of the rooms of the University building. And this is all the connection there is between the University Club and the University of Chicago.

The "Baptist clergyman" who is President of the University, a gentleman well known and highly esteemed both East and West, and one of the most liberal of men, has never been a member of this club, has, so far as I know, never been present at any of its meetings, was certainly not present when Dr. Clevenger's paper was read, and will probably have his attention called to the "Disadvantages of the Upright Position" for the first time by this notice in the *Nation*. It is not clear, therefore, what the "Baptist clergyman" has to do with this matter, or how the reading of the paper in question could have "cost Dr. Clevenger an appointment to the chair of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology in the University of Chicago," especially as there was no such chair waiting to be filled—although no one who knows Dr. Clevenger could doubt his eminent qualification to fill such a chair with marked success. And yet all this, upon reflection, leads me to think that you were right after all (as you almost always are) in saying that the author's foot-note is a valuable contribution to the history of the higher education in this country.—Yours truly,

Edward Olson.

University of Chicago, January 19, 1884.

STATE AND LOCAL TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The method of raising State taxes indirectly instead of directly would, as your correspondent, Mr. Clark, suggests, promote ease of collection; but from what would this advantage arise? From the fact that under indirect taxation the masses of the people do not know when and how much they pay. Can a Government which is professedly "for the people and by the people" honorably take advantage of the ignorance of the people?

The working of the indirect system has undoubtedly done much to promote the extravagant expenditure and almost unlimited corruption which stain the reputation of our national Government. There is nothing to indicate that the system would be attended by any less evil if applied to the individual States. The question of the disposal of surplus revenue would soon be answered if every man knew just when and how his share of the unnecessary amount was collected. W. H. Johnson.

Granville, O., December 28.

THE MANNERS OF WORK-PEOPLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read with interest your editorial on "Domestic Service" in the *Nation* of the 3d inst., but I cannot agree with your conclusion that "there is no formidable reason why the man or woman who works with the hands should not be externally as polite, have as pleasant a voice, speak as good English, make as good a bow, and be as considerate and careful about other people's convenience and comforts and feelings as those who work with their brains, or live on their investments."

It seems to me not difficult to explain the inferior mien and manners of work-people, and to show that they will necessarily continue inferior unless the race arrives at Mr. Mill's stationary age when a degree of leisure will be the attainable ambition of even manual laborers. Any well-bred and educated man who has had personal experience of physical toil, knows that when fatigue has given at least a temporary stiffness to his limbs, and a husky inflexibility to his voice, his manners are not at their best. As the plantation proverb has it: "De proudness un a man don't count w'en him got de misery in him legs." But if well-bred and educated people can experience the ill effect on manners of muscular fatigue, how great and inevitable must be that effect on those who have never had the leisure to cultivate either their manners or their minds, but who, their day's work ended, are too fatigued to practise those little acts of helpfulness which are the useful side of courtesy, as the graces of speech and behavior constitute its charm.

No explanation of the inferior manners of hard-worked people would be complete which should omit the physical effects of muscular toil. These effects are plainly exhibited by men who, like the New England farmers, are in a high degree self-respecting and in no small degree intelligent. Men and women whose bodily powers are always taxed to the utmost, and whose limbs often ache with weariness, are not likely to invent, or even to imitate, those "happy ways of doing things" which Emerson called good manners. Inconvenienced and uncomfortable themselves, they are not likely to study the convenience and comfort of others. Those minor acts of courtesy which to people of leisure are a kindly pastime, demand of them a degree of exertion and forbearance to which their toil-worn frames are unequal.

Sue Harry Clagett.

Portland, Oregon, January 12, 1884.

Notes.

John Wiley & Sons will publish immediately a "people's edition" of Ruskin's works, beginning with the 'Modern Painters,' which, for example—five volumes, bound in two, with all the wood engravings—will be sold at two dollars. They also announce a 'Ruskin Birthday Book,' and 'The Air We Breathe, and Ventilation,' for the use of tenants, physicians, architects, etc., by Henry A. Mott, jr., Ph.D.

The *Book-Buyer*, published by the house of Scribner for the ten years ending 1877, will be revived on February 1, even to the regular London letter from Mr. Charles Welford. It will contain a concise summary of American and foreign books.

Froude's paper in the *Contemporary* on Luther, based on Köstlin's Life, has been reprinted by Charles Scribner's Sons in a cheap authorized edition, in large print, with paper covers.

Mr. Abner C. Goodell, jr.'s curious archæological research among the 'Seals of the Judicial Courts of the Colony and Province of Massachusetts Bay—1680–1780,' reprinted, with the drawings of the seals, from the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society; and the same author's still more valuable account of the 'Trial and Execution for Petit Treason of Mark and Phillis, Slaves of Captain John Codman'—these slaves having murdered their master in Charlestown in 1755, and the man been hung and the woman burnt at the stake in consequence—reprinted from the same Proceedings, are obtainable of Soule & Bugbee, Boston. The second paper also notices other cases of burning in Massachusetts, and is in many ways a helpful illustration of the history of American jurisprudence and growth in civilization.

The new, revised, and enlarged edition of Dr. Philip Schaff's 'History of the Christian Church' (Charles Scribner's Sons) has now reached its third volume, which deals with Nicene and Post-Nicene Christianity, from Constantine the Great to Gregory the Great. The fourth volume, on Mediæval Christianity to the time of the Reformation, will appear ere long.

One of the fruits of the new policy by which Leo XIII. throws open the Vatican Library is the appearance at Vienna of a volume containing two hundred documents found in that library relating to the deliverance of Vienna by Sobieski in 1683. The work contains one hundred and thirty-five autograph letters of Innocent XI., Leopold I., Sobieski, and others. Two similar volumes, relating to Clement VII. and Honorius III., are to follow.

Prof. Goodwin's report on his directorship of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, just printed in the Bulletin of the Archæological Institute of America, makes an interesting document of twenty-four pages 8vo. It gives a pleasant picture of the friendly reception accorded to the new-comers by the citizens of Athens, of the courtesies extended to them by the French and German Schools, of the assistance rendered by the American Minister and other countrymen resident or viatic, and of the temporary habitation of the School (near the Gate of Hadrian), with its broad and inspiring views. The students have been sufficiently numerous and diligent, and some of their theses may yet be printed if the School be enabled to publish a bulletin. The field of study and research is of course inexhaustible. The drawbacks are the want of a fixed home, of a larger income; above all, of a permanent resident director in place of the annual substitution of a professor from one of the contributory colleges in turn. Professor Goodwin thinks that $120,000 would serve as an adequate endowment of the School, and seems sanguine of obtaining this amount, which provides for the employment of a first-rate man as director. Incidentally some sensible remarks are made on the desirability of applying the modern Greek pronunciation to the ancient in teaching—the great impediment to which is the confusion of the seven ancient vowel sounds in one sound (*ee*).

Apropos of the study of classical Greek, we have before us the current catalogue of the Roxbury (Mass.) Latin School for the 239th year of this venerable institution. Its summary view shows that, in spite of its notoriously high standing of instruction, the percentage of hours of recitation given to Greek (.15) falls below that of English (.20) and Latin (.25), and but little exceeds that of Mathematics (.13).

Two papers among those printed at length in the Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, at New Haven in October last, will interest scholars, viz., that by Prof Isaac H. Hall, on "A Temple of Zeus Labranios in Cyprus," and that by the Rev. John P. Peters, on "The Egyptian and Old Babylonian Theories of the Origin of the Phœnician Alphabet Compared," in criticism of the Rev. Isaac Taylor's position in his work on the 'Alphabet.'

The Sixth Congress of Orientalists, which met last September, at Leyden, passed a resolution calling upon the British Museum to send out its manuscripts to be used in other cities and foreign countries, as do many of the great Continental libraries. It is to be hoped that the demand will not be granted. No library has a right to run such risks. A manuscript destroyed is lost not only to the library, but to the world. If it has not been printed or copied, it can never be replaced. If it has been copied, either it has no value above the copy, in which case the copy would do as well, or it still has a unique value of its own, which should not be exposed to risk. The fate of the manuscripts lent to Mommsen is a proof of this. But as the British Museum does not allow its printed books, the greater part of which are not irreplaceable, to leave the building, it is by no means likely that it will risk its more precious manuscripts.

Quakers will be glad of the defence of their nominative use of *thee*, as a survival instead of a solecism, in an article on "The English Dative-Nominative of the Personal Pronoun," by F. B. Gummere, in the current issue of the *American Journal of Philology*. Mr. J. Rendel Harris concludes his important papers on stichometry as applied to the Four Gospels particularly, with conclusions favorable to the last twelve verses of Mark having been included in the standard copies for the MSS. examined, and unfavorable to the authenticity of the passage concerning the woman taken in adultery, in John.

The third number of the third volume of 'Appalachia' (Boston: W. B Clarke & Carruth) is a full one, and has the usual value for reference and preservation. It is perhaps desirable not to set a premium on literary charm in these accounts of mountain-climbing, for fear of encouraging "fine writing." Still, the reader would occasionally be cheered to find a poetic gift of description added to enthusiasm in the special work of the Club. The promise, for example, of the paper on the "Mountains and Scenery of Jamaica" is hardly fulfilled. Among the useful labors of the Club during the past year has been improving the access to the Twin Mountain range in New Hampshire and to Mt. Ktaadn in Maine. A panoramic outline of the Presidential range from Jefferson Highlands is folded in with this number. Professor W. G. Farlow contributes pretty full notes on the cryptogamic flora of the White Mountains. The other writers are of both sexes, representing fairly the membership of the club in this respect.

Le roi est mort. Vive le roi! "V'lan," successor of "Pschutt," has left the throne to "Tschock." This new King of Argot is evidently a distant relative of Shocking. He will reign six months and give way to another, or perhaps be succeeded by anarchy.

Rouam, the Paris publisher, has in preparation what promises to be an important addition to Raphael literature, by Eugène Müntz, entitled 'Les Historiens et les Critiques de Raphael, 1483-1883, Essai Bibliographique,' intended to serve as a supplement to Passavant's standard biography. The writers upon Raphael between 1483 and 1883 will be passed upon critically.

In Berlin, from the publishing house of Weidmann, will shortly appear the first volume of a life of Lessing, by Professor Erich Schmidt, entitled 'Lessing, Geschichte seines Lebens und seiner Schriften.' Professor Schmidt's previous contributions to German literary history of the eighteenth century, including a life of 'Heinrich Leopold Wagner,' augur well for an adequate and scholarly biography.

A collection of posthumous essays by Reinhold Pauli, the biographer of Simon de Montfort, and a writer of merit upon English historical subjects, containing studies upon Durham, Henry V. of Lancaster, Beginnings of Henry Eighth's Reign, Thomas Cromwell, House of Hanover upon the English Throne, Sir Robert Peel, Chevalier Bunsen, is announced by Hirzel of Leipzig, under the title 'Aufsätze zur englischen Geschichte.'

The last *Lieferung* of F. Sander's 'Lexikon der Pädagogik' contains some interesting tables showing the distribution and great over-production of text-books in gymnasia, progymnasia, and higher burgher schools. Formerly the Government selected a number of text-books in each department as a so-called "canon," and local boards or teachers had only the right of selecting from these. A few years ago, however, this right, which is still maintained in Austria and Bavaria in part, was renounced in Prussia in order to "keep alive an active interest in improving the means of instruction on the part of teachers, and destroy monopolies which had arisen in certain departments." As a result, text-books have multiplied enormously, but more from the initiative of authors than of publishers. Of 1,544 text-books, 668 are used in only one establishment, and for the most part where the author teaches. In 1880 there were 99 different text-books of mathematics in use in Prussia alone, of which 55 were used in but one institution; of 65 text-books of natural history, 36; of 85 text-books in French, 44; of 160 religious text-books, 80; of 201 books of song 110 were used in only one school. This state of things is permitted by collegial courtesy, and illustrates German subjectivism. Of the above 1,544 books, 233 were introduced in only two, 113 in but three schools. Of 226 books used in from 11 to 100 schools, 98 are used in from 11 to 20 schools, and only 11 in from 81 to 100 schools. Among the books most widely used is the French grammar of Plötz, the reading book of Hopf and Paulsiek, Daniel's geography, the Latin grammar of Ellendt-Seyffert, and the elementary mathematics of Kambly. The history of text-books and their distribution in our own country is beginning to attract wide attention, and when it is written out will be interesting reading, though in a very different way from the above.

'The Year's Art' (Sampson Low & Co.), now in its fifth year, comes as usual with full information as to English exhibitions, etc., for the year, legal decisions and enactments, with a brief addendum concerning the American institutions devoted to art. The Belt-Lawes case is reported, and the art sales of 1883, and a large number of small process illustrations diversify the dulness of statistics.

Professor Peters, of Hamilton College, who is abroad investigating the star catalogue of Ptolemy with a view to an accurate edition, has been fortunate in finding, both at Venice and at Florence, several MSS. (Greek, Arabic, and Latin) of the 'Almagest,' hitherto not utilized by modern scholars. He is now engaged in a prolonged research in the Vatican Library.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science has embarked upon a vigorous treatment of the subject of the tides. At the late meeting at Southport, the report of a committee, consisting of Professors G. H. Darwin and J. C. Adams, for the harmonic analysis of tidal observations, was presented, from which it appears, in the first place, that in India only has any extensive series of tidal observations, with systematic publication of the results, been conducted. The committee thus practically finding itself engaged in the reduction of Indian tidal observations, a conference was arranged with Major Baird, in charge at Poona of the Tidal Department of the Survey of India, and a general idea of the course of procedure was arrived at, and harmonious coöperation for the future secured. Mr. Neison, lately appointed the Government Astronomer at Natal, will likewise reduce the South African tidal observations according to the same uniform plan. Professor Darwin, who is responsible for the committee's report, although Professor Adams is in agreement with the correctness of the methods pursued, explains in this paper the entire process of the harmonic analysis instituted by Sir William Thomson, systematizing the exposition of the theory, and completing

the methods of reduction. In short, Professor Darwin's report forms a complete manual of the harmonic analysis as applied to the tides; and it has been drawn up in such form as to commend itself for adoption by all scientific bodies concerned with the proper discussion of tidal results.

A recent investigation by Professor Balfour Stewart, of the Owens College, Manchester, relates to the periodicity of the solar spots, and shows pretty conclusively that there are inequalities of short period in the prevalence and magnitude of the spots, in addition to the well-known long-period inequality, ranging over eleven or twelve years, discovered by Schwabe and elaborated by Wolf. A mass of thirty-six years of observations of sun spots was divided into three series of twelve years each; and, applying his own method of detecting unknown inequalities, Professor Stewart found two apparent sun-spot periods, each about twenty-six days in length, which came out very prominently by his treatment, appearing for each of the twelve years in the same phase and to very nearly the same extent. That there should be these lesser periods, of relatively brief duration, seems in very reasonable accord with the theory of sun-spot periodicity now held by the more competent solar physicists—viz., that it is due to causes inherent in the sun itself, and not extraneous to it, as was formerly believed. The details of Professor Stewart's research are not yet published, and the precise epochs of his new maxima and minima are not known. As for the greater maximum of sun-spot frequency, pertaining to the Schwabe period, it has quite certainly been passed, most likely at some time during 1883. A recent writer in *Science*, collating the observations of Professor Todd, of Amherst, from the middle of 1877 onward, thinks the indications unmistakable that the solar spots have already begun to wane; so that we may expect the minimum to be attained early in the year 1889.

A committee has been formed in London to erect a memorial to the poet Gray. It is proposed to raise £300, £200 to place a marble bust in the hall of Pembroke College where he died, in the niche opposite Chantrey's bust of Pitt, and £100 more to place a bronze replica in the Fitz William Museum. Mr. Hamo Thornycroft is the sculptor selected. Among the members of the English Committee having the matter in charge are: Lord Tennyson d'Eyncourt, Mr. Alma-Tadema, Lord Houghton, Mr. Austin Dobson, Mr. G H. Boughton, Prof. Sidney Colvin, and Mr. E. W. Gosse, the poet's latest biographer. American contributions may be forwarded to Mr. H. C. Bunner, 23 Warren Street; Mr. R. W. Gilder, 33 East Seventeenth Street; Mr. Brander Matthews, 121 East Eighteenth Street; or Mr. Charles Scribner, 745 Broadway.

—It is with a feeling of sadness that we examine the first map bulletins of the Transcontinental Survey, of which Prof. Raphael Pumpelly has been the chief. This Survey shares the present low fortune of the railroad companies on which it depended, and will be suspended indefinitely. It was a characteristically large-minded conception of the late President of the Northern Pacific Railroad, who organized it first in the legitimate interest of the associated companies, and then of the future occupants of the great domain now opened up for easy settlement. In what direction should branch roads be built with a reasonable expectation of drawing immigrants thither or of obtaining freights, or by what routes most profitably between settlements already begun? What lands ought the companies to retain or to acquire or to keep from the hands of speculators? Where was the best timber? What was the capacity of the various soils? How could irrigation be promoted and the water supply be preserved? What valuable coal and mineral deposits were yet unsuspected? Such were some of the questions proposed to the Survey. They have been answered already to a degree justifying the service. These bulletins are the first elaborate cartographical records of the work done, and relate to the season of 1882. The Topographical Department, under the charge of Mr. A. D. Wilson, with the assistance of Messrs. R. U. Goode and Louis Nell, puts out a series of four maps in six sheets, representing the region about the Yakima River, Washington Territory, or northerly and westerly from the junction of the Snake and Columbia Rivers at Ainsworth; the Colville region in the same Territory, between the Columbia and Pend d'Oreille Rivers, north of the Spokane River; in Montana, the basin of the Judith, one of the southern affluents of the Missouri; and finally the Crazy Mountains and vicinity, or the district north of the Yellowstone between Stillwater and Bozeman. These maps, which show the contours of elevation, are upon a scale of two miles to the inch, and reductions of them serve as the basis of those about to be mentioned, namely, first, of the Agricultural Department, in charge of Prof. E. W. Hilgard, of the University of California. The maps in this instance are two—an eastern and a western sheet for the Yakima region—and are colored to indicate the diversity and quality of the soils, which have been analyzed in the most careful manner by Prof. Hilgard. A text accompanies this bulletin, by a necessary and fortunate exception. The third bulletin proceeds from the Forest Department, and consists of the western Yakima sheet colored for timber, under the direction of Prof. C. S. Sargent. The execution of all these maps, it is enough to say, is by the house of Julius Bien. It will be a great pity if the work of the season of 1883 is not made available in corresponding form.

—*Lippincott's* for February opens with an illustrated article on Germantown which contains several good sketches, and the text of a curious old anti-slavery document issued in 1688 by the Germantown Quakers. It begins as follows:

"These are the reasons that we are against the traffic of men's body, as followeth: Is there any which would be done or handled at this manner?—viz., to be sold or made a slave of for all the time of his life? How fearful and faint-hearted are many at sea when they see a strange vessel, being afraid it should be a Turk and they should be taken and sold for slaves in Turkey! Now, what is this better done than Turks do?"

Alfred M. Williams writes about an "Indian Cattle Town" (Muscogee), and describes cow-boy life with a good deal of knowledge. The cow-boy is a figure in our national life whose acquaintance we in the East have made through newspaper despatches within a very few years. Most of us can remember with pleasure the time when we did not know what a "cow-boy" was, nor that we ourselves should, if known to the cow-boy world to exist, be classified as "tender-feet." We know now pretty well what the cow-boy view of the tender-foot world is, but the cow-boy seems to have no realizing sense of what the tender-foot world at large thinks of him and his life. The puzzle about the cow-boy is why he should be such an awful wretch. There is nothing in his life or calling to madden him into continual crime. "Rounding up" cattle may call for more strength and endurance and power of lung than the old-fashioned practice of "calling the cattle home"—a task, as we know from the words of the familiar song, which was once committed to the charge of innocent young girls—and is, therefore, naturally committed, in the cattle country, to boys and men (for we take it that a cow-boy is not necessarily a minor). But why is it necessary for the cow-boy as such to commit so many crimes, and to take the same wanton delight in crime which in the tender-foot world is associated not with pastoral pursuits, but with those of the worst outlaws in the foul slums of great cities? We say necessary, for the cow-boy appears to be entirely exempt from punishment, and when he "cleans out" a town, the inhabitants appear to regard his visit rather as an honor than otherwise. In "Our Monthly Gossip" will be found a clever attempt at a translation of the French monologue called "The Fly," well known probably to all who have much acquaintance with the modern French stage, or with Franco-American private theatricals. We have heard "The Fly" admirably given in a New York parlor, but it was in French. It might be worth while to try Mrs. E. W. Latimer's translation, though in English much of the flavor of the original evaporates. Such a monologue is an excellent test of acting, for it needs neither scenery nor costume, and admits of no horse-play to eke out the humor. For these reasons—but we say no more.

—The *Century* promises a new achievement in wood-engraving—cutting the block directly from original pictures of the old masters—and has sent Mr. Cole, unquestionably *facile princeps* in this kind of work, to Europe for a course of it. This will bring first-class reproductions of the best pictures of the old masters into the easy possession of everybody who cares to possess them, and we can readily believe that they will even surpass photographs of the same pictures, as color values are in photographs never rendered. In the February number, a full-page "original engraving" by Elbridge Kingsley does not, to our mind, make a case for that form of cut, either as design or as wood-cutting. The article on Dante, by Miss Rossetti, is one of those condensed results of long study and familiar knowledge which we might expect from a member of that Dantesque family, and the illustrating portraits of Dante are excellent. An article on Courbet seems written to show how little the author knew of Courbet's real position as a painter. He writes around the theme, and says next to nothing of the technical qualities of his subject, and that little wrong. "His strongest point, technically, was color; his weakest points were drawing and composition." Now, Courbet was not a colorist except as color is involved in general values: his strong point was in his mastery and rapid expression of the values of his subject. His color was often heavy and not always true as color, but rarely did he fail to strike at once the relative key of what he touched. The criticism of an artist of so intense individuality as Courbet could only be done by some one in sympathy with him, which the author of this article certainly is not.

—The *Portfolio* for January contains three interesting full-page illustrations—an engraving from Sir Joshua's "Mrs. Pelham Feeding Chickens"; the front of Rheims Cathedral (an etching by Toussaint), and a water-gate in Venice, by Joseph Pennell. Mr. Pennell has a happy perception of the picturesque in subject and the pictorial in treatment, but there is one lesson he has not learned, and one of the most important to really good etching, as to any other form of line representation, viz.: that every line ought to have some relation to the form which it helps to represent, and that such scrawling as fills the water of his etching with reflections that suggest only hair-snakes meandering over the sur-

face—without regard to perspective or foreshortening—implies simply bad drawing, or, in default, what is worse, indifference to the meaning of his lines. He may take a lesson from the Cathedral etching in the same number, where the foreground, in which there is far more excuse for scrawling, being ground, is put in in simple horizontal lines, while the sky shows cloud forms exquisitely developed by lines following the contours with severity. This fashion of skirmishing around with the needle-point, with no relation to the facts to be expressed, is an affectation and a vice, no matter who may adopt it, and almost infallibly the indication of a bad draughtsman. Mr Pennell's water-drawing in this etching is bad as form, bad as reflection, and bad as tone. A curious study into copyright and its piracy, apropos of Hogarth, in the *Portfolio*, is illustrated by reproductions of some of the piracies of his "Rake's Progress"; and an article on the "Birds" of Aristophanes, by process prints of groups from the play as recently given at Cambridge. The article, by the editor, on "Soul and Matter in the Fine Arts," should be carefully read by every would-be art critic without practical knowledge of art, as a convincing argument that he proposes carrying water in a basket. The whole number is one of unusual interest.

—The *Magazine of Art* for February is as commonplace as usual in illustrations—a poor full-page cut from a statuette by Dalou as frontispiece, and a number of reproductions of pictures, in the collection of Mr. Ionides, presenting no great evidence of the taste of that collector, or the quality of the engravers for the magazine. The first number of the *Art Union* does not promise to render material return for the price of subscription. It is cheaply printed, and the illustrations serve simply as indications of the pictures in the exhibition of the society. For this purpose they are good enough; but the etching is hardly worth the cost of printing. The literary matter of the *Art Union* will hardly bear criticism from the literary point of view, yet the artists must and ought to have their say on matters of art. It is a common error to suppose that artists are unqualified for criticism, whereas, on the contrary, no one who has not a greater or less cognizance of the methods of art, gained from actual experience, is qualified to write of the subject. An artist may be a one-sided critic, and a small-minded artist will certainly be a narrow and prejudiced critic, feeling that art has but one side- his own; but, taken in the aggregate, the opinion of the body of artists is the only final and irrevocable judgment on one of their profession, while a man who cannot paint up to a certain point is incompetent to judge or pronounce on painting. This feature of the *Art Union* will be an acquisition—all the more if the superintendence be that of a good littérateur.

—A correspondent writes us:

"Mr. John B. McMaster, in his 'History of the People of the United States,' says (page 530): 'He [Alexander Hamilton] had been present in the Federal Convention from the morning when Randolph brought forward the Virginia plan to the morning when the Constitution, finished and engrossed, lay upon the table for signature.' On the other hand, Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge says, in his Biography, in the American Statesmen series, that Hamilton 'was absent a large part of the time from the Convention.' As Mr. McMaster seems to assert the continuous presence of Mr. Hamilton in the Convention, and uses that asserted presence as a witness to convict him of duplicity and dishonesty, he should be careful not to overstate or misstate his fact."

—President Eliot's annual report to the Board of Overseers of Harvard University ends with a pointed reminder to this body that they are old and likely to be fogyish, and intimates that the younger alumni whose votes elected them might profitably choose successors nearer their own age. The next most salient passage in the report is that which announces the discussion by the Faculty "of the gravest question of University policy which has arisen or is likely to arise in this generation, namely: the extent to which option among the different subjects should be allowed in the examination for admission to college." Here we must doubtless read between the lines "a college fetish"; for no other study than Greek would merit so awful an allusion to its possible relinquishment. What follows, as to the evolution of the Harvard Faculty in fifteen years, is worth the attention of other colleges. The twenty-three members in 1869 have become fifty-seven in 1883, the latter number containing eleven representatives of branches unrecognized in the former, and consisting of instructors in mathematics, physics, chemistry, and natural history, to the extent of one-third. Even music and physical training are now represented—the latter, at least, most appropriately. President Eliot has some statistics as to the sections from which the students are derived. They indicate a steady diminution in the New England contingent, and a sharp falling off in that from Massachusetts, where the growth of a Butler constituency has evidently not been favorable to the higher education. Special students (not candidates for degrees) are markedly on the increase in the College; in the other departments doubtfully so, unless rallying from a decline. "No undergraduate is expected to attend during the last three years of his College course more than one-tenth of the elective instruction which the College provides." The quality of the Divinity students is improving, "and now leaves little to be desired." They represent several denominations, and are listening to weekly lectures from an Andover professor "on the doctrines of sin and redemption"; and, of late, "students of evangelical opinions have carried off a large share of the best scholarships." Both the Law School and the Medical School have gained new buildings of exceptionally fine construction. The Dental School, on the other hand, whose sole property is a few chairs and implements and a graduates' fund of less than a thousand dollars, is still the neglected department *par excellence*, though none is more deserving, and none attracts so many students from abroad. We can only make passing mention of a standing committee of the Faculty which is to serve as a medium of conference with the students—an innovation which cannot be too highly commended.

—The extent of lottery gambling in Italy is shown by an item in an Italian paper, stating that the recent death of Professor De Sanctis caused so large a purchase of lottery tickets bearing numbers corresponding to that event, in the tables of incidents and things, that the Government made two million lire ($400,000) out of the blunder of the augurs. According to the system of lotteries in use in Italy, the player writes down in his ticket five numbers, which are copied on the counterfoil and in the book of the bank from which the ticket is taken; and if the first three numbers drawn from the wheel of fortune are contained in these five, the player wins a *tern*, while if the whole five agree with those chosen by the player he wins a *quinquaine*, which gives a prize many times greater than the sum played, a *tern* giving one correspondingly low. When, therefore, any public disaster or extraordinary event occurs, the printed tables of lottery numbers being generally consulted, the same numbers are certain to be chosen by many players, with the usual result of a large gain to the Government, but in exceedingly rare instances a great loss, as the fortuitous coincidence of the numbers indicated by the tables with those drawn from the wheel would result in a run of luck to the players which might be an embarrassment to the Treasury; though, as there is no certainty that any prize will be drawn, the chances are enormously in its favor.

—The recently-published Report of the Commission appointed by the Italian Parliament to inquire into the condition of agriculture, gives a variety of information on several topics in which foreigners as well as Italians are interested. Seekers after health will be glad to receive its full particulars as to the dryness of the atmosphere in different localities. In the valley of the Po, as a whole, the average number of days on which rain falls in the course of the year is 88—not much more than half the average number north of the Alps. But the climatic differences within this region are very important. While at Milan the rain falls only on 72 days in the year, at Pallanza, not far away, the number of rainy days is 129; at Naples it is 123. At the village of Susa snow remains during seven months of the year, while in the near vicinity of Arta the thermometer, one year with another, seldom sinks to the freezing point in January. Tropical fruits now flourish, however, only in the most protected localities, though 300 or 400 years ago they were abundant in many places from which they have now perished altogether. This change of climate is attributed by the Commission to the cutting away of the forests, which brings on an earlier spring and thus subjects the precocious fruit to the blighting influence of cold winds in April and May. The Report also gives some interesting facts in regard to the cost of transportation, and the slowness with which agricultural improvements are made. The price of freight from Antwerp to Ancona is only thirty francs per ton, while from Genoa to Ancona it is not less than sixty—a discrimination against short distances only to be matched in America. A similar discrimination shows itself in the fact that the price of transportation from Genoa to Sardinia is greater than the price from Genoa to New York. A review of the agricultural condition of the people ends with the somewhat startling declaration that "the only agricultural improvement brought about within the last hundred years has been through the introduction of the threshing machine." The deplorable condition of agriculture is attributed chiefly to the shortness of the periods for which lands are rented. The complaint is the same that is so often made in England and Ireland. The farmer has no interest in making permanent improvements, inasmuch as such improvements either take away his chance of renewing his rental or oblige him to rent at a higher rate. By a custom so prevalent as to amount to law, farms are never taken for periods of more than nine years, and the length of the rental is usually much shorter. The Commission recommends a lengthening of the term to fifteen or twenty years, in order that the farmers may have greater inducements to avail themselves of improved machinery. It is interesting to note the manner in which the field hands are paid. Each adult male receives from 100 to 120 lire ($20 to $24) in money; 10 hectolitres (27 bushels) of grain, in about equal parts of wheat, rye, and maize; the free use of a dwelling and garden, and certain other small perquisites. It is estimated by the Commission that the Italian peasant receives all in all, as wages, the equivalent of about 600 francs ($120) a year.

—Rastislav Fadeyeff, the Russian General whose death was announced some ten days

ago, was one of that small group of officers in the service of the late Czar whose popularity rested not merely on military services, but in an equal measure on boldly-pronounced views on matters of Imperial policy. His two rivals in the favor of the nation were Generals Tcherniayeff and Skobeleff—the former a man of the same age and school as Fadeyeff (who was born in 1824), and the latter fully twenty years their junior. All three were leaders in the field of Panslavic thought and action, but Fadeyeff, though actively serving many years in the Caucasus, at Sevastopol, and elsewhere, attracted attention chiefly by his writings, while Tcherniayeff and Skobeleff won laurels in Turkestan and in fighting against the Turks, and made themselves, besides, conspicuous by reckless personal agitation. Fadeyeff was far superior to the two others as a man of serious thought and high culture, but was as decided a Panslavist and as intense a hater of Turkey, Austria Hungary, and everything likely to oppose or check the advance of Slavdom, as either of them. His writings, most of which have been translated into German, are remarkable for maturity of thought, clearness, and vigor. His essays on the military power and military policy of the Russian Empire, which he published after Prussia's triumph over Austria in 1866, made a powerful impression. Their political tendency was as unequivocally directed against the victors as against the vanquished in that short grapple of the German Powers, but the leading idea was, *Austria delenda est!* The road to Constantinople led through Vienna. The sooner that road was taken by Russia, the surer was the triumph of her cause, which was that of freedom in all Eastern Europe. There was danger in delay. Fadeyeff, most unpleasantly surprised by the unexpected achievements of Prussia, urged reforms in the army with the same zeal which marked the simultaneous advocacy of military regeneration in France by General Trochu. The French General had soon to learn that his advice came too late for France. Military Russia, too, was stunned by the terrible blows which in 1870 prostrated their only possible ally in a struggle of the Slavic world with the Germanic. An assault on Austria-Hungary had become impossible, and the road to Constantinople now led across the lower Danube. Tcherniayeff began the Russian war-dance in Servia in 1876, proclaimed Milan King, and made a failure; Skobeleff, in 1877-8, shone as a hero at Lovtcha, Plevna, and Shipka, and advanced to the very gates of Constantinople; but Fadeyeff's share in the contests of those years was quite insignificant. The result satisfied none of these Generals, and the subsequent agitations and plottings of the Nihilists rendered Russia equally wretched within and powerless abroad. Fadeyeff, who was connected by descent with the highest nobility of the Empire, and possessed the confidence of Alexander II., addressed to the latter a remarkable series of letters, frankly unmasking all the rottenness of Russian bureaucracy, and urging decentralization, the extension of the freedom of the press and of the administrative sphere of the provincial assemblies, and similar reforms—without any essential restriction of autocracy, however. On the assassination of Alexander II. these letters were published anonymously in Leipsic, both in Russian and in a German translation ('Briefe über die gegenwärtige Lage Russlands; 11 [23] April, 1879–6 [18] April, 1880'), and were subsequently allowed to appear in Russia. No field of activity, however, was assigned to Fadeyeff by Alexander III.

—English composers cannot complain that they are neglected in this country. Within the last two or three years quite as many novelties by them have been produced at our orchestral concerts as by German, French, and Russian composers. Of all these novelties, so far as we are aware, Cowen's "Scandinavian" symphony is the only one which has created a general desire for a repetition. The first movement of this symphony is a composition which neither Brahms, Liszt, nor Rubinstein would disclaim if he had written it. At the other extreme must be placed a MS. Serenade for orchestra by Mr. C. Villiers Stanford, which was produced at the Philharmonic concert on Saturday. The most noticeable thing about this serenade is an absence of everything resembling an idea, except an occasional diluted reminiscence of Mendelssohn. There is in it absolutely no originality in melody, harmony, rhythm, or instrumentation. It consists of six parts, the last of which is called a "Lullaby"—a proper title for the whole work. It is difficult to see why it should have been performed except as a matter of international courtesy, or in order to show how much the admirable Philharmonic orchestra can accomplish with the scantiest material. The Serenade was followed by Beethoven's second "Leonora" overture, one of those preliminary sketches of the third "Leonora," which is the greatest overture written before Wagner, and of which Schumann once remarked that there is more "future" in it than in Beethoven's symphonies. The second lacks in some respects the finish and concentration of the third, but to a connoisseur it has some of those special charms of a sketch which depend on the white heat of inspiration, and which a finished picture sometimes lacks. As a composition it unites the greatest delicacy to be found in Beethoven with the utmost vigor and grandeur. Those abrupt chords, followed by repeated terrible pauses, must have been in Wagner's mind when he said that in Beethoven everything is melody, even the pauses. In the Bach concerto for string orchestra which followed this overture many of the hearers probably failed to discover any melody at all. It requires a sustained intellectual effort to follow the complicated evolutions and combinations of such a score; but to those who are able to make such an effort the reward comes in the shape of intense pleasure.

—After the Beethoven and Bach selections, it might have appeared impossible to attain a further climax of combined beauty and grandeur; but it was attained in Rubinstein's great Dramatic Symphony, which we feel tempted to place at the head of all works of its class. In this work, which is less popular but more valuable than the "Ocean" Symphony, Rubinstein rises to the highest level of modern musical thought. In certain details of instrumentation, harmony, and dramatic vigor the influence of Wagner is visible; but otherwise the work is such as only the inspired Russian could have written. It is extraordinarily rich in suggestive ideas, and the elaboration of them often follows the modern principle of progression through various keys with ever-increasing intensity and vigor. The first movement is very long, but there is not one superfluous note. The scherzo is perhaps the finest symphonic movement in existence, a composition that haunts the memory for weeks. The adagio is full of the noblest melody, while the last movement, with its intoxicating rhythmic swing, reminds one of Rubinstein's ballet music. This is not intended as adverse criticism, because the symphonic form itself is nothing but the "apotheosis of dance music." The Philharmonic orchestra has played this symphony under the direction of the composer, but Rubinstein himself could not have given it with more technical finish, delicacy, passion, and abandon than Mr. Thomas. The performance, in fact, was so grand and absolutely perfect that one forgot that there was an orchestra or a conductor, and became completely absorbed in the progress of the music.

THE VILLAGE COMMUNITY.

The English Village Community, examined in its relations to the manorial and tribal systems, and to the common or open-field system of husbandry. An essay in economic history, by Frederic Seebohm. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1883. 8vo, pp. 464.

The Early History of Land-holding among the Germans. By Denman W. Ross, Ph.D. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1883. 8vo, pp. 274.

THE two books whose titles are given above mark an important step in the investigation of early institutions and the early history of property. In one sense they are controversial and aggressive, inasmuch as they differ positively from the Village-Community theory as it has become familiar to us from the writings of Sir Henry Maine, Professor Nasse, Mr. Morier, and others. In another point of view, however, they may be regarded rather as taking up the discussion at the point to which it has been carried by these writers, and continuing it in a different direction and to different conclusions. The labor that has been employed in developing the theory of Village Communities has not been thrown away, even if we should be forced to admit that the theory itself is not true. The facts from which it was deduced still remain; the writers before us have only proposed a different explanation of them. And in any case, whether we accept their explanation or not, we owe to them a positive and valuable contribution to the discussion.

The theory of Village Communities is that the present régime of individual ownership of land was preceded by a system of collective ownership, in which the territory of a village was the common property of the freemen of the village—no individual having any land of his own, but each occupying a portion assigned him for temporary use; the cultivation of the whole being under common rules and regulations. Ownership in severalty, according to this theory, came into existence by gradual steps, occupying probably a long period of time. It is not claimed that the village community, as thus defined, was the only form of social organization at the period in question (*e. g.*, among the Germanic nations at the time of the migrations), but that it was the prevalent one; and the conversion of the free village, or township, into the manor, or lordship, has been understood to be one of the most important steps in the development of the Feudal System. The theory as worked out by Von Maurer, its leading German advocate, pays comparatively little attention to the origin of the institution, but is devoted mainly to its organization and history. Its origin, in the settlement of a family group upon a definite area of land, is noticed, but passed over rapidly, receiving, as might be expected, rather more attention from the leading English exponent of the theory, Sir Henry Maine. It is obvious, however, that when the theory is put upon the defensive, the question of its origin—whether a matter of historical evidence or of conjecture—becomes of the first importance.

We suppose it is generally admitted that the earliest organization of society was by family groups, and generally admitted that the earliest occupation of land was by these same family groups. Theoretically, therefore, the beginning of property in land would be on the part of the family group—the household, the gens,

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the tribe. Any discussion of the history of landed property must, therefore, be in harmony with the facts of the tribal structure of society and the occupation of land by family groups. It is a strong point in Mr. Seebohm's treatment of the subject, that he does full justice to this side of it; it is one of the most interesting and valuable features of his work. Mr. Ross, on the other hand, approaches the subject from the point of view of individual settlement and ownership. He does not reject the tribal structure of early society, although in note 69, page 175, he suggests some doubts as to its universality; but he builds up his argument wholly without reference to it. Starting with the assertion (page 1) that the German freemen "settled neither in villages nor in towns, but in isolated farmsteads," he brings up an amount of evidence, from laws, charters, etc.—which, in the face of the Village Community theory, is truly startling—in favor of absolute individual ownership of land among the Germanic nations at and after the period of the migrations. The only answer that can be made to this array of evidence is that laws and charters do not present a complete picture of the life of a people. The Village-Community theory must stand, if it stands at all, upon other testimony, which shall prove the existence of collective property by the side of individual ownership. The documents *of this period* afford it very little support.

We have said that what the two writers before us have done is to give a different interpretation to the facts collected by Von Maurer and others. *Village communities* they admit to have existed, but the *Village-Community theory* they deny. Mr. Seebohm sets out with a description of the English Village Community, which occupies nearly two hundred pages, and is the most exhaustive and lucid account of this system that has ever been made. Beginning with his own manor of Hitchin in the nineteenth century, he traces the institution step by step back to the period of the Saxon conquest, with such fulness of detail, and with the assistance of such instructive plans and illustrations, that the reader finds it easy to get a clear and accurate notion of it. Now, the institution thus minutely analyzed is the institution described in general terms by Sir Henry Maine. Mr. Seebohm is, therefore, treating of the same institution as his opponents, and he describes it much more completely than they have ever done. Where, then, does he differ from them? In respect to its origin. The generally-accepted theory assumes that a free village community was converted into a serf community in the process of feudalization. Mr. Seebohm and Mr. Ross argue that no such conversion ever took place; that it was always a community of serfs. It was, they say, a community of serfs in the Middle Ages, and no one can point out, *by any direct and cogent evidence*, the time and the process of its becoming serf, having before been free. Nay, Mr. Seebohm goes further, and shows by overpowering evidence that the English village community was a servile community at every one of the stages by which he traces it back from the latter part of the Middle Ages to the sixth and seventh centuries. We cannot see any flaw in his evidence, and are obliged to concede, as we did in the case of Mr. Ross's evidence, that if the theory of the free community is to stand at all, for England, it must be by evidence, which has not yet been forthcoming, for its having existed by the side of the serf community. Evidence which has not yet been forthcoming, we say, but which there are reasons for thinking not improbable.

This view, that the village community always was a community of serfs, flies directly, as will be seen, in the face of the accepted theory of the primitive democracy of the Germanic nations. The writers before us do not hesitate to accept this conclusion, and to argue that the original German constitution was not democratic, but aristocratic. They explain the passage in the sixteenth chapter of Tacitus's 'Germania,' which describes the habitations of the Germans, by assuming that the free tribesmen lived in isolated homesteads, and their serfs and dependents in villages near their lord's house—precisely like the negro quarter on a Southern plantation. This interpretation is certainly plausible, and, taken by itself, would perhaps be the most satisfactory way of explaining the passage in question. On the whole, however, the descriptions of the German institutions in Cæsar and Tacitus, as well as in later documents, scanty as they are, appear to us clearly to establish a prevailing democratic society. Again, no room is left for the "common freemen," who, it is certain, were not reduced to complete serfdom earlier than the ninth century. But, on the other hand, the theory of village communities leaves no room for the natural aristocracy of tribal society—the *nobiles* and *proceres* of Tacitus. It assumes that when the village community was developed out of the family community, each group consisted of completely democratic elements, and that the aristocracy, the lords of manors, grew up *after this time*. But what we should rather infer from the language of Tacitus is that an aristocracy had grown up by the side of the democracy, while still in the tribal stage: a body of rich nobles, with no political privileges, but with the natural influence of wealth and station. From these the magistrates would naturally be taken; about these were grouped the retainers or personal followers; these had the largest share of land and the most serfs. But by their side the great mass of common freemen still continued organized in family groups, occupying common tracts of land, composing the rank and file of the army, and, in the national and district assemblies, exercising the national sovereignty. The books before us exaggerate the aristocratic element in the Germanic constitution, but the opposite theory undervalues it.

We have said that Mr. Seebohm does full justice to the tribal features of early society. We are inclined to think that his most important contribution to historical science in this book is in working out the two lines of development in tribal arrangements—the Welsh and the German (see p. 345). The chapters upon the Welsh, Irish, and Scotch tribal organization and economical system are not inferior in interest and originality to those which treat of the English system; they are less complete, because there are not materials for so elaborate a discussion. We have not space to discuss, even if we felt ready to do so, the theory proposed as to the origin of the English open-field system, which is attributed to Roman rather than German influence, finding its completest analogy in those parts of southern Germany which, like Britain, formed a part of the Roman Empire. The theory is too startling to be accepted off hand, and the arguments are, at the same time, too strong to be rejected summarily. We will only suggest that we do not see clearly why, if it was of Roman origin, other parts of the Roman Empire besides the Rhætian province should not have furnished an analogy. Moreover, we understand the Roman *villa* to have lacked that most essential feature of the manor—the division into demesne and tenement lands, with the reciprocal relation of the two. The mediæval serf paid for his land with labor upon his lord's demesne; the *colonus* of the Roman Empire, represented by the modern *métayer*, received lands which he worked on his own account, rendering to his lord a certain proportion of their products. The two types of serfdom were wholly different, and the estates on which they respectively existed were correspondingly different. The question arises, then, how came a form of serfdom and of manorial estate to prevail in Rhætia and Britain so fundamentally different from what was found in the rest of the Empire? Another fact which appears not to have been taken into account by the authors of this theory, is the existence of free village communities in the Middle Ages. We suppose that in England, in which the process of feudalization was complete and without exception, there were none of these; but in some parts of Germany, if Von Maurer is correct, they were numerous. So far, therefore, as the argument rests upon the absence of proof that free communities became servile by feudalization, it is perhaps balanced by the difficulty of showing, under their theory, how these free communities came into existence.

In conclusion we will say that both our authors make concessions which possibly point to the true method of reconciling the difficulties of the problem. Mr. Ross, after beginning society with isolated homesteads, shows (p. 27) how clan villages might grow out of these; while Mr. Seebohm says (p. 367): "It is certainly possible that during a short period, especially if they held no serfs or slaves, tribal households may have expanded into free village communities." "A short period": the Village-Community theory says it was a long period—centuries, perhaps. The two theories are not, then, so far apart as seems at first sight.

Poems in Prose. By Ivan Tourguéneff. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

THESE poems by Turgeneff, like almost all that he has written, come to us only at second-hand. They have been translated from a German version, and some internal evidence suggests that the portion of them which has appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine* is from the same source. The translation is most imperfect and inadequate, but it is fair to suppose that the German text has been followed, so that what we have to say is not meant for criticism of the English, but to show a little what Turgeneff did not write.

There is, of course, in this book nothing as to the history of the poems, as that has appeared only since the author's death. When his friend, the editor of the *Messenger of Europe*, was visiting him at Bougival, some eighteen months ago, Turgeneff showed him a quantity of manuscript, on bits of paper of all shapes and colors. "These are my sketches," he said, "my studies from nature, from which, like a painter, I make my large picture. If I do not use them they shall go to you for safe keeping after my death." His friend represented that that was only to make the public desire his death. Turgeneff replied that most of them were "too personal, too intimate" for publication for many years yet; but, upon some further urging, he consented to look them over, and shortly after sent to the editor a selection of fifty which he had finished and written out with his own hand. He himself chose as title, 'Senilia.' "An Old Man's Fancies," in *Macmillan's*, is a pure fabrication. In a brief note to the reader, Turgeneff begged him not to take these "poems in prose" all in a heap, but one by one. Hence the present title. They are allegories, parables, epigrams, each and all. If a likeness between them is sought, the most will fall into two groups, one of which describes the immense relentless power of Nature, and man's helpless nothingness before it; the other, the ever-present sense of death in life, and man's recoil from it, his struggle with it. They sug-

gest Heine, but there are heights and depths which the German never knew, and, be they never so sad, there is always sweetness in them.

No English yet has done justice to the perfect art of Turgeneff's style. Every word is the simplest, and there is never one too many, so that all the accuracy of a scholar and all the imagination of a poet are needed to reproduce it. A criticism which must be in the main verbal is like objecting to small atoms in a mosaic, but form and color both depend upon the atoms. In the translation before us the form is distorted, the color spoiled, by constant exaggeration, by attempts at "fine writing." "Our great singer" becomes "our sublimest." "Comes the wished-for moment—light scatters darkness," is made "Apollo rises—conqueror of night." Of the titles alone, "The Two Rich Men" becomes "Who is the Richer?" and "The End of the World" "The Destruction of the World." "Egoist" is confounded with "egotist." One bit of description of the peasants in church reads in the original, word for word: "They begin to bow, to kneel, to rise again, like ripe wheat when a light wind blows a slow wave over it." It is rendered here: "They moved up and down in a wave-like motion, rising and falling like ripe ears of wheat when tossing in the summer wind." The poem entitled "The Nymphs" has suffered very much, while "The Old Woman," with all the shiver there still is in it, is tame when compared with the startled horror of the original. The single rendering, "but no longer blind," which ought to be "but she sees!" is proof enough. In the last illness, in a moment of respite, Turgeneff told his friend that the hallucinations, the phantoms which came to vex his brain were like this "old woman."

We find another example in the dramatic sketches. Two destitute old souls befriend an orphan. "'We will take Katie,' said the old woman; 'the last of our coppers shall go to her, even though there be no salt to salt the broth.' 'Yes, we, her, and no salt,' answered the peasant, her husband." This is made: "'It will cost us our last penny; we shan't be able even to afford salt to salt our soup with.' 'Well, then, we will eat it unsalted,' said," etc.

There are mistakes that are more than careless. The conclusion of "The Blockhead," the point of the whole, is wanting. "Masha," which is of all the most pathetic, and which Turgeneff himself chose, with "The Village," to read first to his friend, is made ridiculous by the mistake of eight *years* for eight *months*. The *Macmillan* version has a mistake quite as extraordinary. The young Jaffier is offered wisdom, riches, or the power to please old women. To the wonder of the reader, he chooses the last; but then he asks, "Where lives the honored mother of our divinely-blessed Caliph?" The *Magazine* prints "Chalise" for Caliph, which makes worse than nonsense.

Turgeneff never pointed a moral. He was never a partisan. He drew the life and let it stand. But see how the translation misrepresents him. The Sphinx lives again to him in the faces of the Russian peasants. He calls them the heart (the kernel) of Russia. (That is left out.) To read the riddle of this Sphinx, "it is not enough to put on a cap." The translator has made him say "to put on the cap of a Slavophil.' From "What Shall I Think of?" the second half is gone, leaving an unintelligible fragment. Yet of them all, not one, in these early days after the death of the author, is so impressive. We give a translation of it, from the Russian, which claims no merit but its literalness. Reading it, one can but remember how the reality did come to the questioner. There was great suffering, then hours of unconsciousness to the end. His friend, the editor, wrote after his death, "He never in life was so beautiful—one might even say so grand; the traces of suffering, still visible the first day, on the next entirely disappeared, and the face had a look of deep thoughtfulness, . . . that face always sweet, always ready with a kindly smile. Only the dead-white color of the cheeks, the marble stillness of the features, spoke of death."

"What shall I think of when it comes to me to die—if, indeed, I am then in a condition to think?

"Shall I think of this—that I have made a poor use of my life, that I have slept it away, dreamed it away, that I knew not how to enjoy its gifts?

"How? This already death? So soon? Impossible! When I have not succeeded in doing anything—I have only gathered things to do!

"Shall I remember the past, shall I linger in the thought of the few bright moments of my existence, of dear forms and faces?

"Will memory bring up my foolish deeds—and will there come upon my soul the burning agony of a too-late repentance?

"Shall I think of that which awaits me beyond the grave—if there awaits me there anything?

"No—it seems to me I shall try not to think, but fix upon some trifle in order to take my own attention away from the gloomy darkness, blackening before me.

"In my presence a dying man kept complaining that they would not give him nuts to eat, and even then, in the depth of his glazing eyes, there stirred and quivered something like the fluttering wing of a mortally wounded bird."

Appletons' Guide to Mexico; including a chapter on Guatemala, and a complete English-Spanish Vocabulary. By Alfred R. Conkling, LL.B., Ph.B. D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

Few books proposing to meet a "long-felt want" come so near doing it as this one. It merits high praise. Mr. Conkling has kept closely to his purpose, and has given us very nearly a model 'Guide'—certainly has produced incomparably the best work on his subject. A large part of what he writes bears the unmistakable mark of personal experience. Not even Thackeray's fancied collector of third-class information for the omniscient Murray, the devoted being who always went to the "Lion Noir" or the "Cochon Noir," could have been more heroically self-sacrificing than Mr. Conkling has shown himself in finding out the truth about the discomforts of the poor hotels and poorer fare of that land which still, as in the days of Mr. Birdofredom Sawin, "is swarmin' with the most alarmin' kind of varmin." The book is so good, so probably destined to be the authority for some time to come, that it is well worth while to point out the minor errors which we have noted.

The Spanish of the volume is remarkably accurate for a book that uses so much of it. The commonest fault is the omission of the accent. It is wanting in "vomito" (pp. 3, 152) (Hosea Biglow's true ear made it rhyme with "le' *go* my toe"), "sacristia" (p. 73), "publico" (p. 165), "pulquerias" (p. 194), "vayase" (p. 360), "cerveceria" (p. 361), "huesped" (p. 367), and "lapiz" (p. 371). Misprinted words are "cuartillo" (p. 61), "sillaria" (also lacking an accent) (p. 72), "traige" (pp. 352, 358), "de(s)pacio" (p. 356), and "ahorras" (p. 359). We fear that the confiding tourist who should follow the directions of the 'Guide' in asking for hard-boiled eggs, in any Mexican restaurant, by calling for "huevos pasados en [better, por] agua" (p. 52), would be sadly disappointed. The expression cited is the universal one for the softest of soft-boiled eggs. In like manner one ought not to think that he would get anything like our "soup" by demanding "sopa" (p. 52). The waiter would bring dry boiled rice, variously seasoned. Following Mr. Conkling, the traveller might not get a taste of the luscious apricots which flood the markets in May and June if he only asked for "albaricoques" (p. 358). That is good Castilian for the fruit, but the Mexican market-woman knows it only as "chabacano." In fact, the principal defect of the "English-Spanish Vocabulary" is that it does not clearly enough discriminate the Mexican from the Castilian. The slight differences in pronunciation pointed out (p. 345) are not so important as the differences in usage. These, for the most part, are overlooked. We do not know what could have been meant by saying "the 'd' is not sounded in the middle of a word" (p. 345). It does not have its English sound when between two vowels, but it is always sounded. The sound of some of the other letters is incompletely or incorrectly stated on p. 346. The failure to give the gender of the nouns in the Vocabulary seems to us an unnecessary encouragement to the use of monosyllabic, ungrammatical Spanish, such as is so painfully common in the mouths of American travellers in Mexico; but perhaps those who would confine their linguistic studies to a 'Guide' are not likely to aim at anything higher. Similarly, the omission of the inverted question-marks (p. 351) violates the laws of written Spanish, but that would not greatly inconvenience the mere tourist.

Mr. Conkling ascribes to Popocatepetl the honor of being "the culminating point of North America" (p. 26), though he is aware of the rival claim of St. Elias (p. 299, note). The latest measurements, however, give the palm to the Alaskan mountain. This reminds us of the ridiculous character of some of the pictures of mountains which the 'Guide' offers for our admiration. They look like a child's first attempt to draw a mountain, what with their impossible slopes and smoking peaks—these last in the face of the assertion that "no eruption has occurred in any of them during the present century" (p. 84). Indeed, the illustrations of the book are inferior. Some of them appear to have been printed from old plates, and are no longer truthful. Thus, the Plaza of Mexico City has not had the appearance given it on p. 183 since 1877. The author cautiously states (p. 50) that "there is not a single fireplace in any building in Mexico." We know of several. We are curious to know how the "real" (12½ cents) can be the "basis of the decimal system of coinage" which, it is said (p. 61), "Mexico has followed the example of Spain in adopting." The truth is, the decimal system *has* been adopted, and the Government now coins only in accordance with it, while all the denominations mentioned by Mr. Conkling, except the "peso," are simply the remnants of the old system brought in by Spain. The old coins still circulate, and are in great favor with the people, but they are no more a part of the decimal system than they are of the solar system. The otherwise full and admirable information as to the banking facilities of the country is inexact in the statement (p. 62) that only the bills of the Monte de Piedad circulate at par outside of the city of Mexico. It should have been added that the Banco Nacional has a "sucursal" in all of the leading cities, where, of course, the bills of that institution are as good as silver. If Mr. Conkling were in the habit of receiving letters from Mexico, he would not have said that the postage on foreign letters was five cents (p. 65). The Postal-Union schedule calls for that rate, of course, but it is on a gold basis; and it suddenly occurred to the Mexican Government, in 1882, that five cents in gold equalled six cents in their depreciated currency, and accordingly they have sold six-cent stamps since the date mentioned.

The account of Weights and Measures (p. 103 *et seq.*) is not altogether happy. It is truthfully stated that the metric system is now the only legal system, but it is far too much to say that

it is in the rural districts alone that the old system prevails. It is one of the proofs of the inefficiency of the Mexican Government that it has not been able to make the metric system universal even in the Federal capital. It is thus a defect of some gravity that Mr. Conkling gives of native measures only the linear, omitting entirely the cubic, and says nothing of native weights. The singular mistake appears to have been made of confounding the days when the national flag is displayed with the great *dias de fiesta*. Sometimes the two coincide; but the religious festivals are far from having fallen into neglect, as the 'Guide' infers (p. 124). Save the 5th of May and the 16th of September, the church feast days are altogether the most widely and enthusiastically observed. This suggests a word in reference to the entirely inadequate account which is given of Protestant Missions. They are said (p. 134) to have been founded in five cities. As a matter of fact they are established in fifteen cities besides those mentioned by Mr. Conkling, to say nothing of many country outstations. It seems to be implied on p. 182 that the only way of getting water, in the city, is to buy of the "aguadores," who distribute from centrally located fountains. This is often done, but many of the houses have pipes leading up to the roofs to feed private tanks, from which the house is supplied much as with us. Of course, the water has not head enough to reach the level of the roof, and has to be pumped up. This necessitates the "bombador," who, with the "aguador," does what he can to make up for those inconveniences and annoyances which are supplied to us by the plumber.

But these are small spots on the general excellence of this new 'Guide.' For accuracy of information, for comprehensive acquaintance with the present routes of travel and with the places of chief interest, for absence of padding and mere sentiment, we know of no English work which approaches it. It deserves unhesitating commendation. It is worthy of its name. It will be a safe guide to those who trust it. Many of Mr. Conkling's observations on the Indian population are both shrewd and just. He seems to us to be wrong, however, in saying that, as a class, the Indians are long-lived. If they were it would be astonishing, when we remember that most of them have a diseased blood to start with, and get only the wretchedest fare with the severest toil. Yet, it is true, in their prime they do exhibit wonderful feats of strength and endurance. We are told (p. 225) of an Indian keeping up with a horse for thirty-one miles, covering the distance in seven hours. The writer of this review will not soon forget the hardest day's ride of his life, sixty miles over frightful roads, through bottomless *barrancas*, requiring twelve hours in the saddle. Yet our oriflamme was the red *serape* of our Indian guide, a splendid giant, who jauntily trotted ahead of us all the way and came in the freshest of the party, man or horse. One could believe in the Montezuma fish-story after that.

Gems of Chinese Literature. By Herbert A. Giles. London: Bernard Quaritch; Shanghai: Kelly & Walsh. 1883.

THIS volume is designed to afford an insight into the general literature of China, which, according to the author, is still "virgin soil, and remains to be efficiently explored." No doubt this is the case; for, although we have 'The Middle Kingdom' and Wylie's 'Notes,' not to mention the "desultory notes" of Thomas Taylor Meadows, yet in none of these do we find translations of native literature, arranged as they are in the volume before us. Mr. Giles gives a sort of piquancy to his undertaking by reminding his English readers that while "their painted forefathers were running naked and houseless in the woods, and living on berries and raw meat," the inhabitants of the great empire of China held learning in high esteem. This of course is curious, but it tends to show that such learning may be unproductive of practical results; for, after all, the Chinese people, in their wedded fondness for antiquity, are the least progressive in the world. And this is the secret of the sometimes ridiculous light in which they are placed by our book writers and travellers. That they are capable of keen practical work as individuals is plain enough by what we see among ourselves; but as an empire they have been, until very recently, at a standstill for ages.

Mr. Giles takes us up to the fountain-head by showing us something of the learning of the "Socrates of China," K'ung Fu-Tzŭ (Confucius). He was an editor rather than an author. His sayings, like those of the wise men of Greece, are sometimes striking, but we wonder they have done so little good; for, as to practical results, we search in vain. What has the doctrine of "reciprocity," for instance, done for the people? Mr. Giles lays stress on this, as though it amounted in value to the golden rule of Christ; but has it ever borne fruit? Mr. Mayers is not far wrong, we think, in calling it all "simple materialism."

Confucius is brought before us in a new light, however, in some of the extracts given by Mr. Giles. There is something comical in the piece called the "Song of the Coffin" (p. 43). Confucius went to help an old friend varnish a coffin; the coffin was for his friend's mother, deceased. "Ai-yah!" exclaimed the friend, as he brought the coffin in, "'tis long since I have had any music." Thereupon he began to sing:

> "Striped like the wildcat's head,
> Smooth as a maiden's hand,
> Ai-yah! Ai-yah!"

—the first line referring to the grain of the wood, the second to the character of the varnish. Here we have a specimen of materialism, pure and simple. Confucius pretended not to hear, but he did not disapprove: "Besides the duties we owe to parents," he said, "there are those we owe to friends." Mr. Giles speaks of the "inspiration" of Confucius, which "has placed him in the front rank of the world's prophets" (p. 46). A prophet, in the sense of teacher, he may have been; but a prophet or teacher for "the world" he never has been nor can be, for he entirely lacks the enthusiasm of humanity. He is, emphatically, "a Chinaman of the Chinese."

There are pleasant passages for reading and amusement scattered through this book, as we turn its pages. "The chaste wife's reply," on p. 111, is humorous and well turned. She refuses, as in duty bound, the two pearls sent her by an admirer, but regrets, withal, that she did not meet him in earlier years:

> "With thy two pearls I send thee back two tears:
> Tears—that we did not meet in earlier years!"

—a naïve confession, and essentially Chinese. Admirable is the devotion of Han Wĕn Kung, "the prince of literature," in preferring exile to the neglect of what he thought his duty. In fact, this is the chief point of attraction in the character of Chinese official life—the outspoken boldness of the censorate. This man, for instance, denounced Buddhism, which he regarded as an offensive idolatry, "the worship of a decayed bone"; and in consequence he was exiled to the barbarous South. He was ultimately recalled and loaded with honors, and was, after his death, canonized; and his example has done much to perpetuate the virtue of honesty in official life, for which, with all its faults, China is still conspicuous.

The strange expedient of Chang Yüeh, who, when "afflicted with gout, and unable to put foot to ground," forwarded two goats to the Imperial park, that people might see how they could fight, and so imbibe a like warlike spirit, gives us further insight into the character of this strange people. We are told, in connection with this incident, that the Prince of Ch'u, when going to war, stopped on his way to bow to a frog—a traditionally brave creature—"in order that his soldiers might infer how much more he would be likely to honor them for bravery on the field." We sincerely hope they were not disappointed, but it was a strange device; at any rate, it shows us that the Prince of Ch'u gave his soldiers credit for considerable power of inference. This same Chang Yüeh who was afflicted with gout, seems to have applauded the worship of Buddha as much as his successor, Han Wĕn Kung, denounced it; for we find that it was he who wrote the mysteriously worded preface to the travels of the Buddhist pilgrim, Hiuen Tsiang, in which his admiration for Buddhism is only less conspicuous than his fulsome laudation of the Emperor.

It is impossible to go further into the contents of this little volume. It will do much to accomplish the purpose which its author had in view, viz.: to exhibit, at first hand, the character of the Chinese people. Up to the present time, at least, they have been a riddle and a by-word in the Western world. Perhaps they are not destined always to remain so.

Geology of Wisconsin. Vols. I and IV. T. C. Chamberlin, Chief Geologist. Madison.

WHEN Mr. Chamberlin set himself the task of producing a volume which should serve as a text-book in the schools of his State, be intelligible and attractive to the non-scientific reader, and still possess interest for his scientific compeers, he undertook a work which a less skilful writer would have done well to avoid. The result, in point of literary execution, leaves little to be desired. There is a gratifying absence both of the stereotyped marks of a text-book, and of those florid passages which disfigure too much popular scientific literature. It is not unlikely that some parts may prove rather heavy for the young student, and, unless he is fortunate in having a more efficient teacher of geology than most of our schools afford, he may not always be able to follow the author's terse reasoning. Such parts, however, are rare, and generally unimportant. From another point of view the volume is open to criticism. The practice of incorporating botanical and zoölogical data in geological reports has the sanction of custom, but the propriety of the combination may be seriously questioned. Of the 235 pp. of biological material, one chapter, pp. 441 610, on the Economic Relations of Wisconsin Birds, deserves mention. In order to determine the beneficial or detrimental character of the different species, from an economic point of view, Mr. F. H. King has examined the stomachs of a large number (1,608) of birds. While in the case of many, perhaps of most, species the number of individuals studied has been too small to warrant authoritative conclusions, the results are still of value and interest. To make an investigation of this character complete, it would, of course, be necessary to ascertain the average character of the food of each species throughout the year, in the regions through which it migrates, as well as those in which it breeds.

In a chapter prefatory to the geological sketch which constitutes the first 300 pp. of the book, Mr. Chamberlin proposes a system of lithological nomenclature, the adoption of which is urged

upon the claim of mnemonic simplicity. A single illustration will give the clue to the main feature of the scheme. To recognize a given rock as granite, the student must be able to recognize the constituent minerals severally, and then to learn that the combination is *granite*, a term which gives no hint of mineralogical composition. This system proposes that instead of granite the rock be designated by a name made up of abbreviations of the names of the constituent minerals. The combination of quartz, feldspar, and mica would be not granite, but qua fel-mi. Moreover, the term now in use gives no indication of the relative abundance of the several minerals. It is proposed, under the new system, that the abbreviations be arranged in the order of the relative abundance of the constituent minerals. Thus, granite may be qua-fel-mi, fel-qua-mi, fel-mi-qua, etc. If it is desired to designate which mica and which feldspar are present, the abbreviations for the specific names of the given mica and feldspar may be substituted for those of the general names, as qu'orth-mus (quartz, orthoclase, muscovite). When accessory minerals are present in number, the combinations, if including them, would doubtless become cumbersome, but rarely as much so, the author declares, as many terms in the chemical nomenclature of the day. It is not easy to see how this proposed system can do any good, or do anything, if attempted, but increase the difficulties of nomenclature. If granite, which refers to texture, is not a good name, mica is no better; and radical reformers would soon wish to replace the familiar names of common minerals by others suggestive of chemical constitution. The system here proposed cannot help the non-scientific; and scientists can hardly consider it without a smile. Its introduction would certainly be both difficult and useless.

The Laurentian and Huronian ages, which represent "more than one-half the sedimentation of geological history," receive relatively much fuller treatment than is commonly accorded them. The copper-bearing rocks are classified as representative of a distinct period (Keweenawan) of the Huronian age. This is a point which has already provoked much spirited discussion, and the position of the Wisconsin geologists (Irving and Chamberlin) has been and still is assailed by a number of geologists less familiar with the ground. In the consideration of the palæozoic and subsequent ages, there is necessarily little that is new. Facts are uniformly presented from a causal standpoint, and in a manner intended to stimulate thought. Prominence is given to fundamental principles, as erosion, sedimentation, etc., and there is scarcely an activity operative in geological history which does not, directly or indirectly, receive consideration, and this always in connection with the effects of which it is the sole or joint cause. This is, with beginners, a point of vital importance, and in this respect the present sketch has no superior in the text-book literature on geology. Life history is not slighted, and incidentally some suggestions are made which seem to indicate that the author is not in perfect harmony with current theories of evolution.

It is when the author takes up the quaternary period (pp. 261–300) that he appears at his best. Wisconsin affords exceptional opportunities for studying quaternary geology, embracing as it does a driftless area, an area of drift of the earlier glacial epoch, and another affected by the drift of the later glacial epoch. Such contiguous areas are invaluable for accurate determination, and from this region the more critical parts of our present knowledge concerning glacial history in America have been derived. Mr. Chamberlin was the first to determine the moraine character of the "kettle range" of eastern Wisconsin, and to demonstrate by data from the same region the character of the ice-movement during the glacial period. He was also the first to correlate the moraine of Wisconsin with that previously traced in New Jersey and Long Island, and to hypothecate the connection between the two which he has since proved to exist, and to announce the theory that this consecutive moraine, or series of moraines, is proof of a second glacial epoch, and marks the limit of ice action at that time. Among the collateral topics of popular and professional interest is that of the origin of the great lake basins. These are regarded as the joint product of preglacial erosion, glacial erosion, and depression caused by the relatively-excessive weight of ice over these areas, which were, it is maintained, demonstrably the paths of gigantic ice-lobes. The argument against the preglacial origin of these basins (pp. 252–9) is as cogent a line of reasoning as is often encountered. A psychozoic era is recognized, on the ground that "man more powerfully affects the course of geological progress" than did any other form of life, as mammals, reptiles, etc., whose advent or dominance marks the separation of geological ages. The increased erosion, and consequently transportation and sedimentation, incident to cultivation, together with the attendant effects upon the life of streams and coasts, are among the geological influences which man has introduced. Other noteworthy discussions in volume i. are to be found on pp. 53–9—character of the primitive crust; and on pp. 206–12—generalizations on the palæozoic series—as well as the final chapters, which possess an economic interest. Among these is an exhaustive discussion of artesian wells, which sets forth the principles concerned, the conditions of success, and the possibilities of failure in favorable localities.

The discussions concerning the ore deposits (copper, vol. i., pp. 108–15; lead and zinc, vol. iv., pp. 365–571) will attract wide attention, both because of the inherently interesting nature of the subject, and because such conflicting and unsatisfactory theories have heretofore been advanced. With regard to the copper, the theories of oceanic precipitation and of igneous injection are quickly disposed of. The proximate source of the copper is regarded as "the igneous rocks themselves"; and "the more distant source, the rocks from whose melting these arose." This would account for the wide distribution of the metal, which by igneous agencies would be left disseminated throughout the rock. The concentration of the metal into the forms in which it now occurs "is believed to have been accomplished through the agency of permeating atmospheric waters." The ability of such waters, when charged with carbonic and organic acids, to dissolve mineral ingredients has been demonstrated. The only difficulty, therefore, is with the subsequent precipitation of the metal. This the author vaguely explains as due to the chemical reactions which would result from the commingling of variously-charged waters in the "avenues of internal drainage," viz.: the fissures and porous portions of the formation. That the waters which penetrate the rock would seek the fissures, amygdaloidal portions of the formation, and the porous interstratified detrital beds, there is no doubt. That chemical changes would result is highly probable. But just how metallic copper would emerge from this obscure laboratory, we are not told.

The treatise on the lead and zinc deposits is satisfactorily full, and covers a wide scope. Elaborate details concerning the occurrence of these ores, their vertical and areal distribution, their position in strata, their relation to topographical features, the relations of the several ores to each other and to associated minerals, and the changes which each has undergone since deposition, are given in an apparently impartial manner. Indeed, it is impossible to gather from the presentation of these details even the remotest clue to the author's views. These data precede the discussion concerning the origin of the ores and the exposition of the author's ingenious theory, so that the reader has the exact situation well in mind before he is led upon the uncertain ground of theory. The approved hypothesis is a modification, or perhaps rather a completion, of Prof. Whitney's theory advanced some years since. With him the ores are believed to be of oceanic origin. The archæan rocks are maintained to have been the more distant source, and from them the metals in question were extracted by drainage waters. These propositions, however, in no way account for the localization of the ores, and for this important part of the present theory Mr. Chamberlin is, we believe, alone responsible. The localization, it is urged, was due to the combined agency of oceanic currents and organic matter. The course of oceanic currents is dependent upon the relative position of land and water, and the direction of prevailing winds. Sufficient reasons are adduced for believing the ores to have been extracted from the ocean during the Trenton period; and from the known position of land at that time, and the probable direction (the same as now) of prevailing winds, it is calculated that currents would result which would bear the major part of the drainage from the archæan highlands to the region where the ore deposits occur. To comprehend clearly the author's views, reference should be made to the map of silurian currents, p. 531. The mineral solutions being thus brought to the required locality, it only remains to account for the extraction of their metallic content. Seaweed is capable of taking the lead and zinc, as well as other metals, directly from sea-water, and that seaweed was present in quantity, the rocks give conclusive evidence. Further, the region in question is marked by a series of mounds and depressions, and it is with the latter that the ores are found uniformly associated. In a shallow sea (and the Trenton sea was here demonstrably not deep) the depressions of an uneven bottom would be the localities most favorable for organic growth; and into the depressions, as places of relative quiet, lifeless and drifting organic matter would be likely to be gathered by the movements of the waters, and would here undergo decomposition. Some of the decomposition gases—notably hydrogen sulphide—are well-known precipitants of metals in solution, and, upon being generated, would throw down the lead and zinc as sulphides. The strata would thus become locally impregnated with these ores.

The concentration of the ores in the crevices as now found is ascribed to the action of percolating waters. These, with their oxidizing impurities, would change the insoluble sulphides to soluble sulphates, which, unchanged or more likely as carbonates, would be borne onward to the main channels of drainage—the crevices and openings in the strata. Here, mingling with the waters descending more directly from the surface along the fissures, and bearing more or less unoxidized organic matter, the metals would be again reduced to the form of sulphides, and as such deposited. That the supposed organic matter was, in some cases at least, introduced into the crevices directly from above, is shown from the fact that bones have been found in crevices, sometimes with lead sulphide deposited within them. The exact character of the chemical changes is left somewhat indefinite, since the

precise effects of the organic impurities in the atmospheric waters are little understood. The process of concentration must have been one of extreme slowness, according to the theory, since the amount of mineral held in solution by the permeating water at any one time must have been infinitesimal. That the process was a slow one is evidenced by the large size of the crystals and the succession of layers, and there is no reason to suppose that it has yet ceased. The theory has the merit of being consistent with the facts, and of invoking the agency of no unknown force, or of known forces in unknown ways, and the monograph—for such it really is—will be looked upon as an important contribution to science.

The remaining portions of vol. iv. possess little popular interest. With one or two exceptions they are district reports. Professor Whitfield's report on palæontology, pp. 163–363, embraces descriptions of many old and of about thirty new species, and is accompanied by twenty-seven full-page lithographic plates, on which are figured upwards of 200 species. The report on the microscopical studies of the crystalline rocks of the Wisconsin Valley (Irving and Van Hise) is of value to specialists. Both volumes are fully illustrated and have copious indices, and vol. iv. is accompanied by an atlas of sixteen large maps.

An Old Philadelphian. Col. William Bradford, the Patriot Printer of 1776. Sketches of his Life, by John William Wallace. Philadelphia: Privately printed. 1883. 8vo, pp. 517.

Mr. Wallace has prepared an exhaustive and interesting account of the life of a man who well deserves the tribute thus paid to his patriotic services in the field, in literature, and in various avocations of his long, useful, and honored life. The third of the earliest American family of printers, William Bradford was a public-spirited citizen, and his memoir serves as an admirable account of the interesting period in which he was one of the prominent figures in Philadelphia, and that city was, in every sense, the capital of the country. The description of the Philadelphia of that day, and the details of the military and naval operations in the neighborhood during the Revolution, are an actual addition to our slender stock of knowledge on the subject.

The bibliographical value of Mr. Wallace's book is greatly heightened by his exhaustive catalogue of the Bradford imprints, so eagerly sought for by book collectors. William Bradford followed intelligently in the footsteps of his uncle and his grandfather, the first printer in the Middle States, and added to their merit that of being the publisher and editor of the first newspaper in the same region. The *Pennsylvania Journal*, begun by William Bradford in 1742, remained in the family for sixty years, and its business papers, carefully preserved with those of the whole family in their successive occupations, in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, supply a very curious and hitherto unwritten chapter in the history of the newspapers of the country. The post-office and the newspaper grew up together, and each helped the other forward in advancing to their present condition. Franklin and Bradford have fared very differently in the popular estimate put upon their services in these, as in other broader fields of labor; but Mr. Wallace shows how large a share the latter had in the public improvement of his time. His services in calling into existence, administering, and putting on a sound basis the little Pennsylvania navy, for the protection of Philadelphia, ought not to be overlooked, for from that beginning grew the navy of the United States. As the founder of the Merchants' Exchange and of the oldest insurance company of Philadelphia, Bradford has still another distinction; but his *Journal* and his *American Magazine*, first issued in 1757, were the precursors of that periodical literature which, with all its faults, is one of the characteristic features of American intelligence.

Well printed and well illustrated, with portrait, maps, and other very attractive woodcuts and engravings, this volume is too full of matter of interest to be relegated to the narrow circle of the readers of one hundred presentation copies, to which this edition is limited. With all due respect to the bibliographer's love of rare books, it is only fair to such historical research that it should be brought home to the general public by the early issue of an edition large enough to meet a general demand.

Beowulf and the Fight at Finnsburh, with Text and Glossary. Edited by James A. Harrison and Robert Sharp. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1883.

The present volume is number one of a projected library of Anglo-Saxon poetry for American students. Being the first edition of 'Beowulf' ever printed on American soil, it deserves praise on that account, if on no other. But, irrespective of the merit of precedence, the edition has positive merits of its own. While the text is that of Heyne's edition of 1879, the glossary is somewhat fuller than Heyne's, and also more accurate. The editors have evidently bestowed great pains upon this part of the book. Even such of our readers as have already Heyne's edition will find it profitable to use the American glossary. We have not the space, of course, to consider the general status of 'Beowulf' in Anglo-Saxon literature, nor even to discuss the question—which has never yet been fairly met—whether the study of Anglo-Saxon is best promoted by a too exclusive attention to 'Beowulf.' Our individual belief is that a poem presenting such difficulties in text, language, and allusion, should not be the first book put into the student's hands. Indeed, considering the evolution of language alone, we think that Zupitza's Reader will succeed better than any other single book in giving one a general idea of the state of England in olden times.

Aside from this, we have noted several features in the present work which seem to us decided faults of editing. To begin with, the editors have retained the *ā*, *ae* of Heyne's text, instead of adopting the English typography, *ae*, *æ*. Inasmuch as the Grimm-Grein typography has been abandoned in Germany itself, we do not see why it should be revived in America. A still graver objection must be raised against the arrangement of words in the vocabulary. Here we will speak out our mind once for all, without fear or favor. It is high time that lexicographers of Anglo-Saxon should grapple in earnest with the *vowels* and dispose of them. The present editors have blindly followed Heyne's example, and treated the vowel *a* under four separate heads: *a*, *ā*, *â*, *ae*! This is unqualifiedly wrong. Grein tried it in the first part of his 'Glossar,' but abandoned it in the second, retaining only the two fold arrangement of *a* unmodified and *a* modified. Even this is too much. All four shades of the vowel should be indexed as one. There need be no hesitation. Zupitza has adopted it in the vocabulary to his Reader, and Sievers evidently favors it. Why should we do more than the editors of Latin and Greek? Our readers have only to imagine a Latin dictionary with all the long *a*'s separated from the short. In a special glossary, like that to 'Beowulf,' the inconvenience of the present arrangement is barely endurable. But in a lexicon for the whole language, it would be simply intolerable. Editors should remember that dictionaries are not root lexicons. Besides, according to the method followed by the present editors, every one has to commit himself at the outset to a decided opinion upon the length of vowel in every word. This is extremely wasteful of time, and is also attended with the dangers that inevitably beset etymologizing to order. Thus *ăled*, fire, is entered under short *ae*. Whereas Kluge (*Anglia* IV., Anzeiger 17) shows it to be long. (See also Sievers's Grammar, § 244.)

Going still further, we venture to say that long and short *o* and long and short *œ* ought to be indexed as one vowel; why should an Anglo-Saxon lexicographer be more discriminating than the editor of a dictionary of modern German? The same may be said of the *i* and *ie* sounds. Practically they are all one for lexical indexing. The only occasion for doubt is the treatment of *ea*, *e*, and *eo*. The *ea* really stands for *a*, or *ae* (cf. Sievers, § 35). Yet it could scarcely be indexed under *a*. Our preference would be to treat *ea* before *e* (and not after *eo* [!] as in the present book) and throw the *e*, *ē*, *eo*, *ēo* all under one letter *e*. This is the only escape, so far as we can see, out of a maze of forms. If there is any one quality more in demand than another for Anglo Saxon lexicography just now, it is the quality of *courage*. We must learn to throw off the fetters of an antiquated classification.

We take the liberty of noting some of the more obvious inconveniences into which our editors have been misled. The numeral "one" is inserted first, p. 116, under long *a*; again, p. 120, under long *ae*. The preposition *on* is inserted under short *o*. Thus the pupil becomes disqualified for recognizing the fact (cf. Zupitza's text of the battle of Brunanburh) that *on* was probably pronounced long, as the MS. accents indicate. The insertion of *anweald* under short *a* precludes the treatment of it as possibly *ānweald*, "sole ruler."

We have noted, also, several slight errors in the Glossary. Thus *bend*, given as masc., has forms of both genders (cf. E. St. vi., 290). The word *heorte*, entered p. 207, should be transferred to p. 208; besides, it is *feminine*, not neuter (cf. Sievers, § 278, § 280). The word *betweonum*, treated p. 284, under *tweone*, should be treated under *be-*, as a separable preposition = modern English "between" (cf. Sievers, § 329, and the passage in 'Andreas,' 558: *hû ðaet gewurde be werum tweonum*—"how that came to pass among men"). This passage is especially interesting as an evidence of the use of the preposition to express plurality, instead of mere duality. *Stânfah*, verse 320, can scarcely be translated "with stones of different colors." Would the editors have us believe that Beowulf and his men march over a mosaic pavement? Grein's (oral) interpretation was that the poet meant to suggest a Roman military road, easily recognizable from a distance. With regard to *hrînde*, 1364, the editors do not seem to be aware of Morris's emendation *hrîmige*, adopted by Sweet and also by Wülcker (cf. Sweet's Anglo-Saxon Reader, second edition). With regard to the phrase *onband beadurûne*, verse 501, we cannot agree with any of the accepted renderings. It seems to us that the phrase is a mere standing expression (not confined to the present occasion of B.'s visit), and means that Hîmferð was court poet, or orator, in the habit of narrating past exploits. And should not *rûn* in the Glossary be defined as "council," rather than "counsel"?

On the other hand, the Glossary has many ex-

cellent features. It enters not only verbs, but nouns and adjectives, compounded with *ge-* under the main word, disregarding the *ge-*. Herein the editors have followed Heyne. Also, derivative verbs are placed under the primitives, as *ábelgan* under *belgan*. This is undoubtedly the best arrangement for a special vocabulary like the present, but we raise a note of warning against adopting it for a general lexicon. With regard to the indexing of *a* before a nasal, as *=o*, the editors do not seem to have followed any fixed principle; they evidently prefer to index under *a*. In a 'Beowulf' glossary the point is not important, although it is scarcely fair to state that *and* is the usual MS. spelling of the conjunction, when Wülcker's transcript shows that the MS. employs the sign]. But for general lexical practice we cannot refrain from urging the advantage of uniformly indexing according to the Wessex spelling, *o*.

We hope that our strictures will not be misconstrued as a general condemnation. On the contrary, we predict that the present edition will supersede all others wherever 'Beowulf' is taught in English speech. It is practical and scholarly. There is not a trace of slovenliness from beginning to end. The editors have done good work, even if we believe that they might have done better by breaking with now useless traditions. Their book will take its place by the side of Garnett's translation, to the lasting honor of American scholarship.

From Ponkapog to Pesth. By Thomas Bailey Aldrich. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS is a little volume of what in French would be called "impressions" of travel. It has very little to do with either Ponkapog or Pesth, except that it might have been written by a native of Ponkapog who had been to Pesth—that is, if he had been to a good many other places besides. It records the impressions of a literary American as to some of the differences between the Old World and the New. It was hardly to be expected that in such a field Mr. Aldrich would find it possible, or indeed attempt, to give any distinctly new information. The ground has been gone over so many times that we do not expect this. All that an author can give us is the opportunity of seeing the old sights and places for the moment with his eyes, and the value of the opportunity consists almost entirely in the power or delicacy of these temporarily borrowed organs. Mr. Aldrich's eyes are primarily those of a poet. He has the sensitive temperament of a poet, and a poet's delicacy of expression. A dash of somewhat extravagant humor is thrown in, but this often seems to be done in obedience to the fashion of the day; for Mr. Aldrich's natural humor is quiet and shy, and not at all fitted to the service to which he now and then attempts to put it. The most entertaining chapter of the book is that, perhaps, on "Ways and Manners," in which the author contrasts the manners of the European railroad officials, hotel-keepers, and servants with those of his own country, to the great disadvantage of the latter, as follows:

"The guard who has charge of your carriage on a Continental railway, so far from being the disdainful autocrat who, on our own cars, too often snatches your ticket from you and snubs you at a word, is the most thoughtful and considerate of men. He looks after the welfare and comfort of your party as if that were the specialty for which he was created; he never loses countenance at your daring French or German, or the graceful New England accent you throw upon your Italian; he is ready with the name of that ruined castle which stands like a jagged tooth in the mouth of the mountain gorge; he does not neglect to tell you at what station you may find an excellent buffet: you cannot weary him with questions—he will smilingly answer the same one a hundred times; and when he is killed in a collision with the branch train, you are not afraid to think where he will go, with all this kindliness."

Mr. Aldrich, however, overlooks, in the case of the conductor, the fact that the view generally taken of his relations to passengers in this country is exactly the opposite of the European view, and really excludes civility from our conception of the type as it ordinarily exists. The passenger [illegible] asks a number of questions of the conductor instead of finding for himself all about it from [illegible] other and not very clearly-defined source, is a constant object of ridicule in the funny columns of the press with us, while the unresponsive conductor never is. The respect of the American public for the conductor is very great, and this cannot be merely on account of his power and authority. There is apparently a good deal of popular sympathy with him in his "life-struggle" with the troublesome passenger, and the profoundest contempt for the feeble resistance which the passenger sometimes offers him.

E F Bickford 193 24 84

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha for 1884. B. Westermann & Co.
Brief History of ancient, Mediæval, and Modern Peoples. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Colombier, Marie. Sarah Barnum. S. W. Green's Son.
Cross, Rev. J. Old Wine and New: Occasional Discourses. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Darling, Mrs. F. A. Mrs. Darling's Letters, or Memories of the Civil War. John W. Lovell Company. 20 cents.
Dewey, Rev. Orville. Works, with a Biographical Sketch. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.
Garnett, W. C. Studies in Longfellow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Gilmour, Rev. J. Among the Mongols. American Tract Society.
Grob, J. The Life of Zwingli. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Gunnison, A. Rambles Overland: a Trip across the Continent. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Hoffman, Rev. C. F. Days and Nights with Jesus; or, Words for the Faithful. James Pott.
Ives, C. The Isles of Summer, or Nassau and the Bahamas. The Author. $1.75.
Le Bosquet, J. A Memorial, with Reminiscences, Historical, Personal, and Characteristic, of John Farmer, A.M. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.
Lewis, Florence. China Painting. Cassell & Co. $2.50.
Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series. Vol. XLIV. Boston: Littell & Co.
MacLean, G. E. Aelfrics Segewulfi Interrogationes in Genesin. Halle: E. Karras.
Mason, T. Chips from Dickens. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Mehring, G. von. Die Grundformen der Sophistik. B. Westermann & Co.
Morris, F. S. Wisdom, Wit, and Pathos: selected from the Works of Ouida. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Payn, J. The Canon's Ward. A novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Porter, Rose. The Story of a Flower and other Fragments Twice-Gathered. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Rhodes, M. Life-Thoughts for Young Women. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Rhymes of a Barrister. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Russel, W. Clark. Round the Galley Fire. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.
Savage, M. J. Beliefs About the Bible. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.
Scott, Mrs. O. W. Santa Claus Stories and Tales of Every-Day Life. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Seelye, President J. H. Growth through Obedience. Amherst Baccalaureate Sermon. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. Ishmael: or, In the Depths. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.
State Railroad Commissions. The Railroad Gazette. 50 cents.
Symington, A. J. Hints to Our Boys. London: Alex. Gardner.
The Bread-Winners: a Social Study. Harper & Brothers.

Henry Holt & Co.

Have ready, in the new AMERICAN NOVEL SERIES:

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 31, 1884.

The Week.

SINCE our article on another page was written, Mr. Sherman's resolutions have proved, as far as their original purpose was concerned, a complete failure. They have produced no debate and no excitement. Even Mahone gave them but feeble support in the printed slips which he read, for he denied that the bulk of the people of Virginia were responsible for or approved of the Danville outrages; and if the people of the State did not approve of them or were not responsible for them, of course they become an ordinary election riot, to be dealt with by the local courts. The Copiah County (Miss.) troubles have even less political significance than the Danville troubles. That such things ought to be exposed and criticised, we would be the last to deny. It is by such exposure and criticism, drawing after them the reprobation of the civilized world, that the condition of the South in this respect is to be improved, but it is preposterous to waste the time of the National Legislature quarrelling over Southern outrages and arguing about them, when it is well known that no legislative action about them can or will be taken. We do not know that there is any serious objection to Congressional inquiry into them, but it must be borne in mind that no report of the result of such inquiry will be made for months; that when it appears the whole country will be absorbed in the Presidential canvass, and the outrages will be forgotten everywhere but in the newspaper offices, and that it will, therefore, be read by nobody or by very few. Moreover, it is not the kind of attack on Southern lawlessness which produces most impression at the South, or contributes most to reform Southern manners. The South has long ceased to regard the waving of "the bloody shirt" in Congress as an expression of honest Northern indignation. They now universally regard it as a signal, meaning that the Republican party is short of "capital," and would like to replenish its lockers. The silence with which the Southern members listened to Mr. Sherman shows that even for this purpose it is now worthless. It will probably never be hoisted again.

There are three banking bills which will be discussed in the Senate: one drawn by Mr. Sherman, one by Mr. Aldrich, and one by Mr. McPherson. This last, after a long discussion in committee, was reported to the Senate last week by a Democratic party vote, and is before the Senate as a purely Democratic measure. Its provisions are that upon a deposit "of any United States bonds bearing interest, in the manner required by law, any national banking association making the same shall be entitled to receive from the Comptroller of the Currency circulating notes not exceeding in amount the par value of the bonds deposited: Provided, That at no time shall the total amount of such notes issued to any such association exceed the amount at such time actually paid in of its capital stock." Messrs. Sherman and Aldrich will propose their bills as independent measures, and the discussion, which was inconclusive in the Committee, will be reopened in the Senate. The Sherman bill allows the banks, as at present, to issue notes to only ninety per centum of the par value of bonds deposited, bearing interest at the rate of not less than three per cent., and provides that at no time shall the total amount of notes issued exceed the amount actually paid in of capital stock, nor shall they exceed at any time ninety-five per cent. of the par value of the deposited bonds and interest. The Aldrich bill authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to receive bonds bearing four per cent. interest, and issue in exchange bonds bearing three per cent. interest, which shall be exempt from taxation and payable on the date fixed for the payment of the bonds for which they are exchanged. None of these newly-issued bonds shall be called in so long as bonds bearing a higher rate of interest are outstanding. Any national banking association which shall deposit these new bonds as security shall be entitled to receive circulating notes to the full par value of those bonds.

The Mormon Commission will, we trust, see the importance of throwing any light in its possession upon the question as to how much polygamy there actually is in Utah. They disfranchised, we believe, only 12,000 persons for having more than one wife or husband, and yet there are about 130,000 Mormons in Utah. As they exercised their powers in a very thoroughgoing way, this looks as if there had been at least great exaggeration as to the number of polygamous families in the Territory. We cannot vouch positively for the above figures, but they are given as correct by a Mormon delegate to Congress, Mr. Caine, and it is high time the matter should be looked into.

Besides the economical difficulties, the constitutional objection to any wholesale regulation of the railway system by Congress seems at least worth thinking about. The Constitution gives Congress the power merely to "regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States." Does this give Congress the power to say for how much a railroad chartered by Massachusetts shall carry a bale of goods to Chicago? The contract is made in Massachusetts to be executed outside its limits, to be sure; but still it is a Massachusetts contract, and moreover it is made by a corporation deriving its existence and its power to make the contract from the State Legislature. To say that such contracts shall be made only on terms prescribed by Congress, and to derive this from the power to "regulate commerce," seems to be the longest stride in the direction of centralization that has been proposed yet. The majority of the Commerce Committee is Democratic, and just now may be ready for anything; but there is nothing in the history, even in the recent history, of the Supreme Court to warrant the belief that a majority of the judges are ready to take such an extremely broad view of the powers of Congress as a Congressional regulation of railway rates involves.

There is one consideration connected with the art-tariff question which strongly favors the total abolition of the duty. This is the desirableness of facilitating the entry, free from all entanglements, of pictures intended only for exhibition, and which would have to pay the duty without any possibility of pecuniary advantage accruing to the owner. There are certain relations in which art stands to trade that are peculiar. The owners of celebrated pictures, for instance, have often a pride in their being of the widest possible utility, quite unlike the feeling they might have about their houses or carriages. They are glad to have all the world admire their pictures, and will even make some sacrifice to that end. Pictures, unlike other property, are none the worse for the widest utility. A thing of beauty is not only a joy forever—*i. e.*, as long as it lasts—but does not wear out by being enjoyed generally. Pictures differ from books and some other educational appliances in being only greatly valuable in the original, for of the greatest work no reproductions are possible. In excluding, as we do by our duty on pictures, all works of the higher class, and the unpurchasable pictures which the love of art might induce their proprietors to send over to America for exhibition, we lose the chance of seeing many phases of art which might be of great educational use to our artists and public. We put it out of the question for foreign artists to contribute to our exhibitions. Such collections as the Royal Academy winter exhibition of old masters and deceased painters are to our public unattainable.

The most entertaining deliverance on the vexed question of woman's rights we have had for a good while, has just been made by the Solicitor of the Treasury, in an opinion on the legality of issuing a license as master of a steamboat on the Mississippi to Mrs. Mary A. Miller of Louisiana. There has been nothing quite equal to it in the way of fine and solemn writing since Judge-Advocate Holt's report to President Lincoln on Fitz-John Porter's case. He decidedly objects to Mrs. Miller's getting the license, not on legal grounds, for "the law is silent as to sex," but apparently on the ground that "it would shock the sensibilities of humanity," and "would be opposed to the principles which underlie the Christian civilization of the age in which we live"; and he declares boldly that "one of the greatest elements in this civilization is the relation between the sexes." There then follows a eulogy on woman's influence which, for warmth of feeling and chaste beauty of diction, has few if any parallels in modern literature. "No

man," he says, "bows with more sincere devotion to the power, the majesty, and the influence of woman than I do," and he is willing to admit that women may have to earn their living, but not, he holds, "in Mississippi steamboat navigation." He goes still further, and declares that if women are admitted to *all* occupations, "the relation between the sexes will have lost all its unselfish devotion, and the vows plighted at the altar will have no more restraining solemnity than a contract to furnish so many gallons of whiskey or so many bushels of beans." The only way out of this scene of horror which he sees, is to give the license to some man designated by Mrs. Miller, who would nominally command the steamboat, while she held the real authority. We trust Mrs. Miller will acquiesce in this suggestion, and help to save at least one or two of the principles which underlie our Christian civilization.

Owing to our still imperfect modes of transmission, the Solicitor has been obliged to explain that he did not say that he "bowed to the necessity," but to "the majesty of woman." This was a telegrapher's mistake. The rest of the opinion, however, stands as reported in its cold, classical, though almost cruel beauty. It will doubtless ring in Mrs. Miller's ears for many a day as she paces the wet deck or dozes in the lonely pilot-house, like a voice from the regions of Eternal Propriety and Immutable Division of Labor. We should not indeed be surprised if sometimes, as she floats down the river and repeats or hums it to herself, she should, in spite of its hostility to her claims, say to herself, like Wolfe about Gray's 'Elegy,' that she would sooner have written that one paper than command and own the biggest steamboat on the Mississippi.

The speech of Mr. Olin, the clerical member from Broome, in the Assembly on Thursday, in support of a prohibition amendment to the Constitution, appears to have been much more skilful and to have made more impression on the audience than most of the oratory from that quarter. But he, of course, did not succeed in convincing anybody that absolute prohibition could be carried out in this State, or that it would not result in giving the liquor trade a great stimulus, under conditions far worse for morality and order than those which now exist. There is no question that the public conscience all over the country is becoming more and more aroused about the effects of alcoholic drinks on the public health and order, and that the determination to restrain or control the sale of them is growing rapidly. What more than aught else impedes this movement to-day is the fact that it gets no help from those who are most in earnest in their hostility to drink. It is this which makes the temperance agitation so different from all other reformatory agitations. We believe we are not wrong in saying that temperance reformers are the only reformers who have refused, and do refuse, to take their claims in instalments, or to help anybody who only seeks a part of what they are striving for. The result is that the cause of temperance is, for all practical purposes, left in the hands of those who are not enthusiastic about it, and only help it when they have nothing more pressing on hand.

The discussions of the Adirondack question generally take for granted that the woods are to be necessarily preserved in their present condition and allowed to stand, as primeval forest, unproductive and a cause of expense to the State. But any one who has visited those sections of the Alps which have been reforested, or those which have been put under State superintendence for preservation, or who has even passed through the great forest of Ardennes, will have seen in successful operation a system of forest-farming which not only pays the expense of preserving the forest, but makes an excellent investment of the operation. In the Veneto the mountain-tops, where once denuded of forest, have been replanted with larch and fir, and a large proportion of the lumber from that section comes from these plantations. The Italian Government has formed forestry schools and bodies of forest guards; Vallombrosa and Abetone are huge tree-farms in Central Italy, which are extending their jurisdiction and operations as far as their means and organization permit, and always with profit. A Belgian proprietor residing near the forest of Ardennes informed us that the proprietors found that the land cultivated in trees and cut once in a hundred years—*i. e.*, the trees being selected according to their condition, and cut at the rate of 1 per cent. per annum—paid just as well as raising wheat on the same extent of land. What is wanted, then, in our forest management is the application of a vigorous system of intelligent official superintendence to the cutting of the trees, none but those marked for cutting to be allowed to be cut, and the lumberers being placed under the necessity of removing all the branches, brushwood, and dead wood which form the fuel for the conflagrations. This would pay even now as management, and in the course of the not long time which will see all our unregulated forests exhausted, the forests so controlled and policed will furnish an excellent investment for the capital employed in keeping them from present destruction, besides maintaining a practically inexhaustible source of material for those manufactures which depend on wood. The lumberers now cut all the desirable trees as they go, littering the ground with an enormous mass of small branches and dead wood, which becomes as inflammable as powder and which is the really dangerous element in the great conflagrations. These never burn but only scorch and kill the standing trees, and subsist and spread by this litter of the lumbermen, who are utterly indifferent to what happens to the country when they have got their logs out.

The Rowell murder trial promises to have some peculiar features. Rowell killed Lynch for being too intimate with his wife. He lay in wait for him, and killed him, if not deliberately, at any rate carefully. His friend Palmer testifies that he furnished Rowell with a revolver, and advised him to throw pepper into Lynch's eyes. Now what position does this put Palmer in? His testimony closely resembles that of an accessory before the fact. Rowell says that he was insane, and if he was, Palmer we suppose was too. To furnish a friend in Rowell's condition with a revolver, if the act of a sane man, is simply to send him out to commit a murder.

The *Christian at Work*, a religious paper in this city, has come out in favor of what may be called precautionary homicide. It holds, apropos of the Nutt case, that where the law fails to maintain "the right to life and the right of self-defence, the individual may secure his own rights." Therefore, Nutt was right "to take a pistol and shoot the dog down as he deserved." It appears that people who do not concur in this view are either "doctrinaires," or "persons who regard the law as an end rather than as a means," or "into whose judgment some personal elements enter"; meaning by this, we suppose, people who are afraid of being shot themselves. The fatal defect in this preaching is that it does not provide any tribunal to decide when the law has failed to do justice. It leaves the person who feels the wrong to decide for himself that his only remedy is murder, or in other words makes him both prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner in his own case. Billy McGlory might justify himself, under this rule, for shooting the editor of the *Christian at Work* for interfering with his business, and call anybody who protested a "doctrinaire." We, for our part, think preachers of this kind almost as mischievous as the murderers, and ask no mercy for them from any shooting man who thinks they have wronged him, and that the law will give him no redress. He may, of course, make mistakes, but everybody makes mistakes. The great thing is to have his natural desire for blood and vengeance gratified.

The difficulty of imposing any legal restraint upon the excesses of insanity experts in criminal trials has long been felt, but little progress has been made, as a glance at the reported proceedings in any important criminal trial will show. The performances of the doctors in the Nutt case, luckily for them, escaped attention, because it was treated as a foregone conclusion that Nutt would be acquitted. But the way in which a criminal escapes is sometimes as interesting as the mere fact itself. The Pennsylvania Legislature, for the purpose of imposing some sort of responsibility upon "experts," passed a law some time ago requiring any acquittal on the ground of insanity to be followed, if the judge thought it advisable, by a medical inquest. If this resulted in a decision that the prisoner was still insane, he was to be sent to an asylum. The reformers who passed this law said to themselves, "Now we have got murderers and experts in a tight place. A murderer, even with the aid of experts, will either be hung or be confined so that he can do no further harm."

Now, let us see how this law works in the first case in which any strain has been put upon it. Nutt's defence was insanity, and the experts trooped in and swore that he was, at the time that he killed Dukes, as mad as it was possible to be. Some of their testimony was to the effect that he had always had a tendency since childhood to insanity. The object of this was to establish what is called "emotional" insanity—*i. e.*, insanity which comes on when the murderer gets a chance to use his pistol, and stops as soon as he has killed his enemy. The Judge who tried Nutt threw cold water on all this, and, indeed, every lawyer knows that "emotional" insanity is merely another name for the heat of passion which leads to the murder, and for giving way to which we hang murderers. Nevertheless the jury brought in a verdict of not guilty on the ground of insanity. The next day the judge summoned the experts again and bade them closely examine Nutt once more and pass upon his mental condition. Cheerfully they went to work, just as if they had never heard of the case, and soon came back and solemnly declared that the "mentality" of Nutt was all that need be desired. It is really the doctors who have set Nutt at liberty. We must say that such proceedings as these reveal a very extraordinary state of mind among "experts" as to their own professional responsibility. Juries acquit guilty criminals continually, but then a jury is often an ignorant, untrained body, governed by passion and prejudice. An ordinary acquittal against evidence is a very different thing from members of a learned profession furnishing a professional basis for a glaring burlesque of law and justice. The effect of this whole expert business is heightened when we remember that experts generally testify for pay, so that their performances would, one would think, be closely watched by their own profession to see that they do not bring it into disgrace. The whole medical profession suffers now from every murder trial, particularly that branch of it which is devoted to mental disease. Is there no way in which it can discipline its experts or curb their excesses?

Mr. Chalk, of Charlotte, N. C., had an unpleasant experience a few days ago with Mr. Butt, of the same place. This is how it was. Mr. Chalk is suing the Traders' National Bank for $8,000, before Messrs. Butt and Brenzier, as referees of the court, the bank having in some manner failed. Now, pending these proceedings Mr. Chalk injudiciously wrote a letter to the *Gastonia Gazette*, making the charge, among others, that Mr. Butt had borrowed $8,500 from the bank, "in order to reduce the capital stock." Under these peculiar circumstances, there was nothing left for Mr. Butt to do but wait upon Mr. Chalk with a cowhide, which he did. He asked for a retraction, but this Mr. Chalk could not give, because the books, he said, showed that the charge was true. Thereupon Mr. Butt proceeded to discharge the very painful duty of striking him over the head with the cowhide. Now, in times not very remote, Mr. Chalk would have drawn a pistol and begun firing at Mr. Butt, but this seems to be no longer necessary. He simply opened the window, and began uttering a cry which has probably never before been heard in a Southern town under like circumstances, and which speedily aroused the whole neighborhood, the cry of "Police, police!" He continued to cry "police" as long as Mr. Butt continued to strike him, and then was silent. The police did not come; but this first great Southern recognition of the supremacy of the law was none the less complete. Mr. McAden, the assignee of the bank, against whom Mr. Chalk had made similar charges, hearing that Mr. Chalk could be conveniently and safely cowhided, at once started for his office with his cowhide, but was met at the door by Mr. Pittman, who also began shouting "Police," whereupon Mr. McAden retired. May we not be seeing in these two little incidents the dawning at the South of a better day, in which this single word "police" will make knives and shot-guns harmless ?

Sympathy for the crimes of "boys," merely on account of their tender years, is beginning to die out in the West. In Indiana two young criminals have just been hanged for the murder of a companion, after a fruitless attempt to get them pardoned. The notion that a murderer is entitled to peculiar sympathy because he falls short of having attained the age of legal majority by two or three years is really fallacious. A boy of eighteen, who has been allowed to run wild ever since he was able to run at all, is as dangerous a creature, especially if he goes armed, as he so often seems to do, as if he were nineteen, twenty, twenty-one, or twenty-five. Almost all the great habitual criminals of the past began their careers of crime when very young. The only difference is that they generally began with some minor crime, like robbing the till of the store in which they were employed, or stealing money out of their mother's pockets. Our boys appear to prefer to go the "whole animal" at once, and set up as murderers as soon as they begin at all.

The foreign demand for our breadstuffs, provisions, cotton, petroleum, etc., is not active, and the total export of these items since December 1st has been from $16,000,000 to $17,000,000 less than during the same period last year. This has caused a continued scarcity of foreign exchange, and the rates for sterling in New York have advanced from $4.85 for demand bills about January 1st to $4.88¼, which is within one cent on the pound of the gold-exporting price. Complaints of dull trade are general throughout the country. Further reductions of wages have occurred in two notable instances during the past week, namely, by the Waltham Watch Company and the Fall River Print Manufacturers. Mercantile credit, on the other hand, is now generally good throughout the country. Failures have greatly diminished in the last few weeks, and if the general condition of prices and the general attitude of capital are not gratifying, they are at least safe, and any change is likely to be for the better.

The Austrian Government as well as the Russian seems likely to have to contend with the Nihilists, who are apparently showing their old force and activity in Russia. The successful murder of Col. Sudeikin at St. Petersburg is the most clever piece of work they have yet done. He had risen into power and favor with the Court altogether through the skill with which he hunted the Nihilists down and frustrated their plots, and had escaped them a score of times. They caught him at last in actual consultation with his own most trusted employees, who seem to have been in the Nihilist ranks. Apparently he pushed the rule "set a thief to catch a thief" a little too far, for he accepted the services of a captured and ostensibly converted conspirator, and relied on his gratitude to insure his fidelity. This man lured him to his doom. Colonel Sudeikin's death is said to have again thrown the Court into a panic, for it shows that there is no absolute security anywhere. The propagandism seems now to have reached Vienna, where an active detective has been shot down in the street by a murderer, who is described as elegant and refined in exterior, but whom nobody knows, and who refuses to give his name or tell anything about himself, except that he is the agent of a Socialist Executive Committee.

Chinese Gordon, who is by far the best authority in everything relating to the Sudan, puts an end, in a talk with the correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, to a great deal of fiddle-faddle about the religious character of the Mahdi's movement:

"That the people were justified in rebelling, nobody who knows the treatment to which they were subjected will attempt to deny. Their cries were absolutely unheeded at Cairo. In despair they had recourse to the only method by which they could make their wrongs known; and, on the same principle that Absalom fired the corn of Joab, so they rallied round the Mahdi, who exorted them to revolt against the Turkish yoke. I am convinced that it is an entire mistake to regard the Mahdi as in any sense a religious leader; he personifies popular discontent. All the Sudanese are potential Mahdis, just as all the Egyptians are potential Arabis. The movement is not religious, but an outbreak of despair. Three times over I warned the late Khedive that it would be impossible to govern the Sudan on the old system after my appointment to the Governor-Generalship."

The Mahdi's brother-in-law, who has been captured and is now in Cairo, fully confirms this. He denies that the Mahdi has assumed any religious apostolate. He is, he says, "merely defending his country against exorbitant taxation and the suppression of the slave trade, which two causes are," he says, "reducing the Sudan to beggary." Of course there is much probability that if the Mahdi's rebellion is allowed to succeed, it will spread throughout Arabia, but it will spread simply as a rebellion against Turkish rule in all forms, whether plain Turkish or Egyptian-Turkish. This has long been the curse of the Arabs, as well as other races, and they are doubtless ready to rise against it under the standard of any true believer who shows that he can win battles.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 23, to TUESDAY, January 29, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate on Wednesday Senator Sherman (Rep., Ohio) offered a long preamble and resolution on the Danville, Va., and Copiah County, Mississippi, outrages. The preamble recites the details of the outrages, showing that they were the result of systematic efforts to intimidate the negro race from voting the Republican ticket. The resolution is that the Committee on Privileges and Elections inquire into all the circumstances of the outrages, and into the condition of the constitutional rights and securities of the people of Virginia and Mississippi, and that it report by bill or otherwise, as soon as may be; and that it have the power to send for persons and papers, and to sit during the sittings of the Senate.

The Democratic United States Senators, in a caucus on Monday afternoon, voted to discourage any violent sectional debate so far as possible, on the Sherman resolution. Consequently, when the latter came before the Senate on Tuesday, after Mr. Sherman had made a temperate speech, and Mr. Mahone had argued that the Danville outrage was the result of the direct action of the Bourbons, there were no replies from the Democrats. The resolution was put to vote, and carried by a party majority.

The Senate adopted a resolution on Wednesday asking Attorney-General Brewster for all facts relating to the reasonableness of the charges of the Government's counsel in the Star route case, and his reason for paying them. On Thursday a resolution was adopted to give each Senator, not a chairman of a committee, a clerk at $6 per day.

Mr. Hoar's bill to provide against a possible vacancy of the Presidential office passed the Senate on Friday. In case there is no President or Vice-President it vests the office, in order, in the Secretaries of State, the Treasury, War, the Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Navy and Interior.

The Greely relief resolution, passed by the House, was also passed by the Senate on Thursday, after it had been amended so that the men who are to form the relief party shall be volunteers.

The Senate Finance Committee on Thursday agreed to report the McPherson bill to provide for the issue of circulating notes to national banking associations. The bill provides that "upon a deposit of any United States bonds bearing interest, in the manner required by law, any national banking association making the same shall be entitled to receive from the Comptroller of the Currency circulating notes of different denominations, in blank, registered and countersigned as provided by law, not exceeding in amount the par value of the bonds deposited: Provided, That at no time shall the total amount of such notes issued to any such association exceed the amount at such time actually paid in of its capital stock." The Republicans of the Committee were surprised at this action, as it had been agreed to report both the Aldrich and Sherman bills, but when it came to a vote Mr. Sherman's bill was amended with the substantial features of the Aldrich bill. This was distasteful to him, and on the final vote he joined with the Democrats of the Committee in recommending the McPherson bill. The result will be that all three will come up for discussion in the Senate, and the disagreement will be there fought out.

The Senate Committee on Appropriations has ordered a favorable report on the House bill making an appropriation to pay the tobacco-tax rebate.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday, a resolution of thanks was passed to the officers and crew of the revenue steamer *Dexter*, and the men who manned the Gay Head lifeboat, for their brave conduct in rescuing the survivors of the wreck of the steamer *City of Columbus*, and especially to Lieutenant Rhodes, who twice swam to the steamer and rescued the two men who were clinging to the rigging. The debate on the Fitz-John Porter Bill proceeded on Friday and Saturday.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs is considering the advisability of a Canadian reciprocity treaty. The House Committee on Agriculture has decided to report favorably on the bill to make the Bureau of Agriculture a distinct department and to give its head a seat in the Cabinet.

Papers given to the House Committee on Department of Justice Expenditures show that Eli H. Murray, now Governor of Utah, was guilty of great irregularities when United States Marshal of Kentucky, from 1869 to 1876. The fee bills and emolument returns were systematically swelled by charging fictitious expenses, fictitious fees, constructive mileage, and also by beginning vexatious and boundless criminal proceedings for the purpose of making fees. He was compelled to resign under a threat of exposure, but had influence enough to secure the Utah Governorship. Mr. Murray has telegraphed an absolute denial of all these charges, and asserts his willingness to appear before the committee.

Congressman E. W. M. Mackey, of South Carolina, died in Washington on Monday. The Senate and House adjourned out of respect to his memory.

United States Senator Allison was reëlected by the Iowa Legislature on Wednesday.

John C. New, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, has resigned his position, it is believed because of disagreement with Mr. Folger.

President Arthur was given a grand reception by the Union League Club of this city on Wednesday evening. Nearly 2,000 people were present.

The annual report of the Government Directors of the Union Pacific Railway Company has been transmitted to the Secretary of the Interior. It expresses confidence in the future of the road, and in its ultimate ability to meet all its obligations to the Government. It adds that the road-bed, track, buildings and equipment of the road are all in excellent condition, and kept well up to the highest standard of the best roads in the country. The feeding lines are bringing each year additional traffic to the main line.

General Grant has written a letter denying that he has any private interest to be fostered by the ratification of the Mexican treaty. He adds: "My whole interest is in developing those relations which, I believe, ought to exist between contiguous countries, and particularly those of like institutions; and, in the case of Mexico, I think it more important because of her great undeveloped resources, which must make her soon a commercial state of very great importance." The friends of the treaty now express confidence that it will be ultimately ratified.

General Sherman positively asserts that he will not under any circumstances accept a nomination for the Presidency. He looks forward to a life of comfort, ease, and freedom from worry of any kind.

The National Committee of the Prohibition Home Protection party has issued a call for a national convention, to be held in Pittsburgh, Pa., on Wednesday, May 21, to nominate candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States.

The Virginia Senate, by a party vote of 23 to 10, passed on Thursday a resolution asking Senator Mahone to resign.

John Letcher, ex-Governor of Virginia, and a member of several Congresses from that State, died at his home in Lexington on Saturday, after a long illness. He was elected Governor of the State in 1859, and held office until the second year of the war.

Mr. Judah P. Benjamin, late of the Southern Confederacy, emphatically denies that he ever wrote a letter, which has recently been attributed to him, in which he, in effect, proposed that the people of the South should renew allegiance to Great Britain.

At Albany on Wednesday a favorable report was made from the Assembly Committee on Cities on the Roosevelt bill, taking from the Board of Aldermen of New York city the power of confirming the Mayor's nominations.

The State Assessors submitted their report to the Legislature on Wednesday. They say that in not one of twenty-seven counties visited does a uniform assessment prevail, and only in the cities of Albany, Oswego, and Elmira. In some counties the assessment is 30 per cent. of the real value, and in others only 18 or 20 per cent. Ingenuity has been taxed to distort the taxation laws. They recommend an income tax on all incomes above $10,000 per annum.

The annual report of the State Board of Charities was presented on Thursday. The value of property in charge of the Board is $43,303,478, of which $7,520,933 is personal estate. The receipts of the fiscal year ended September 30th, 1883, were $10,772,269; expenditures, $9,983,037; number of persons under care October 1st, 52,804. There were 11,343 insane persons in the various institutions of the State on October 1st.

A warm debate took place in the Assembly on Thursday, on a constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors. Mr. Olin, who is a Methodist clergyman, made an earnest appeal in behalf of the submission of the question to the people. Mr. Roosevelt opposed the proposition. It was utterly idle to hope, he said, for the enforcement of a law when nineteen-twentieths of the people are against its enforcement. No vote was reached.

A special Board of Commissioners, appointed by Mayor Edson to select and locate lands for public parks in and in the neighborhood of the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth Wards of New York city, has presented to the Legislature a report of 200 printed pages, with a bill for carrying out the recommendations, providing for the purchase and ornamentation of several large tracts of land in that district.

On Saturday afternoon a syndicate of capitalists in this city and Philadelphia bought 90,000 shares of the treasury stocks of the Oregon and Transcontinental Company. The stock is to be held for investment and will not be thrown on the market. The block is made up of 30,000 shares each of Oregon Railway and Navigation, Northern Pacific preferred, and Northern Pacific common stock. The transaction provides for the immediate obligations of the Transcontinental Company, which amounted to less than $4,000,000. The syndicate includes Jay Gould, Russell Sage, and Work, Strong & Co. A. J. Drexel of Philadelphia takes an interest personally, and part of the stock is also taken by Drexel, Morgan & Co., and the Philadelphia house.

The Reading Railroad shareholders' vote on the question of a dividend resulted on Monday as follows: In favor, 193,282 shares, opposed 195,447. Of those voting against the resolution, 28,925 voted in favor of a dividend on the preferred stock, making 222,207 for such a dividend and 166,522 against it.

Frederick Douglass was married in Washington on Thursday evening to Miss Helen M. Pitts, a white woman, formerly of Avon-

N. Y. The first wife of Mr. Douglass, who was a colored woman, died about a year ago. The bride is about forty-five years of age, and was employed as a copyist in his office.

The Hackensack, N. J., Cemetery Company recently refused to permit a much respected colored man to be buried in their grounds. Governor Abbett sent a special message to the State Legislature on Monday recommending the passage of a law which shall make such a refusal, based on color, a criminal offence, with such penalty as shall prevent a recurrence of such an act.

James Nutt was on Wednesday examined by a medical commission in Pittsburgh, Pa., and declared perfectly sane at the present time. He was then released, and met with a lively popular reception.

More than fifty lives were lost by an explosion of fire-damp at the Crested Butte coal mine, Gunnison County, Col., on Thursday.

Commodore Francis B. Ellison, one of the oldest officers in the United States navy, died on Friday in Boston. He was born in 1803, and was commissioned in 1819.

FOREIGN.

Sir Charles Dilke, President of the Local Government Board, in a recent speech declared that the English Government had great confidence in General "Chinese" Gordon's advice. He said that General Gordon had agreed with the Government upon the expediency of the proposed evacuation of the provinces of Kordofan and Darfur, and the interior of the Sudan. England, he said, has no interest in maintaining Egyptian domination throughout the Sudan, but would maintain that domination upon the Red Sea coast, especially with a view to prevent the slave trade.

General Gordon arrived at Port Said on Wednesday, and proceeded immediately to Cairo. On Friday morning he visited the Khedive, and held a conference with Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Minister, Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Prime Minister, and General Evelyn Wood, Commander of the English troops in Egypt. The result was that the Khedive appointed General Gordon Governor of the Sudan, with full powers. General Gordon shares fully Sir Evelyn Baring's views in regard to the necessity of a withdrawal from Khartum.

Colonel Coetlogon, Commander at Khartum, has written that there is food enough there to last six thousand men five months, and that the grain supplies are coming in as usual.

Sheikh Obede has summoned Khartum to surrender in order to avoid bloodshed. The town is quiet, but the soldiers are clamoring for their pay. The arrival of General Gordon is anxiously awaited.

The steamers recently sent to clear the Blue Nile have failed of their purpose. El Mahdi left El Obeid about ten days ago. His destination is unknown. He has 37,000 men and plenty of ammunition and Krupp guns.

At a council of war in Cairo on Saturday it was decided to send a brigade of Bashi-bazouks, 2,000 strong, under English officers, to Upper Egypt to support General Gordon, and that Khartum should be held until the arrival of General Gordon, and that all the troops in the Sudan should be concentrated at Khartum. This will give General Gordon 17,000 troops. General Gordon, his military secretary, Lieutenant-Colonel Stewart, and the new Sultan of Darfur started for Khartum on Saturday evening. General Gordon has had £104,000 placed at his disposal for military purposes. The Egyptian Government has borrowed £950,000 from Baron Rothschild for six months at six per cent.

The London *Times*, in a leading article on Tuesday, said the fact that Baron Rothschild had lent the Khedive nearly a million pounds implied the confidence of the financiers that England had taken Egypt in hand and would see her safely through her troubles. England cannot retire now without exposing Egypt to a worse condition of anarchy than that which prevailed under Arabi Pasha.

A Hong Kong despatch points out that the French occupation of Chusan, Formosa, or Hainan would amount to a *casus belli* with England, as, according to the treaty of 1846, it was stipulated that upon the evacuation of Chusan by the British that island should never be ceded to any other foreign Power.

It is not expected that the attack on Bacninh will be made before the beginning of March, as the French are waiting for reinforcements. The Chinese at Canton seem less disposed for war. A despatch from Admiral Courbet at Hanoi, dated January 19, reports that he had established a blockade, which would be maintained throughout Tonquin, to prevent the entrance into the country of all articles contraband of war; but ample facilities would be afforded for legitimate trade. All was quiet at Sontay. The French expedition against the insurgents in the south has been successful.

Placards proclaiming hostility to foreigners have been posted throughout Hoihow, the northern city of the island of Hainan, where a large body of Chinese troops were landed on January 16. A mob gathered and made an attack upon a foreigner, who took refuge in the British Consulate. The Chinese authorities have taken precautions to prevent a recurrence of such demonstrations.

The American Presbyterian and the Roman Catholic Mission establishments in Canton, China, were wrecked by a native mob on December 16. No lives were taken.

A book containing some bitter articles upon Berlin society, which recently appeared in the *Nouvelle Revue* of Paris, has been seized in Berlin by the authorities. The articles are grossly libellous of the Emperor William, the Imperial family, and the German Ministry. The work has created great irritation at the German Court.

In a debate on the labor question in the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday, M. Jules Ferry, the Prime Minister, said he recognized the gravity of the labor crisis in Paris. It would be difficult, he thought, to remedy it. The excess of building had produced a crisis in the building trade. It would be imprudent to open new building yards. The Government was considering a bill to open a credit for agriculturists. The crisis was not general, but was confined to Paris. He opposed any giving of alms by the Chamber.

Edmund About, the novelist, has been elected a member of the French Academy.

A great storm raged in Great Britain and France on Saturday and Sunday. Much damage was done in London, and many persons were injured. Around Paris, railway and telephone communications were severed in all directions.

Mr. Moody, the evangelist, began his mission at Stratford le-Bow, England, on Wednesday. Six thousand people were present, notwithstanding a great storm.

A number of enthusiastic Nationalist meetings were held in Ireland on Sunday.

A large and enthusiastic meeting of Loyalists was held in Dublin on Thursday.

Henry George's pamphlet, 'Social Problems,' which has just been published in London, attracts much hostile criticism.

A detective named Bloch, while going to his home in Floridsdorf, Austria, on Thursday, was shot dead. The assassin, who was apparently a workingman, endeavored to make his escape, but was captured. He had in his possession a dynamite bomb and several murderous weapons. It is believed that he is a socialist.

In the Lower House of the Austrian Parliament the debate upon a motion declaring the German to be the state language has begun and excites great interest.

It is proposed to create a Ministry of Imperial Police in St. Petersburg which shall deal especially with internal politics.

All female medical students in St. Petersburg, a class from which many Nihilists have been enlisted, are now compelled to reside in a house provided by the authorities, and to be at home before 9 o'clock in the evening.

Permission to erect a monument to Luther at Riga has been refused by the Russian authorities.

At a meeting of Senators and Deputies of the Spanish Possibilist party in Madrid on Monday night, at which Castelar presided, it was resolved to advise the party to vote at the general elections; but, if the policy of the Government should be that of Señor Canovas del Castillo, who recently in the Cortez proclaimed the Republican propaganda illegal, the Possibilists, while they would accept the situation with regret, refused to be answerable for what might result.

Notwithstanding the recent change in the Ministry at Madrid, it is asserted in Berlin that Germany still favors Spain's ambition to rank among the great Powers by the conversion of the Spanish Legation at Berlin, and of the German Legation at Madrid, into embassies; but Germany will await an initiative from Madrid in the matter.

Marshal Serrano, the Spanish Ambassador at Paris, tendered his resignation on Friday. He will be succeeded by Señor Manuel Silvela. The Canovas Ministry is very unpopular in Paris.

Herr Lasker's body arrived at Bremerhaven on Friday, and was received with great honors. Eulogies were pronounced upon the character of the deceased Liberal. The body arrived at Berlin that night, and on Saturday evening was solemnly conveyed to the synagogue. On Monday the public funeral services took place before a distinguished audience. Dr. Friedrich Kapp pronounced the oration. A great procession followed the body to the tomb.

Professor Klinkerfüs, the German astronomer, shot himself in the observatory at Göttingen on Monday.

The Legislative Council at Calcutta, which has had the matter under debate, has passed the Ilbert bill so amended that every European prisoner will have the option of a trial before a native or a European judge or magistrate.

The Dutch expedition sent to the relief of the captured crew of the British steamer, *Nisero*, in Sumatra, had several severe engagements with the forces of the Rajah of Tenom. They were unsuccessful, however, in getting the captives, and it is feared the latter have been murdered.

Advices from Madagascar assert that the new Queen, Ranavalona III., was crowned on the 22d of November. The Queen and Premier made speeches in which they declared that they would not surrender an inch of the country to the French.

President Iglesias is not supported with much warmth in Peru, and there are hopeless political divisions. Caceres continues at the head of a band of murderous Indians in the interior.

The so-called Board of Haytian Revolutionists is still in existence in Kingston, Jamaica, but without head or resources.

From a Canadian Parliamentary return it appears that the total Dominion revenue from July 1, 1882, to January 20, 1883, was $19,981,368, and for the same period in 1883 and 1884 $17,869,137—a decrease of $2,112,231. The expenditures for the first-named period were $15,421,657, and for the second $16,406,869—an increase of $985,212.

CONGRESS AND BUSINESS.

News of depression in trade comes from nearly every part of the country. Some factories are suspending work altogether; others are running on half time. In nearly all the trades we hear of reduction of wages, or of lockouts or strikes. Hardly any manufacturers can be said to be making money. They are at most just holding their own, and keeping their work-people together. There is, naturally, much variety of opinion as to the remoter cause of all this trouble. Everybody is of course agreed that the proximate cause is overproduction; but saying that we are suffering from overproduction is hardly more helpful as explanation than saying that a man is sick because he is not well. Overproduction is the sign and accompaniment of all commercial depression. At such seasons, the manufacturers and dealers all suffer from the same cause—namely, the possession of more goods than there is any demand for. The real cause, the *causa causans*, of commercial depression, in so far as it has any cause outside the constitution of the human mind, must be sought further back. In other words, if we wish to know why goods are too plentiful, we must find out why buyers are so scarce.

That our tariff legislation has much to do with making buyers scarce here everybody admits. The Protectionists admit it because they always argue that if we desire to bring good times back, we must make the tariff higher. The Free-Traders admit it, because they always argue that if we wish to bring back good times we must make the tariff lower. In fact, every business man who is consulted about the best means of bringing the existing depression to an end, desires change of some kind in the tariff. Congress met, under the influence of this condition of public feeling, two months ago. During the canvass for the Speakership, all the members were full of the tariff. It was acknowledged in both houses to be the topic of the day. The Republicans maintained that it was going to kill the Democrats at the Presidential election. The Democrats acknowledged, on all sides, that any mistake about it would be very serious for them, and that they could not possibly get out of the difficulty by letting it alone. One might have expected, therefore, that by this time there would have been a great deal of discussion of the tariff, both in House and in Senate, and that a report on it from one if not two committees would have been made, and that Congress would be well advanced towards a final conclusion as to what had better be done about it; and that in order to make way for it, all or nearly all other business would have been laid aside. Nothing of the kind has happened. The majority in the House has not yet ascertained what it thinks about the tariff. In the Senate there is no sign of any particular interest in the subject, and no preparation for any discussion of it.

The Senate has, however, made preparations for one elaborate discussion, the subject of which is to be outrages on negroes and white Republicans at the South. We need hardly say that no legislation is expected or can come of this discussion, and that there is nothing new in the situation at the South to call for it. Outrages on negroes are not increasing. They are diminishing. There is not the smallest sign that the negroes are exposed to anything in the way of violence in that region to which white men, who make themselves in any way obnoxious to the prevailing local sentiment on any subject, are not exposed We make a practice of commenting in these columns from week to week on what we consider typical cases of Southern violence. They are instructive as showing that Southern lawlessness and readiness to shed blood are not confined to any one class of the community, are not directed exclusively against persons of any particular race, or creed, or party, or social grade, and cannot be cured by anything Congress can do. They are, in short, the results of social disease and not of political disturbance. They are of long standing, too. To explain their origin would be to write a history of slave society. To make them the subject of Congressional debate at this juncture, therefore, is not only an expression of contempt for the popular intelligence, and will certainly be punished as such, but is a lamentable waste of time which ought to be devoted to the extrication of the business of the country from the present slough of despond.

Senator Sherman's resolution of inquiry into the circumstances of the Danville and Copiah riots is generally regarded as the first move in a combined Republican attempt to revive the "sectional issue" for use in the approaching Presidential campaign. It furnishes wide scope for a supply of material. It not only calls for an investigation of the riots mentioned, but an inquiry into the "condition of the constitutional rights and securities of the people of Virginia and Mississippi." Its mere introduction excited an acrimonious debate in the Senate, in which Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Lamar used language which some of the more imaginative of the correspondents believed would lead to either blows or a duel. A heated political debate is expected, in which the whole Southern question will be revived, and everything which can be construed as an "outrage" will be put in shape for campaign use. Senator Lamar has written a letter in which he declares his readiness to enter upon the debate, and avows his belief that the "paramount issue before the country is still the reform of the National Government from its sectional usurpation and corruption." This letter is greeted with delight by the Republicans as furnishing them precisely the opportunity which they most earnestly desire. The accumulation of material has thus been begun, and the search for it is eager in all directions. Mr. Cox succeeded the other day in having the House pass a bill for the repeal of the "iron-clad" oath. This bill was the precise measure which was reported favorably to the House in 1877 by Mr. Frye, and passed unanimously at that time. It has also been strongly advocated by Senator Edmunds. When it came up in the House this year there was no outspoken opposition to it, except from Mr. Boutelle, a new Republican Congressman from Maine, who made so absurd a sectional speech against it that the House fairly howled him into silence. Mr. Cox made a speech in its defence which was entirely sensible, with the exception of a few lurid passages. In one of these he said: "Let us bridge over the abysses of civil strife as the Romans did, with a bridge of gold." This was greeted with applause, and was supposed at the time to be a harmless burst of eloquence. Now the discovery is made that the applause came mainly from the representatives of the solid South, and that it was really an appeal for the payment of "hundreds of millions of Rebel claims."

Unless the Democrats pluck up sufficient courage to avow their convictions on the tariff, and force a discussion of that issue, we are likely, therefore, to have another "Southern outrage" campaign, with all its foolish revelations and all its harmful influences. The Southern Senators are not thus far responsible for this folly, but if they take part in the discussion of Mr. Sherman's resolutions they will make themselves responsible. They have no more right to spend the time of the Senate in answering this buncombe than its authors in producing it. They know perfectly well what it is meant for, and that it cannot be made to produce the desired effect without their assistance. Consequently, in answering back, they will make themselves participants in what must, in the existing condition of the country, be an almost criminal misuse of legislative powers and privileges.

THE NEW ANTI-MORMON BILL.

The new bill against the Mormons, reported by Mr. Hoar from the Senate Judiciary Committee, has some features which seem much more practical than those of its predecessors. The lawful husband or wife, for instance, is not only made a competent witness, in any prosecution for bigamy, but is to be compelled to testify. Prosecutions for adultery, too, are to be begun, not simply on the complaint of the injured husband or wife, but on anybody's complaint, like prosecutions for any other crimes. The bill provides, too, for the certification of marriages in the Territories, and for the compulsory inspection by an officer of the United States of all marriage records kept by any person exercising civil or ecclesiastical functions. Female suffrage is to be abolished, though against this Senator Hoar, as in duty bound, enters his pious protest. All property accumulated by religious or charitable corporations beyond the amount limited by the act of 1862 ($50,000) is to be forfeited. A Returning Board of five persons is to be created to take charge of elections and count the votes, but no person is to be disfranchised on account of his opinions about bigamy or polygamy. All this is fairly in the line of legitimate prevention and punishment.

But when we come to the sections which deal with the Mormon Church as a corporation, we meet with some strange features. The Mormons have a corporation called the Perpetual Emigrating Fund Company, which is, we believe, devoted to the work of making converts in Europe and bringing them

over to this country. There is nothing in the missionary work of the Mormon Church to which the United States Government can take exception on the score of the error or absurdity of the doctrines taught, any more than in the missionary work of Catholics, or Spiritualists, or Shakers, unless it can be shown that the converts are to engage on their arrival here in the violation of United States laws. But can this be shown, or has it ever been shown? It is not a violation of United States laws to believe polygamy to be of divine institution, any more than to believe with the Shakers that all marriage is sinful. The violation of the law consists not in thinking that a man may have two wives, but in having them. The present bill expressly provides that no one shall be disfranchised in the Territory on account of his opinions about polygamy. The objection, then, to the Emigration Company is that it brings people to Utah who may possibly, after they get there, commit adultery under the influence of a religious delusion. But is this sufficient ground for the dissolution of a religious corporation by act of Congress? Can Congress do anything of the kind, considering that "the Constitution of the United States, and all laws of the United States, not locally inapplicable," were, in 1850, solemnly declared to be in full force and effect in Utah, as in all other Territories?

More remarkable still is the twelfth section, which provides not that the Mormon Church Corporation shall be abolished, but that the management of it shall be taken out of the hands of the members of it, and committed to fourteen trustees to be appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, who shall hold office for two years, and report annually to the Secretary of the Interior, as "to the property, business affairs, and operations of the said corporation." Now, we know that corporations which violate their charter or abuse their franchise may be wound up on the proper presentation of the facts to a court of justice by a legal officer of the Government, and their property be distributed in such manner as the law or common justice may require. We are, too, all familiar with legislation intended, on grounds of public policy, to restrict the accumulation of property by ecclesiastical corporations in general. But we cannot recall any case before this in which it was gravely proposed to punish a corporation for any offence by putting its property into the exclusive control of Government trustees, with directions to continue the business; or to punish a particular ecclesiastical corporation for being too powerful or teaching erroneous doctrines, by committing its affairs to the hands of Government officers who derided or loathed the beliefs of its members. Moreover we do not believe, and shall not believe until the Supreme Court has said it, that any such expedient can be resorted to for any purpose whatever by the Legislature of the United States. It would be a monstrous and dangerous precedent.

Of the practical objections to giving such a huge financial plum as the management of the Mormon Church funds to fourteen trustees appointed by the President and Senate, we need hardly speak. Every one knows the kind of politicians who would seek and get these trusteeships. We see them now starting for Washington with their grip-sacks, after the failure of some home speculation, or after losing their seats in Congress—their natural desire to "handle" other people's funds intensified by their horror of polygamy in all its forms, and their passionate love of domestic purity. The pecuniary scandals of politics during the past twenty years have been great and dreadful, but they would probably all put together be a mere trifle compared to a five years' administration of Mormon Church property by the kind of men to whom we give Territorial appointments.

THE RAILROADS IN CONGRESS.

A VIGOROUS attempt is evidently to be made this winter to settle the inter-State commerce question, or, in other words, to solve what is called the transportation problem. The attempt is, on its face, an important one. According to the census returns, the value of railroad property in the United States is $5,536,000,000, or more than half as much as the value of all the farm property ($10,197,000,000). The bulk of this, it must be remembered, is owned, not by the few dozen "monopolists" we hear so much about in connection with the management, but by hundreds of thousands of plain people who put their savings into railroad bonds or stocks, as a security which rests upon the sure foundation of the general prosperity and stability of the country. The $5,536,000,000 is the property of hard-working, honest men and women, or their families, scattered all over the country, who depend upon it for their livelihood. Besides these, it represents also an immense body of hard-worked employees of all descriptions—not only salaried men, but a vast host of laborers whose day's wages depend upon the system.

It is rather startling, therefore, to learn that the House Committee on Commerce has already before it no less than thirteen bills which undertake to effect changes of the most radical sort in the management of all this property—not merely to determine what the profits of the whole railway system of the country shall be, not merely to revise the railroad tariffs, but to introduce new principles into railroad business, the exact opposite of those which now govern it, or which privately-owned railroads in any part of the world act upon. This novel sort of regulation of business (such as no one has dreamed of introducing in any other branch) is to be undertaken, too, not by a body of men who have made a study of it, but by a fluctuating body like Congress, changing in composition and in opinion, hardly a single member of which is chosen for the purpose of carrying into effect any well-defined theory of railroad supervision.

The result of this is that in the thirteen measures now before Congress, there is hardly a single feature of railroad management as it exists that is not violently and unthinkingly attacked, and the sensible recommendations scattered through the bills—for among so many there must be some sense—are so mixed up with ridiculous or dangerous suggestions that it is very difficult to separate them. Mr. Green, Vice-President of the Pennsylvania Railroad, in the course of an argument before the Committee, has called the attention of the members, however, to the important fact that the bills cover two entirely distinct sorts of legislation, one providing for commissions, the other providing for the direct regulation of rates, and the preventing of drawbacks and pools.

It is the latter class which must be characterized as a direct menace not only to the whole body of railroad property, but to all property in the country. The idea of "fixing rates," or of determining for what price railroads shall provide transportation, means nothing more nor less than that the person or persons who fix them shall "run" the railroads. The Grangers tried this experiment several years ago in the West, and they had everything in their favor, from the control of the local legislatures up to a decision of the Supreme Court at Washington that all States had the abstract right to determine the terms and conditions on which common carriers or similar agents should carry on their business. But the Grangers never succeeded in fixing rates, for though they published schedules, they could never enforce their rates without long legal proceedings in each case; and as they could not take possession of the roads and run them, they gave up the task in some cases, and in others, we believe, simply adopted the railroad rates, called them their own, and "pointed with pride" to them as the result of the movement.

The legislation now proposed is all based on the clause of the Constitution which regulates commerce between the States. Assuming that under this clause Congress has authority to fix the rates charged by roads chartered by the several States, the new Grangers seem to think that they get over all the difficulties which brought their first experiment to grief, because they now obliterate State lines. Therefore we find in one of the most ambitious of the bills before us (that introduced by Mr. McCoid) the primitive Granger idea of upsetting the whole system of railway traffic and introducing the favorite principle of equality, without regard to competition or even difference in actual cost of transportation. The following is the principle as stated in his own language:

"SEC. 3. That said rates, fees, and charges shall be divided and fixed as follows: A uniform, impartial charge for loading, unloading, siding, switching, and a fixed mileage rate for hauling per car, whether the cars shall be one or more cars for each shipper. And rates and charges for less than a car-load shall also be uniform and impartial."

Further, and as an illustration of the beautiful simplicity of the reforms which this thoughtful man proposes to introduce, consider the following:

"SEC. 4. That in the operation of railways among the States the cardinal legal principle in construction of the legality of the acts or omissions of said companies shall be whether in the several acts of the companies said railways are being operated impartially for corporate profit from honest public service. And any acts, contracts, consolidations, discriminations, drawbacks, extortions, poolings, rebates, scales, or failures to render impartial

facilities to connecting lines, in violation of said principle, shall be against public policy and be in violation of this act."

The next section makes any violation of the above a crime punishable by fine. We wonder what the courts would make of all this. What are "impartial facilities"?

There is no reason in the world why a United States Commission should not be created with full powers to make public all facts in connection with the railroad system of the country, and to expose unjust discrimination and extortion, and punish it. The experience of the State Commissions shows that this is needed; for the inter-State routes go beyond the jurisdiction of local commissions, and consequently these bodies cannot perform any effective service with regard to them. This ought to be separated from all attempts to lower the value of the vast aggregate of property represented by the railroads, by the application of communistic theories as to rates, and we are glad to see that the distinction was pointed out by a railroad man to the Committee. What the railroad men ought to do is to help enlighten the public, not simply to defeat hostile legislation.

STATE TAXATION.

THE report of the New York State Assessors contains the now old complaint, which comes up yearly from all the States, about the difficulty of taxing personal property. The assessed value of real estate for 1883, in spite of many imperfections in the mode of valuation, has increased by $124,556,861 from 1882, to $2,557,218,240, while the assessed value of personal estate has within the same period decreased by $35,982,114. More remarkable still, between 1865 and 1882 the real property of the State, judging by the Assessors' valuation, increased $1,398,890,800, while personal property, judged in the same way, apparently decreased $77,500,000. The conclusion the Assessors draw from all this is that the land of the State is growing more valuable through the growth of the State in wealth and population, and that the tax collector cannot get at the personal property because the laws are defective. They propose, therefore, new contrivances for getting at personal property, and among others an income tax on all incomes over $10,000.

This is really a genuine case of kicking against the pricks. It is nearly twelve years since the Hoffman Commission in this State pointed out that the true road of escape from the difficulties of direct taxation, with which all American States have to contend, lay in putting the burdens on the one kind of property which cannot be concealed or carried away or dispensed with. The experience of every State since then, we venture to say, goes to corroborate this view. From every one of them there comes a perennial wail about the difficulty of making people pay taxes on personal property. In some, as in this State, the attempt to reach personal property has been almost abandoned, for this is what an apparent decrease of $77,500,000 in the valuation during the last twenty years really means. In others, efforts have been made to make the taxing machinery more effective by giving the State officers increased powers of inquisition into people's private affairs. In some States this inquisition has become a potent engine of social demoralization. It has, on the one hand, stimulated and fostered the habit of prying and espionage into your neighbor's affairs, which is one of the curses of all small communities, and it has, on the other, greatly strengthened and multiplied the temptations to commit perjury. Every turn of the screw which is intended to force men to confess about their possessions in order that they may be taxed, increases the number of those who get off by lying or evasion. In fact, such a system, rigidly administered, tends always to become a system for taxing the honest and upright, who would pay their dues under any system whatever, and for driving the weak or knavish into falsehood.

The amount of fraud represented by the apparent decrease in the value of the personal property in the State during the last twenty years is of course enormous. But imposing an income tax would not afford any remedy. We should probably have much the same luck in the income field as we have had in the capital field; we should find the number of incomes in the State of over $10,000 begin to decrease rapidly—just as rapidly as the amount of accumulated capital. If it be asked why it should be any more difficult to levy an income tax here than in England, the answer is that England is *par excellence* a country of incomes or fixed earnings, while this is a country of profits and uncertain earnings. The number of annuitants, and salaried people, and people whose incomes rarely vary from year to year, is enormous in England, while here, even among the well-to-do, it is very small. Those among the $10,000 class who are not taking some kind of risk in business are in New York comparatively few, and the others find a hundred excuses satisfactory to their own consciences for swearing down their net receipts in any particular year. So that in proposing new ways of laying bare people's private affairs, the Commissioners are clearly on the wrong track.

This is the more remarkable because their own history of the comparative yield of the two sources of taxation seems to carry on its face the solution of the problem. In looking about for something to base the bulk of the taxes on, it would seem as if the thing which was never concealed, which could not be sworn down, which plainly grew in productiveness with the growth of the State, would attract attention at once. This thing is the land. There is only one real obstacle to making it pay the taxes, and that is the fear of the farmers that the rich men in the towns and cities would escape, if the public burdens all came directly on the soil. That this is a strong prejudice, and one difficult to combat, we do not deny; but that it will eventually be destroyed by the hard facts of the situation, and probably before very long, we have no doubt. Resorting to the land for the bulk of the revenue would not preclude the taxation also of the stock of corporations within the State, because this would be based on the same great rule as the taxation of the land—namely, that a State which is tied up, as American States are, to direct taxation, should never attempt to tax anything which can be hidden or carried away. Tax whatever you see, and which the owner cannot remove, and you will get your money, and avoid fraud and evasion. Try to tax the invisible and removable, and you will find that though you may be ever so certain that it is every year more valuable, your revenue from it either will not grow or will positively fall off.

THE NEW SPEAKER OF THE COMMONS.

LONDON, January 15.

IT has for some little time past been assumed to be settled that when Sir Henry Brand retires at the beginning of the next session from the office of Speaker of the House of Commons, Mr. Arthur Peel, Member for Warwick, and a son of the Great Sir Robert Peel, will be put forward by the Government to succeed him. Although the Speakership is, in this country, a place of far less political influence than it is with you, it is, nevertheless, one of great consequence, the merits or faults of whose holder may make a vast difference to the progress of business in Parliament and the dignity of Parliament itself. So far from being, as at Washington, practically the chief of his party in the House, he is seldom or never a politician of the first rank, and is understood to sever himself from all party ties when he takes his seat in the chair. His only duty thenceforward is to see fair play between different parties, to settle points of order as they arise, to superintend the preparation of proper notices of the business which is to come on, and to keep an accurate record of proceedings already past. His disciplinary power, somewhat increased of late, is exerted only in conjunction with a vote of the House itself. With the composition of committees he has nothing to do; that function, which under our system is of less moment than in your Congress, being exercised by a special committee of experienced and trusted members of both parties, called the Committee of Selection.

But although the Speaker's powers are thus limited to those of mere chairmanship, they are in that sphere very important. Our Parliamentary rules are so complicated that a man must have an exceptionally clear legal head to be able to master and apply them—great promptitude, self-possession, decision. Nor is it only courage to overcome an excited assembly that is wanted. The Speaker must also possess an imperturbable temper and a courtesy of manner which makes his personal relations with the members easy and agreeable. There are many small occasions on which members have to communicate with the Chair; they ask his advice as to the mode in which they can raise a question, or give notice of an amendment; they obtain permission from him to introduce friends into parts of the Chamber not open to ordinary strangers. In order that the general sense of his impartiality may be maintained, the Speaker is obliged to receive every one, even persons who may have lately tried to dispute his authority, with equal serenity and friendliness, and in the exercise of his function of "calling" (that is, of giving the floor to) one among several members who may rise to speak at the same time, he is expected not only to show no preference as between the various political parties, but even to allow the bores and pariahs a fair chance, however little desire the House may have to hear them. Besides these intellectual and moral qualities, the Speaker must be physically strong, at least in capacity to endure fatigue. The House usually meets at four o'clock in the afternoon, sometimes (after

the middle of the session) at two, and sits on till one, two, three, or even four o'clock in the morning, during the whole of which time, except for a short time allowed for refreshment in the evening, he must be in the chair, unable even to close his eyes for more than a few minutes, since at any moment he may have to resolve some point of order or award the floor to one of several competing orators. When the House goes into Committee of the Whole, his place is taken by the Chairman of Ways and Means, but otherwise he has no relief, not being allowed to put a deputy Speaker in the chair unless suffering from illness.

Sir Henry Brand has discharged these duties so well that the difficulty of finding a successor seems more than commonly great. His rulings on points of order have been considered generally right, and were always delivered with great readiness and clearness. His impartiality was so unquestioned that the only complaints ever made were that he was possibly too lenient to those who seemed to be seeking to paralyze and discredit the House of Commons by systematic obstruction. His manners were perfect: full of dignity—a dignity even of carriage, which was noticed the more because he is rather below than above the middle height—and at the same time full of a refined courtliness, which has grown rare in this somewhat too free-and-easy society of modern England. He possessed the happy art of appearing to be specially interested in the person who might be conversing with him; and yet there was no flattery or affectation in what was obviously the expression of a genial and amiable nature.

When it was announced that Mr. Goschen had been asked to permit himself to be nominated, there was some little surprise, because he holds so influential a position as a political leader that he could hardly be expected to relegate himself to an office in which his administrative abilities and his oratorical powers could find no scope. He is wealthy, so that the large salary paid to the Speaker would have no great attraction for him; and though he is at present out of office, because he differs from the bulk of the Liberal party on the question of an extended franchise in the counties, it would be natural for him to rejoin the Ministry when that question has been disposed of. As it appears that he would have been willing to take the Speakership but for his shortsightedness, people suppose that his idea would have been to serve for a few years, until the time came when he could properly return to take that prominent part in the counsels and combats of his party to which his great abilities and high character entitle him. His refusal is regretted on all sides, for he would have made not only an impartial, but an eminently strong and resolute Chairman.

Another member of the House of Commons eminently fitted for the office is Mr. Whitbread, member for Bedford. His position is a unique one. He has never held any office, has never pushed himself to the front, is almost unknown to the general public. But his character is so conspicuously upright and straightforward, his intellect so fair and lucid, his judgment so sound, that when he speaks, which he does but seldom, he is listened to with a deference rarely accorded even to Cabinet Ministers. Those who differ from him think he is at least as likely to be right as they are; those who agree with him are happy and satisfied in having so great an authority on their side. He is the best type, and perhaps the only specimen, in a large assembly, of the ideal impartial observer—philosophical, yet also practical—whose views of current events the historian desires above all things to possess. To these gifts he adds familiarity with Parliamentary rules and forms of procedure certainly unsurpassed, and probably unequalled except by Sir Henry Brand himself. Every one would have been glad to see Mr. Whitbread Speaker. But the uncertain state of his health would have prevented his accepting the chair, and obliged the leaders of the majority to look elsewhere.

Mr. Arthur Peel, whom they have resolved to propose, has had a long Parliamentary and a short official experience. For a few months during Mr. Gladstone's former administration (1868-'74) he was one of the Secretaries to the Treasury, discharging the duties of Parliamentary "whip"; and in 1880, when Mr. Gladstone returned to power, he became Under Secretary of State for the Home Department. This post he soon resigned, owing to weak health, so that people hardly expected he would venture, although now stronger, to enter on duties so arduous as the Speaker's. He is in politics a moderate Liberal, belonging to what is called the Whig section of the party; an able and thoughtful man, who is much respected by his brother members, although, like Mr. Whitbread, not much known to the outside public. The dignity of manner which he inherits from his father is enhanced by a tall figure and well-marked features; and though he is not supposed to have made a special study of Parliamentary law and usage, he is both clear-headed and judicial in mind. Those who know him best declare that in point of tact, temper, and courtesy, he will not fall short even of the retiring Speaker. His task may very likely prove an even more difficult one, for such elements of disorder as exist in the House of Commons may think it easier to challenge a new chairman than one who had already established his ascendency. It may also appear more invidious for the new Speaker than it would have been for the old one to apply the provision lately introduced for enabling closure of the debate (the "previous question" of your House of Representatives) to be voted by the House on the Speaker's intimation. But a man of character, as Mr. Peel is believed to be, will doubtless face these difficulties firmly, and the more firmness he shows the better will he be supported.

It is not usual to oppose the person nominated for Speaker by the majority, unless parties are very nearly equal in strength; and there is no personal hostility among the Conservatives to Mr. Peel which should lead them to resist his election. However, they are at present in a fighting mood, so it is possible they may think that a preliminary skirmish over the choice of a Speaker will do no harm. Their leaders are considering the matter, and their decision will doubtless be made public before Parliament meets on the 5th of February. Y.

MODERN IRISH HISTORY.

DUBLIN, January 12.

THE study of Irish history is sad and depressing, but most instructive. Never did effect follow cause step by step with more unerring and remorseless certainty. We are what we have been made, and the hope of our overtaking those who are before us lies in our being taught in the same schools of experience which have strengthened and elevated them. Three hundred years ago Ireland was dominated by tribal divisions and customs as degrading as those which prevailed in England before the Anglo-Saxon invasion. We search the pages of authentic history in vain for a free, independent, and united Ireland. The struggles with the Anglo-Normans were for land, for existence, for religion. The idea of a real Ireland was first developed during the wars of the seventeenth century. It was carried on by Swift and the patriots of the eighteenth century, though to most of them, it is true, Ireland meant only the Protestant garrison. The conception is perhaps stronger and more definite now than ever before, and Irishmen who know their country's history are animated by hope of a new and better future rather than by a revival of a shadowy past.

Proprietorship in the soil of Ireland has been acquired, not by purchase or by a wrestling with nature, but through repeated and overlying confiscations. There is scarcely an acre of the soil of Ireland upon which we cannot name the families that originally owned the land; the grantee who acquired it by fraud or conquest, and, if his descendants do not now hold it, the transitions by which it came into the possession of the present owners. The tribes held the land in common. The toil of their descendants as tenants gave it its present value without labor or expenditure on the part of the new owners or their descendants, and built up those colossal fortunes which are now drawn from Ireland in the shape of rent. The descendants of the tribesmen, inextricably blended with English names and race (but still definitely distinct in class and feeling), form the mass of the Irish people today. The proprietors are almost as separate a class as they were when they settled down upon their grants under Elizabeth, James, and Cromwell, and built their castles and their "bawns." Religion has accentuated these distinctions. It is as if with you the Indians had lived on and increased, as laborers and tenants, had built up the United States, and were now the mass of the people, and you, the "pale-faces," were in as comparatively small a minority as you were 200 years ago.

The Parliament of Great Britain took upon itself in 1801 to be responsible for the government and happiness of the Irish people. Such a legacy of misery and confusion had seldom been assumed by any people. England believed so fully in her own capacity to grapple with these difficulties that she had deliberately opposed the reformatory measures of the enlightened members of the Irish Parliament, so as finally to compass its annihilation. All doubts as to the mainsprings of Irish squalor and discontent were set at rest in 1845 by the publication of the "Devon Report." The Earl of Devon, an absentee English nobleman, holding estates in Ireland greater in area than the Channel Islands, with four other persons whose prejudices and interests favored the land-owners, had been appointed by the Ministry to probe the agricultural condition of Ireland. The results of their labors may be consulted in four volumes, comprising 4,100 closely printed folio pages of evidence (equivalent to about 6,000 pages of the *Nation*) and 44 pages of report. The report contains a history of the confiscations and anomalies of the Irish land system and a description of the wretched condition of the country, the results of that system. The gist of the recommendations of the Commissioners is contained in the following paragraph:

"Although it is certainly desirable that the fair remuneration to which a tenant is entitled for his outlay of capital, or of labor in permanent improvements, should be secured to him by voluntary agreement rather than by compulsion of law, yet, upon a review of all the evidence furnished to us upon the subject, we believe that some legislative measure will be found necessary in order to give efficiency to such agreements, as well as to provide for those cases which cannot be settled by previous arrangement. We earnestly hope the Legislature will be disposed to entertain a bill of this nature, and to pass it into law with as little delay as is consistent with a full discussion of its principle and details. We are convinced that in the present state of feelings in Ireland, no single measure can be better calculated to allay

discontent and to promote substantial improvement throughout the country."

Clear and practical advice, upon the fullest evidence, by men free from all bias in favor of the tenants. A famine and a rebellion came and passed. The population of Ireland was reduced from 8,000,000 to 6,000,000. A land agitation died out in despair. Men like Vincent Scully went down to their graves, leaving their tracts and writings as a legacy of brave but useless endeavors for reform. Another rebellion followed, and another famine. The population stood reduced to little over 5,000,000. Still persistent neglect of the recommendations of the report, or of the many other reports, and tracts, and treatises with which we were inundated. Between 1829 and 1869 twenty-seven bills and resolutions of a moderate character were offered by Irish members on the land question, and were every one rejected. And the conception of an Irish member settled down more and more into that of a well-dressed gentleman, who blarneyed his constituents on the hustings, lived pleasantly in London, gave his party as little trouble as possible, had an unbounded capacity for bearing snubs with equanimity, and secured as many situations as was possible for himself, his family, and his friends. Yet the land question involved the prosperity and happiness of the Irish people; and between 1830 and 1880 the Government found time to pass forty-nine coercion bills for Ireland. The Act of 1871, well intended as it was, was passed against the advice of the few able Irish members, and made matters upon many estates worse and more hopeless than before.

After the passage of the Ballot Act, an entirely new class of members began to be sent forward by the Irish constituencies—men who really felt with and represented the people. Between 1871 and 1880 thirty land-reform bills were brought forward by Irish members, most of them Liberals, and some Conservatives, and as usual met with no consideration. In 1879-80 there was again great misery and distress, the Land League was established, and in May, 1880, Mr. Gladstone came into power, as far as Irish support was concerned, upon expectations of radical land reform. None but Irishmen can realize the humiliation they felt at seeing the hat again go round the world on their behalf—knowing that even in the South Sea Islands collections were being made upon behalf of their country, and well aware that all the aid put together would not amount to one-tenth of the average annual sum added to the burdens of the tenants since the previous famine.

Commencing some years before the publication of the Devon report, and brought to a completion a few years afterward, a valuation of Ireland was carried out by the Government under Mr. Griffith, at the head of a large department and staff. It was upon this fact, that a careful and exhaustive scientific Government valuation of Ireland was coincident with a Government report which admitted that there should be legislation to prevent further usurpation of tenants' improvements, that Mr. Parnell based his demand that, until a fair and satisfactory settlement was arrived at, Griffith's valuation should be taken as the basis of a fair rent. Practically, the rack-renting protested against consisted of rises beyond Griffith's valuation, screwed out of the people upon their own improvements. Griffith's valuation of Ireland was £13,500,000. The rental in 1880 reached some £17,000,000. The depreciation in the value of money which had taken place in the interval must be remembered on the side of the landlords.

The treatment of the Fenian prisoners had no inconsiderable part in exasperating Ireland. Whatever American and late Irish developments have been, the original movement here sprang from pure and unselfish motives. It was wrong in that it could not succeed. The effort to degrade the leaders, many of them gentlemen of education and refinement, in the eyes of their countrymen, by subjecting them to penal servitude, failed in its intention and excited sympathy even in those who disapproved their policy. Silvio Pellico's and other records of suffering in Continental jails under the wors governments show how terrible imprisonment can be; but it is doubtful whether any system (not of actual torture) more essentially degrading and outraging to humanity was ever invented than penal servitude as carried out in British prisons and as applied to the Fenian prisoners. They were subjected not alone to cold and hunger, but to indignities in personal examinations and otherwise which cannot be named. Men like Mr. Davitt were chained to carts. These imprisonments extended over many years, and many who were released, and who have no sympathy with modern developments, are still, after eighteen years, in exile. The mass of the Irish people feel that the prisoners suffered for them, and the present generation at least will never forgive their treatment.

There was no reference to the Irish land question in the Queen's speech with which the new Government opened its career in May, 1880. Legislation was promised upon many subjects—"churchyards," "ground game," "liability of employers for accidents," and so forth. Justin McCarthy and other Irish members at first mildly protested. "Two or three lines couched in sympathetic terms" would have satisfied them. But they were not satisfied. Even sympathy would not at this point have satisfied others of less patient mood, and persistent neglect of the Irish land question at length culminated in an agitation that was all along predicted and might have been averted. The Government "Compensation for Disturbance Bill," wrung from them by the Irish members, was thrown out by the Lords; and the Government, instead of forcing its passage by a dissolution, as they would have done with an English measure of like importance, adjourned for six months' holidays, and hoped the Irish people would be patient till Parliament met in the spring. It is difficult to write with candor concerning the murders and outrages which disgraced Ireland during the following winter. The leaders and the mass of Leaguers were not responsible for those crimes. But did they put forth their strength to prevent them? Was the Irish land question never to be settled? Was there the least possibility of England giving her mind to its settlement in the absence of crime? Passion is strong; human nature is weak. Let any one who has ever felt deeply in a cause where crime is the inevitable outcome of the system he denounces, look into his heart and ask himself how he regarded outrages which perhaps almost alone insured reform.

In the session of 1881 a "Coercion Bill" took precedence of a "Land Bill," and we had a renewal of the scenes of the previous session in an aggravated form. The Government sought no assistance in the preparation of the Land Bill, either from the Irish party, who represented Irish feeling, or from Irish writers and economists, who had almost given their lives to the subject. It was to be the work of Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues alone; and the Irish people were to be indebted to him and them alone for its benefits. That it has conferred great benefits is true: a reduction of £162,000 per annum through the Land Court up till last May, besides, doubtless, a much larger sum by private agreement, through fear of its intervention, is no small reduction in 35,000 out of the 500,000 cases which might be brought before the courts. But the act has never approved itself to the best Irish thinkers, even outside the ranks of the Leaguers, as a statesmanlike settlement of the question, and its benefits have been obtained by an immense official and legal expenditure. The attitude of the Irish party toward the act was inevitable. The only possibility of wresting the full measure of benefit from it, administered, as it inevitably would be, by persons largely in sympathy with the landlords, was to decry as far as possible the merit of its provisions.

In the condition in which the Government of the country found itself in the autumn of 1881 much might be said in vindication of the policy of the arrest of the leaders of the Land League, but nothing for the general administration of the Coercion Act. In imprisoning Mr. Parnell and 800 associates Mr. Gladstone should have realized that he was not dealing with criminals, but with political opponents, and should have treated them accordingly. He owed it to himself to treat them with dignity, and the country was rich enough to pay for this. Their incarceration was, however, attended with the most humiliating circumstances, and as they were supplied with only prison fare, and as those who could afford it refused to live better than those who could not, a public subscription had to be set on foot for their maintenance; and when released, all the threads of Irish officialism were set in motion to injure their prospects for life *Væ victis!* I know the head master of a National school, taken up as a suspect, whose further engagement and chance of pension were cancelled. He is now in America. I know a Government clerk who was shut out from Government service. He now edits a "National" newspaper. These are but individual instances of what occurred in a large number of cases.

The Government, as upon all previous occasions of Irish revolt, appeared satisfied that it was dealing only with a set of foolish brawlers or criminals whom it had outbid in the affections of the Irish people. The "no rent" manifesto was a terrible blunder. The suppression of the Land League followed as a matter of course. An excellent opportunity for establishing a better feeling between the countries and for bringing the mass of the Irish people to the side of law and order, was thrown away next spring after the murder of the secretaries. The day after that crime was committed it was publicly denounced in the strongest terms by Parnell, Dillon, and Davitt in a printed manifesto scattered broadcast over Ireland. It was recognized as a crime against the best interests and hopes of Ireland, and aroused a feeling which might have been developed to any extent, but which was entirely arrested by the Coercion Bill introduced a few days afterward.

In the administration of that act, and the exercise of the power conferred, outrages upon common justice and public decency were inevitable, and will prove disastrous in the future. Ireland is ever being adjured to forget the past, while a present is ever being brought into a fresh bitter past to take the place of the old, even if the old were forgotten. Discussing yesterday with a gentleman much in the confidence of the Government, as to the possibility of inducing some of the Irish members to support a certain beneficial policy in conjunction with the Government, I was compelled to conclude that such agreement was at present impossible, principally owing to Mr. Forster's attack upon Mr. Parnell and the party last spring, and the attitude of the Government toward them after Carey took his seat in the witness chair. The Government and people of England then seemed convinced that

Mr. Parnell and his party had been working with the Invincibles. The baselessness of this accusation has been proved, but no amend has been made. That in a conflict such as the one carried on by the League proffered assistance could be selected and supervised, was impossible; that very many League branches became centres for all the virulent political animosities and private hates of the country, is perhaps true; that funds loosely and freely scattered over the country sometimes fell into bad hands, and may have been applied to doubtful purposes, is quite possible. But that Mr. Parnell's intentions or interests lay in a league with crime, is impossible. The officials in Dublin Castle privately acknowledge the imputations of last spring to have been unfounded. They know that a plot was on foot to assassinate Mr. Parnell himself by some of the very men with whom he was accused of having been in league for the perpetration of assassination. In thus endeavoring to explain the present feelings of Irish Nationalists we must admit that while we can understand, we cannot approve or excuse, their failure in the main to acknowledge, appreciate, and develop the wise and genuine sympathy for their country undoubtedly shown by many members of the Liberal party and many individuals throughout England.

Four great lessons are emphasized by the modern history of Ireland: (1) Justice cannot safely be denied or delayed. (2) Popular passions cannot for any purpose be safely roused by popular leaders beyond a certain point. (3) Permanently beneficial changes in the laws cannot in this age of the world be affected through individual force and mob violence. (4) It is no longer possible, comfortably, to govern any well-defined portion of the world in defiance of the prejudices and wishes of the majority of its inhabitants. Irish history, past and present, is in truth a tragedy. The more one studies it and has personal knowledge of its details and the actors, the more one yearns toward the country and its inhabitants. No personal sacrifices in any class would be too great that would hasten a settlement. The chaos of highmindedness and of meanness, of daring and of cowardice—the universal muddle, so to speak—is more striking the more one becomes cognizant of the facts. No chaos, however, can last forever, and each step toward order is so much gained. D. B.

JAMES'S PORTRAITS OF PLACES.

PARIS, January 3.

I CONFESS a great partiality for the writings of Henry James: his field of observation is large, and he is a good observer. So far, American novelists have dealt chiefly with American subjects. Mr. Henry James had a very happy inspiration when he endeavored to bring into close and daily contact the representatives of the New World and the representatives of the Old World. All his books might bear the title of an 'International Episode'; and in all we look for this curious chemistry of human atoms, formed under dissimilar circumstances and meeting in singular combinations. The old saying of the Greek philosopher, "Know thyself," always holds good; but in order to know ourselves well, we must not always look in our familiar glass—we must throw ourselves out of our usual life, rub against the world and try its hardness, leave our nest and look for other nests.

Mr. James has a great ambition: not only has he undertaken to bring into contact two branches of the same great race—the American and the English—he has thrown his Americans in the midst of France, and looked on the result. Gay-Lussac was once showing an experiment to some Royal Highness, and said, "These two gases will have the honor to combine before your Highness." The French gas, if I may say so, is very much opposed to such combinations. An American, well read, cultured, intelligent, will find himself at home at once in England. "Il y entrera," a Frenchman would say, "comme dans ses souliers." Of course he will find many things different from what he has seen at home; his feeling of "every man as good as another" will be constantly offended. But if he have any *esprit*, he will know that there are always limitations to this axiom; the limitations may be ideal—they may be material. The clerk at some great shop in London who whispers, "There is some carriage company," on the entrance of a lady descending from her barouche, has not the same sense of these limitations as has the lady who tries an unknown neighbor at some dinner-table. But no American of any sense, even if he is not above twenty, will really be much surprised in England at some of the manifestations of social inequality, because they are connected with things he knows and has heard about—with politics, with law, with wealth, with historical associations familiar to him. A man can hate privileges, but it is something to understand what they are made for and on what they are founded. It is something to have the key of a cipher—to know in virtue of what fact, what solid, tangible fact, one man will take precedence of another, one woman of another. There are, of course, mysteries of all sorts connected with this old English Constitution. It stands like an old manor, covered in places with ivy—like those castles which Henry James describes so well in his 'Portraits of Places'; there are hidden corners, rooms left empty, silent staircases, dark passages. But the manor is visible, and though it is not in our modern style, we may admire it—we may even come to cherish it.

A cultivated American, the most cultivated American, will find that France is to him more difficult to understand than England. To be sure, France is a democracy, and it would seem as if an American knew something about democracies. But the French democracy is something very different from the American democracy; they have hardly anything in common, except those abstract principles embodied in declarations of rights. Your American, if he lives long enough in France, will find that the French ideal of liberty is surprisingly different from the American ideal—that while equality reigns supreme in the text of the law, it has no place in the daily relations of life; and what will be a perpetual puzzle to him will be to trace the origin of the social inequalities. He will here have to deal with invisible forces, not with visible marks of power; he will feel, so to speak, in a land of ghosts. Names which have no meaning for him will be the objects of veneration, almost of awe; high-sounding titles will be treated with contempt. He will see wealth despised and poverty honored; foot or cab company preferred to carriage company, not in drawing-rooms, but in shops and among the lowest people. He will look for a standard and he will find none. If he works very long and very hard, he will come to the conclusion that manners are perhaps the greatest social forces; he will see that the French people are extremely sensitive on this point—that bad manners are a crime: the relations of man to man, whatever their station may be, must be conducted in a kindly, humane manner. But where shall he find the code of manners? There is none. The secret of good manners is that they must essentially be natural, they must be a part of the person. The smallest effort vitiates the relations of society.

It is the great merit of Mr. James's French stories that he has perceived this great influence of manners in French society. He has understood that there is a certain philosophy in a sociability which is often considered merely frivolous and superficial. A human life can only be filled in its depth by a very limited number of passions and affections; our inner life belongs only to a few; why should others expect from us more than an amicable disposition and an outward show of complaisance? The outer life ought to be, if possible, cheerful, amiable, kindly; the drama of life should remain hidden in conscience—it need not appear on the surface. There is no peculiar virtue in gloom, no excellence in silence, no wisdom in disdain. The danger of the Anglo-Saxon writer, when he deals with French character, is of falling into caricature; and it may be that Mr. James has not always escaped this danger. It is almost impossible that it should be otherwise, for the Frenchman makes *bon marché* of himself, as we say—he is easily familiar, indiscreet. I speak of the *petit bourgeois* of the cities; I do not speak of the better class, nor of the peasants, who are invariably reticent and cautious. Balzac must always be read with care by the student of French society, for he has painted almost every side of France; he has shown us not only Paris, with its men of fashion, great ladies, witty journalists, vulgar financiers, but also the humble, puritanic lives of the provinces. His wide sympathies discovered worlds unknown not only to the traveller, but to the Parisian, the scholar, the man of the world.

I have read with much pleasure, in Henry James's 'Portraits of Places,' the account of his ramblings in Rheims, in Laon, in Chartres, in Rouen, at Étretat; but surely he will forgive me if I have turned with more curiosity to the English and the American scenes in his book. I have sometimes heard countrymen of his accuse him of having become too English; I was struck, on the contrary, in his pictures of English life, by the independence of his judgment. Is there an Englishman who would dare to describe the ignoble "saturnalia" of a Derby-day as Henry James has done? The picture is true to the life; the contempt which the colossal vulgarity of the scene inspires in the American writer becomes almost eloquent. Perhaps he is too hard on the men and women of the lowest orders; he forgets that all the vulgarity of an Epsom day is not in the populace, nor in the *ring*; he forgets the tribunes, the young or young-old lord, the guardsmen, who are the models, the admired types, of the gaudy, carnal, middle-class, opulent young men. Mr. James's theory seems to be that in an old, aristocratic country, elegance, propriety, decency become a privilege. Alas! the privilege is not always used. The eldest son who mortgages the paternal acres, or sells collections which have been handed down to him by his ancestors, in order to satisfy the caprices of one of the Titianesque females whom Mr. James so well describes, or in order to pay a stupid and colossal bet, is, to my mind, more absolutely vulgar, and is certainly less excusable, than the licensed victualler who leaves his gas-lit shop and spends a day at Epsom, enjoying himself in the only way suited to his intellect and his appetite.

There are some very good and profound remarks in the chapter, "An English New Year"; the sentiment which binds the English middle classes to the sovereign and to the royal family is well analyzed. It is not quite a "humorous" view to say that "people in the immense obscurity of that middle class which constitutes the bulk of the English world, like to feel that they are related in some degree to something that is socially great"; for that "something" is not only socially, it is also nationally, great.

I find the true 'American' in another passage of the same chapter, in the description of some charity children on Christmas Day. There is something almost pathetic in his picture—"the dying wintry light in the big, bare, stale room; the beautiful Lady Bountiful, standing in the twinkling glory of the Christmas-tree; the little multitude of staring and wondering, yet perfectly expressionless, faces." These hundreds of charity children, living in an atmosphere of hunger, are evidently not a sight to which an American eye is accustomed. Is there a connection between the workhouse and the peerage? I will not touch the problem here.

If ever my good fortune should bring me back to the United States, Mr. James has not inspired me with a very ardent desire to see Saratoga. The picture of it, as a picture, is very striking. I have met occasionally, at watering places in Europe, in hotels in Switzerland, the people whom he describes, who are living abroad as they do at Saratoga, in a sort of splendid social isolation—the men, who have, even during their holiday, their minds full of the pursuit of wealth, of "corners," of speculations; and the women, who show off the fine dresses that are the result of these speculations. This sort of thing, as they say in England, is not peculiar to Saratoga nor to America; hotel life is everywhere imbued with it. Watering-places are not the places where people should form their ideal of life. I cannot, however, blame Mr. James for showing things as they are. The highest mission of the literary man, in a democratic country, consists in raising the standard of excellence by his writings. To this mission Mr. James has always been faithful. He has not bought success by an ignoble weakness; he is, by excellence, a *gentleman* of letters. He has seen many lands and many people, and he has taken his honey from many flowers; but he will remain a true friend of his own country if he defends it in future, as he has done in the past, against the worship of wealth, against vulgar imitation, against brutal sensuality, against the follies and vanities of communities where these follies and vanities are a legacy of the past.

Correspondence.

THE "NINETEENTH CENTURY" REPRINT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We have just seen in your issue of January 3, in an advertisement from "The English Publishing Company," a statement to the effect that, having completed arrangements with us, the company will reissue the *Nineteenth Century* Review in America, simultaneously with its issue in England.

Other Reviews are named, and we do not know if the statement as to them is correct, but so far as we are concerned it is absolutely untrue. We have made no arrangements with the English Publishing Company.

The Review cannot be published in America simultaneously with the appearance of it in England, unless the whole is telegraphed, as no copy or advance sheets leave or will leave England till after the publication in this country. Pray be so good as to insert this unqualified contradiction.—We are, sir, yours faithfully,

Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

London, 1 Paternoster Square, January 17, 1884.

AN INDEX TO NILES' REGISTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some of your readers are perhaps competent to express an opinion on the probable usefulness of an index to *Niles' Register*, and the probable demand for such an index. That newspaper will always be a valuable source of information, as every student of economics understands. I have often wished that some one would compile an index to it, and I have gone so far as to consider the expediency of undertaking the task myself. J.

San Francisco, January 12.

["The proposed index would certainly be very useful to historical students," is the opinion of one of this class to whom we have submitted the above.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. RUSSELL STURGIS AND THE CESNOLA COLLECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the reports of the Feuardent-Cesnola suit, session of the 20th of December, General di Cesnola is quoted as saying, in answer to questions by jurors, "Russell Sturgis is mainly responsible for Gehlen's repairs and restorations."

I have written to General di Cesnola, calling his attention to this report and begging him to contradict it, supposing, as I must, that his words have been incorrectly reported. But, as I am so far away, I cannot well await his answer before taking other steps to contradict the statement ascribed to him. For that statement is wholly untrue. I never had anything to do with any of Mr. Gehlen's work upon the sculptures of the Cesnola collection.

At the time of the unpacking of the first Cesnola collection I was a Trustee of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, and a member of the Executive Committee. The Douglas mansion, in West Fourteenth Street, had been hired for the Museum, and I had volunteered to superintend the alterations necessary to fit that house and its appendages for the uses of the Museum. For this purpose I visited the house three or four times a week, and during all the time that I was so employed General di Cesnola was busy unpacking and arranging his collection, "the first Cesnola collection," as it is commonly called. He had assumed the charge of its arrangement in the Fourteenth Street building, and, to the best of my remembrance, was busied in that long and arduous task all through the later spring and summer of 1872, for perhaps four, perhaps five months. Mr. North, and afterward Mr. Gehlen, were employed in cleaning, repairing, and mounting statues, busts, etc. I seldom saw them at work, as I had but rarely any occasion to pass through their workshops, my own especially undertaken duty keeping me at the Museum building already too long. I seldom saw any statue or bust until after it had been put in place. As regards the repairs or restorations, the mounting and placing of the sculptures, I often conversed with General di Cesnola, exactly as any other member of the Board of Trustees might have done. But I never had given to me, nor assumed, any authority over these matters. I never directed any repairs, nor advised any, nor influenced, nor sought to influence in any way, the manner or extent of repairing or restoration. And the statement copied above from the *Tribune* of the 21st December is absolutely and wholly false.

I have made a similar declaration upon oath before the Consul of the United States at this place, and have sent it to New York, where it can be used if needed. R. Sturgis.

56 Via del Prato, Florence, Italy, January 4.

CABINET OFFICERS IN CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As to the *Nation's* dislike to controversy, to which "S. M. C." refers, I fancy it depends upon the kind of controversy. I can bear witness that for many years, and in a most long-suffering spirit, it has given me a liberal portion of space for the riding of a "hobby" in respect to the Cabinet officers, and I am sure it will maintain the same attitude toward any serious discussion of problems of politics involving the welfare of the nation. As to shirking the responsibility of forecasting the effect of the measure in question, considerations of space alone were taken into account. "S. M. C." will please note that I am quite prepared to fill an entire number of the *Nation* with such forecasting. Fortunately, the need of such a catastrophe is averted by the able letter of Mr. C. A. Towne, which I trust has received "S. M. C.'s" careful consideration.

If your correspondent has really no desire to see any relief of what he happily calls the "paralysis of functional efficiency" in the Executive or Legislature, there seems to be no common ground between us, as that is the only purpose for which I advocate the change in the position of the Executive. I judge from his letters that he is one of those who wish to neutralize and get rid of all government as far as possible. This idea is confirmed by his suggestion that the Federal officers should be made elective, which must raise a shudder in any one who knows how that process operates in the Eastern States and cities, whatever it may do in Iowa. I hold that more efficient, coherent, and systematic government is an absolute necessity, whether for the nation, the States, or the cities, and that the first step toward this is a change in the relations of Executive to Legislature. If the result is not desired, *cadit quæstio*. Certainly our present methods are admirably adapted to produce the opposite result.

Is the means adapted to procure the end? From regard to space, and for that reason only, I will throw out the Continental governments, where the people have not yet learned to enforce their will, and turn to the only government besides our own where the people really have a will—Great Britain. Certainly it is now in a state of great embarrassment, but that is caused by the Irish members. The Irish question has forced itself to the front, and if it takes twenty-five years to get that question peacefully settled, to the exclusion of everything else, the time will not have been wasted. The Irish Church and the Irish Land Acts were wonderfully difficult and complex pieces of work, irrespective of results, and were obtained by Executive and Legislature working together. They may fail, but at least they will be tried, and if they do fail it will be for the Ministry to guide Parliament to the next step. The burning question in the Extended-Franchise Act, to come up this winter, is its extension to Ireland. The real hesitancy is in the conflict of public opinion. Whether the Tory or Liberal view gains the upper hand, the Ministry in Parliament must be the means of reducing it to definite shape.

But, to judge the case, a larger view must be taken. Parliamentary reform, Catholic emancipation, tariff reform, municipal reform, the Education Act—these and many others have been the results of a strong Executive Ministry acting upon Parliament. "S. M. C." wishes to see a fixed and stable civil service. If he will study English history, he will find that this reform was forced by Lord Palmerston upon a reluctant Parliament; and if we ever get it in effective shape, it must be forced by a strong and popular Executive upon a reluctant Congress. Observe, too, that even now the finances in the hands of the Chancellor of the Exchequer flow on quietly and without disturbance. The country is not thrown every year into convulsions of terror as to what a chaotic Parliament,

worked by a powerful lobby, may or may not do.

Turning homeward, I concede to "S. M. C." that we cannot "recall any scheme of overt statesmanship since the war, planned by either President or member of the Cabinet, the failure of adoption of which has been a serious harm to the country." But the trouble is that there has been no such scheme at all, unless in the general terms of a message hustled by Congress, with some thousands of other propositions, into the dark closet of a committee room. And it is just the want of such schemes which has done harm to the country. There is no need of specifications in saying that the state of our finances is disgraceful. Whether we need a navy or not may be a question, but there can be none as to the pitiable condition of that which we have. Common justice required that after the war the wealth and intelligence of the North should have done something to ameliorate the condition of the South. What we did or did not do needs not to be told. Meantime, the whole civilized world regards Washington as a sink of corruption—wrongly no doubt, as what looks like such is mainly helplessness and want of leadership. If "S. M. C." likes that state of things, I do not, nor, I believe, does the country at large. At all events he cannot rightly point to English recent parliamentary history as a justification of it. G. B.

Boston, January 26, 1884.

RIGHTS OF MINORITY STOCKHOLDERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of December 27, attention is called to attempts that have been lately made in England to guard better minority rights in joint-stock organizations, and one of the plans that have been partially tried there is explained.

Permit me to suggest another plan, which would be more effective, and which, moreover, would be easier of application, because based on a simpler, as well as a juster, principle. It is this: Let each stockholder have one vote as a *person*, and then one vote for each share of stock he owns in his own right, whether it be one or a thousand shares. Thus, *e. g.*, suppose the stock of a company to be divided into 500 shares, of which one person shall own a majority, say 300 shares, while the other 200 shares—a minority—shall belong to 200 persons, each owning one share. Now if this company, when incorporated, should covenant that each member should have a vote as a *person*—or as a man and a member of the organization, without regard to the quantity of stock he held, precisely as he would have in a corporation with no capital—and also that he should be entitled to cast a vote for each share of stock he owned, there would be:

Personal (or manhood) votes	201
Share (or stock) votes	500
Total	701
Number of votes to constitute a majority	351

Under the operation of such a principle, the owner of the majority of the stock—300 shares—could not fail to observe that the minority had rights that even he would be bound to respect. Henry D. Barrows.

Los Angeles, California, January 10, 1884.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 10th inst. I note a communication from Edward McCrady, jr., on the "Voting Power of Stock," in which he advocates, as securing a full and fair representation of all the stockholders, "a mononomial plan of voting," whereby each share should have a vote for but one director, and each director would be voted for separately. He states that if a road had 18,000 shares, owned in eighteen towns, and there were eighteen directors, any one of the towns, by securing a thousand shares, could secure one director, and thus have a share in the management of the road.

In the management of drainage districts and the directorship of mining companies, under the Constitution of California of 1879, a similar result is secured, more clumsily and less perfectly, by the cumulative vote, under which each shareholder has as many votes as there are directors to be elected, which he can distribute or concentrate, as he may see fit; that is, he can put in his eighteen votes for one man, or divide them among as many as he pleases. School directors in England are elected by this clumsy process, which, however, secures a better representation of the whole than either the district system or electing candidates at large. It works so well in California that what was first enacted as a law after some years of experience was embodied in the Constitution.

Mr. McCrady's plan is the same as that advocated by Émile de Girardin, many years ago, for all elections—one vote for one candidate, and no local limitations. Girardin, however, did not suppose it would secure proportionality, and perhaps it would not have done so in France at that time; but, after a careful study of political phenomena, I am fully satisfied that it would secure proportionality with us to-day, though in the elections to Congress State boundaries would be of course recognized, and New York State would secure proportional representation in Congress, while the status of Delaware would be the same as at present.

Much damage has been done to this and to other methods intended to make a Legislature a miniature, in opinions, of the voting body, by designating these methods as "minority representation," thus leading persons who have no time or inclination to look further to conclude that the design is to deprive majorities of the control to which they are entitled. It is probable that, but for the use of this misleading term, one or more States would to-day elect their Legislatures on this principle, as Illinois does its lower house by the cumulative vote in districts returning three members each.

As instancing the absurdity of the present system of government by parties, witness the tariff question; see the vast amount of "straddling" done by the Democratic party. There are numerous Democratic protectionists and Republican free-traders, revenue reformers, etc.; yet the platform of each party pretends to represent the views of all the members of that party. Under proportional representation, there would be no such nonsense, as, instead of two parties to represent so great diversities of opinion on every subject as there must be among all intelligent men, there would be several *groups;* and while on any proposed *measure* there would be a majority and a minority, on some other measure the majorities and minorities would often be composed of entirely different persons. Caucuses, primaries, and all the corrupt addenda of modern politics would be thrown off by the *vis medicatrix naturæ* of the body politic thus given a chance to act when a candidate represented about so many votes, just as a dollar represents so many cents.

Alfred Cridge.

Station "B," San Francisco, January 16, 1884.

THE GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his interesting article on "The National Government and Education," in the February number of *Harper's Magazine*, Mr. Charles F. Thwing makes several misstatements of fact of sufficient importance to demand correction:

First, after mentioning the first reservation of land for schools under the land ordinance of May 20, 1785, he says:

"This act was, a little more than two years after, included in the ordinance of 1787, which provided for the government of the Northwest Territory. The motive prompting this liberal grant to the public schools is expressed in the declaration of the ordinance that 'religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged.'"

The ordinance of 1787 covered a different subject from that of 1785, contained no reference to the latter, and alluded in no way to a grant of lands for schools. The ordinance of 1785 was superseded by an Act of 1796, while the ordinance of 1787 remained in full force until 1802, and portions of it even until to-day. As to the motive prompting the grant, if space permitted it could be shown that if it must be traced to one motive, that one was the desire of Congress to sell the Western lands as rapidly and for as large a sum as possible, in order to pay off the public creditors. The desire to offer every inducement to migration, and to meet the demands of intending purchasers, more than the desire to foster education, was what first led, after the bill had lain before Congress for nearly a year, to the insertion of the clause making the reservation for schools (see Pickering's 'Life of Pickering,' I., 509-511).

Second. Mr. Thwing says: "Since its establishment, the Government has appropriated the public lands or their proceeds to the extent of 140,000,000 of acres to new States for educational purposes." The Report of the Public Land Commission in 1880 shows (Part 4, pp. 223-230) that the total grants of lands for educational purposes to June 30, 1880, amounted to 78,659,439 acres. To these are to be added the so-called "internal improvement" lands of six States, amounting to 3,000,000 acres, and the proceeds of about 2,000,000 acres in those States to which Congress has given for education 3 per cent. of the sales of public lands within their borders. This gives a total of about 84,000,000 of acres or their proceeds, instead of 140,000,000 "appropriated for educational purposes."

Third. Another passage says: "The history of the relations of the general Government to public education proves that it has aided the cause by grants of lands, by proceeds of the sales of lands, and by direct gifts of money." If this statement means that the national Government has ever made an appropriation of money for public education, it is not true. If, however, as is probable, Mr. Thwing had in mind the distribution of the surplus revenue in 1836, he has distorted the facts in calling it a "direct gift of money" in aid of education.

According to the Act making the distribution, the surplus revenue was to be "*deposited* with the several States" which should pledge their faith "for the safe-keeping and *repayment* thereof . . . whenever the same shall be required by the Secretary of the Treasury" (5 U. S. Statutes, 55). A year later it was provided that the money should "remain with the States until otherwise directed by Congress." Congress has never recalled these deposits, and probably never will, and several of the States have, as Mr. Thwing says, credited their proportion to the common-school fund. But the action of any individual State in using for educational purposes funds which, when deposited with her for safe-keeping, were designed to be recalled at some future day, does not change the intention of Congress, nor does it warrant the statement

that in depositing this money with the States the national Government made a direct gift of money in aid of education. Especially is this statement open to objection when it is used as a precedent for an appropriation of money at the present time.

GEO. W. KNIGHT.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., January 23, 1884.

THE LATE PROFESSOR SOPHOCLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 966 of the *Nation* there is a sketch of the life and character of the late Professor Sophocles, of Harvard. Notwithstanding his well-known dislike to the publication of what he called "biographical nonsense," it is no wrong to him to add a few particulars relating to his early life. They serve to show more exactly the occasion of his coming to America, and how slowly he was led to adopt this country as his home.

While yet a boy he left his native village in Eastern Thessaly, and accompanied his uncle to a convent at Cairo in Egypt, a branch of the convent on Mount Sinai. There he spent several years, engaged principally in the study of the Greek Classics. He went back to Thessaly in 1820, and entered a school of high character at Melea under the management of Constantes, Anthimos, Gazes, and other teachers of repute. Gazes, distinguished for his 'History of Greek Literature' and his 'Lexicon of Ancient Greek,' had passed twenty-five years of eminent usefulness as a teacher and author in Vienna, and had just returned to Melea, his birth-place, full of zeal for the education of his countrymen. The next year, 1821, the war for Greek Independence broke out, the school was closed, and Sophocles again found a home in the convent at Cairo, where he served as librarian. He visited also the parent monastery on Sinai, but at length withdrew from association with the monks, though remaining in friendly relations with his uncle.

Returning to the Greek Archipelago, where the disorder and poverty of war still prevailed, he resumed study under his former teacher, Gazes, now quite feeble, who was revising his Lexicon, and supporting himself by teaching a few pupils at his house. A missionary of the American Board, Rev. Josiah Brewer, visiting the island of Syra in September, 1827, called on Gazes and found that his family consisted of only three—himself, a niece, and his pupil, Sophocles. The next winter Count Capo d'Istrias, formerly a pupil of Gazes at Vienna, became Governor of Greece. His kind attentions gave new life to his old preceptor, who consequently moved to Ægina, the seat of the provisional government, and was appointed to some educational service. Mr. Brewer went up from Syra in the same ship with Gazes and his party. "Your father ὁ μακαρίτης," said Professor Sophocles to the writer, "was the first American that I ever became acquainted with. It was he who invited me to come to America." This proposal, made in Ægina, met with the concurrence of Gazes, who rejoiced that his Thessalian disciple could have opportunities of study beyond what Greece then provided. An educated Greek, with a knowledge of English, would have good prospects of usefulness to his countrymen. No one seems to have thought of his passing his life in America. At this time his mother and sister were living in Thessaly, and his uncle, Constantius, in the convent. His own baptismal name was Sophocles, but he then signed himself Evangelinos Sophocles, having assumed the name of his grandfather. He was previously known to many as Sophocles Magnes or Thessalo Magnes, from the region of his birth.

Sophocles accompanied the missionary from Ægina to Smyrna, where they were joined by two other Greek youth. They arrived at Boston July 15, 1828, and Sophocles was sent to school to Mr. Colton, at Monson. To acquire our vernacular more rapidly, he began at once to write translations of the simple passages of the 'Græca Minora.' Latin, which he had never studied, and English were the two foreign tongues on which he fitted for college.

He long cherished the hope of returning to his native country. In 1834, while teaching mathematics in the Hartford Grammar School, he wrote with earnestness of his purpose. Late the next year he asked his friends in Greece to seek a situation for him, as he was ready to come. Perhaps the breach which then occurred between the Greek clergy and the American missionaries may have made his American education and American testimonials more of a prejudice than a help to his application. In 1837 he published one or two pamphlets of exercises in modern Greek; the next year he gave his 'Greek Grammar' to the press, and with this literary venture he seems to have settled his thoughts on a career in America. The two nations to which he belonged find in his life-work one of the multiplying ties which bind them together in sympathy and mutual respect.

FISK P. BREWER.

GRINNELL, IOWA, January 18, 1884.

Notes.

A. S. BARNES & CO. will publish, in a limited edition, a life of the late Ezra Cornell, now being prepared by his son, the ex-Governor of New York, Alonzo B. Cornell. The same firm have become the publishers of Jenkins's admirable 'Vest Pocket Dictionary' and 'Handy Dictionary.'

In May next, A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish Dr. Mombert's edition of Tyndale's Pentateuch of 1530, now for the first time reprinted in separate form, collated with the edition of 1534, in the Baptist College, Bristol, England, with Matthew's Bible of 1537, the Biblia of Stephanus of 1528, and Luther's Pentateuch of 1523. This edition will be further enriched by the Marginal Notes of Luther and John Rogers, as a contemporary commentary, and Prolegomena by Dr. Mombert. The English copy at Bristol excepted, the Lenox Library has furnished the whole of the rare apparatus used in the production of this work, the first of the kind published in America.

Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston, will publish next month a 'Sanskrit Reader,' with vocabulary and notes, by Professor Charles Rockwell Lanman, of Harvard University; a 'Manual for the Study of Latin Grammar,' by E. T. Tomlinson; and 'Stories of the Old World,' by the Rev. Alfred J. Church, in their "Classics for Children" series.

Mr. Blaine's forthcoming work will be entitled 'Twenty Years of Congress.'

'Ballades and Verses Vain' is the Spenserian title which Mr. Andrew Lang has chosen for the volume of poems soon to be published by Charles Scribner's Sons, uniform with his 'Helen of Troy.' Mr. Lang has prepared this selection of his poems especially for his American readers, and it will contain the best of the 'Lyrics and Legends of Old France,' and of the 'Ballades in Blue China,' besides certain of the poet's later verse. It will have four divisions, Ballades (of which there are thirty-six), Verses Vain, Post-Homerica, and Translations. In the preparation of the volume Mr. Lang has had the aid of Mr. Austin Dobson, who has also written for it two of his pleasant bits of verse.

Harper's Magazine, like the *Century*, has its artist abroad engraving directly from the old masters. Mr. W. B. Closson's first fruits will appear in the March number, the subject being from Murillo.

The city authorities of Boston have sanctioned the publication of a second edition of the document entitled 'Rededication of the Old State House, July 11, 1882.' Mr. Whitmore has slightly lengthened his address by inserting the details of one rather important crisis in the history of the building, and has been able to add another to the remarkable series of views which preserve the successive aspects of the old State House for a hundred years. A new plate, showing the west end, and two fresh heliotype views of the restored legislative chambers, further distinguish the present from the former edition. The authorities have now wisely ordered the work to be stereotyped, and it ought indeed to take its place among the regular prizes in the common schools. For the promotion of an intelligent civic pride, such a distribution would be of far greater value than the annual award of medals under Franklin's foundation.

J. R. Osgood & Co., Boston, publish the American edition of collected essays by Henry James, under the title of 'Portraits of Places.' The range is from Venice to Niagara. England receives most attention, next France, then America, and finally Italy. We have gladly ceded criticism of this work to our Paris correspondent, all the more as a number of its chapters appeared originally in the *Nation*.

The *Literary News* (F. Leypoldt) completes its attractiveness as a family paper by adding to its many-sided survey of current literature for adults a special department of "Current Literature for the Young," edited by Miss C. M. Hewins, with the assistance of Mrs. Leypoldt. This appears in the form of a supplement, and can be had separately for five cents a copy—a cheap enough guide to distracted parents. Special attention will be given to Sunday-school books.

With the new year, as usual, come a host of new periodicals. The *Bay-State Magazine* (Boston: Bicknell, McClintock & Co.) is designed to interest Massachusetts citizens or descendants wherever encountered, just as the *Granite Monthly* addresses itself particularly to the sons of New Hampshire. Like that elder periodical, too, it places a biographical sketch, with a portrait (of Marshall Wilder) in the forefront. Ex-Mayor Green contributes a paper on the "Old Taverns and Stage Coaches of Groton"; the chief editor, Mr. T. W. Bicknell, one on "The Family Immigration to New England." Gen. H. B. Carrington "develops" the siege of Boston with the aid of a map. The rest of the contents is readable, and the magazine may easily make a place for itself, one would think.

The *Auk* (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) is new chiefly in name, being, as we have already announced, the continuation of the *Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, in the interest of the new American Ornithologists' Union. It opens with descriptions of several new birds from Santo Domingo (one of which is pictured in a colored plate), by Charles B. Cory. Walter B. Barrows, on the other hand, tells about the birds of the Lower Uruguay, and Leonhard Stejneger of a new species of woodpecker from Kamtchatka. Long Island is not neglected. Prof. Augustus C. Merriam and Dr. Elliott Coues have a bout over the philological part of the latter's 'Check List.' The magazine shows a marked gain in fulness and interest.

Mr. Charles A. Peverelly continues his journalistic devotion to sport on the water by issuing the first number of his *American Aquatic Magazine* (New York: Hearne & Co.).

Mr. R. Verea begins, at No. 29 Ann Street, *El Progreso*, a monthly illustrated periodical, having a generous regard for "todos los conocimentos humanos."

In the *Medical News* for January 12 will be found an article of exceptional interest on the expert testimony in the Dwight insurance case, by Dr. Horatio C. Wood. This case is almost romantic in its appearance of fraudulent suicide.

In the December number of *Le Livre*, Champfleury chooses the title, "The Friends of Balzac," to prove that this great author had none, in the sense in which the head of a school has his set of admirers and hangers-on; and to make a home thrust at Gavarni, who was intimate with Balzac, for his plain-spokenness concerning the personal habits of his intellectual superior. An historical article on "German Caricature," by J. Grand-Carteret, who professes to have undertaken a task neglected by the Germans themselves, is not uncivil to the masters of the Rhine, furnishes much curious information, and is illustrated by a large number of specimen designs, of which one occupies a full page. The January number shows a number of typographical improvements in this always handsome magazine, though a sure taste does not yet preside over the choice of head and tail-pieces. Here the most interesting of the leading papers is one on Lamennais as a critic and bibliophile, by Eugène Forgues. The material is rather scanty for the thesis, but it is all interesting, even if the nature of Lamennais's library is left very vague; and a good many hitherto unpublished letters do show how he regarded the works of his contemporaries, and what an impression, for example, Sue's 'Wandering Jew' made upon him. A striking portrait of the author of the 'Paroles d'un Croyant' accompanies the article. Among the announcements is one to the effect that General Trochu, who has long been eclipsed by changing events in France, is giving the finishing touches to an important work on the siege of Paris.

In the *Revue Historique* for January–February, H. Adams has a very interesting article on Napoleon I. and San Domingo, bringing out the First Consul's scheme of making this island the connecting link between the mother country and Louisiana—the key, in short, to the colonial system of France. Mr. Adams prints from the Archives a large number of letters relating to Leclerc's campaign and perfidy to Toussaint, and even takes part with the Consul against the Emperor, by upholding the original scheme against Napoleon's apologetic and historically unfaithful exposition of it at Saint Helena. But at its best this particular *idée Napoléonienne* can only be judged by an Anglo-Saxon critic as essentially a product of the geographical deficiencies of the French intellect. Take, for example, the First Consul's diplomatic excuse to England for reënslaving the blacks of San Domingo, that "if their liberty were once recognized, it would furnish the Republic of the United States with a *point d'appui* for all time." This is comical, when we recall the alarm with which our slaveholding Republic witnessed emancipation in the British West Indies in 1834–38, and its refusal to recognize the independence of Hayti at the latter date. Amusing, too, in a sad way, are the official reports of Toussaint's keepers at the Château de Joux, concerning his failing health. One says he called in neither doctor nor surgeon, since, owing to the total difference in the constitutions of negroes and Europeans, it would have been useless. Another explains that he was never asked by Toussaint to call in one. Still another relates: "Il y a trois jours qu'il fut assez impudent pour me dire qu'en France il n'y avait que des hommes méchants, injustes, calomniateurs (ce sont ses termes), de qui l'on ne pouvait obtenir justice."

Italy's "prima colonia," Assab, at the lower extremity of the Red Sea, has lately been visited by Prof. G. B. Licata, and pronounced highly flourishing. He brings back, says the *Bollettino* of the African Society of Naples, a great mass of scientific observations on that salt-making neighborhood, with botanical, zoölogical, and mineralogical collections. Meteorology, linguistics, and ethnology were also regarded.

Trübner & Co. send us the first numbers of the fortnightly *Revue Internationale*, the latest "iron in the fire" of the indefatigable Professor Angelo de Gubernatis. They bear date of December 25, 1883, and January 10, 1884, respectively, the place of publication being Florence. In his somewhat grandiose preface, the editor pictures the *Revue* as a peace-offering among the nations—more particularly, it is inferrible, between Italy and France. He disclaims any intention of rivalling the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. His scheme embraces original articles, translations, book reviews, literary correspondence; and is unlike any other ever before launched. Thus, Dr. von Holtzendorff discusses the creation of a chair of international instruction at the University of Rome; Professor G. Giuliani, Dante and the Duomo of Florence; Laveleye, the division of parties and the parliamentary régime in Belgium. Max Müller writes of Rammohun Roy, the famous Indian religionist of a generation ago. The Princess Dora D'Istria relates the legend of Rurik. F. Antony deals with the contemporary drama in Italy. President Opzoomer writes on Hugo Grotius. Jules Claretie adds one more laurel to Victor Hugo's wreath. Dessewffy contributes three poetical translations from Petöfi. The special correspondence is certainly very extensive, and in good hands. As yet the United States seems unprovided for. Miss Helen Zimmern promises an article on Nathaniel Hawthorne. The *Revue* is well and tastefully printed.

The *Antiquary* for December contains several entertaining articles on "Pepys as a Citizen," "May Fair," "Two Old Country Residences,', etc.; and there are two short papers of considerable importance in the history of institutions. That upon "Borough English"—*Ultimogeniture* it is called by some writers—is a very good summary of the various theories that have been advanced to explain the origin of this usage; but it contains no positively new information. Mr. Hubert Hall's paper upon "Early River Conservancy" is probably the most important in the number; it treats of the "common" rivers, which "were of even greater importance to the trader of olden days than the well-worn high road or boggy lanes of the overland route." In speaking of the provisions said to have been made in certain indentures of apprentices, that salmon "should not be set before them on more than three days in the week," he remarks: "no indentures of this kind have ever been discovered, . . . nor . . . will any such ever be forthcoming. The whole tale is a myth, for salmon was always the most costly species of the whole finny tribe. Some day, perchance, students of folk-lore may discern that the story was an elaborate sarcasm current among masters at the expense of the proud stomachs of their 'prentices." Bewick, however, who had been both apprentice and master, referring, in his autobiography, to his own boyhood (in 1760 to 1767) and the then cheapness of salmon, says: "Before, or perhaps about this time, there had always been an article inserted in every indenture in Newcastle, that the apprentice was not to be obliged to eat salmon above twice a week, and the like bargain was made upon hiring ordinary servants." The same story is common in various places in this country, and we should be glad to know if any such indentures or regulations are actually in existence.

The 'Almanach du *Figaro*' has the same easy wit and easy morality to be found in the *Figaro* itself, and also the same flavor of purchasable praise which disfigures that paper even more than most of its Parisian contemporaries. Some of the illustrations are process-blocks printed in two colors—an art in which the French excel—and the others are printed in color on a page of letter-press in black. But neither the art nor the literature is remarkable except for its flippant levity. What we found in it most amusing was the advertisment of an American bar in Paris, with recipes for a "meint jalep" and a brandy cocktail. In the construction of the latter the French artist employs "sirop de gomme" and curaçoa.

In a recent number of the *National Review* Mr. Henry Blackburn had a paper on "The Art of Illustrating Books." It was calculated a little too closely for the meridian of London, and therefore did not reveal any close comprehension of the American advance in wood-engraving. Especially was it wanting in its treatment of the new "processes" which are now adequate to the execution of much of the most characteristic work in the American magazines. This process-work is generally puzzling to English critics. The *Saturday Review*, for example, praised the drawing and the engraving of the illustrations in Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Robin Hood,' and only suspected that they were the work of "the so-called typo-etcher," while the *Academy* devoted itself to a consideration of the quality of the engraving, which it found rather German than American, and some of which it inclined to believe to be due to Mr. Pyle himself. Of course all American readers saw at once that every cut in Mr. Pyle's admirable book was "processed"—to use a new verb invented to fit a new thing—just as the drawings of Mr. Abbey and Mr. Parsons in illustration of Pope's poem, in the Christmas *Harper*, were also "processed."

It has long been suspected that several of the small planets are of variable brightness, and Ferguson more than thirty years ago made observations with reference to this point. While one of the brightest of these planets, Vesta, the fourth in the order of discovery, was near its stationary point in 1883, Professor Harrington, of Ann Arbor, made a series of photometric observations, comparing it with two of Argelander's stars near by, the one being fainter and the other brighter than Vesta—from which he concludes that the planet's light is variable. As a result of his own observations and other considerations mentioned, it seems probable that Vesta is a body about 500 miles in diameter, and that it resembles the moon in lacking an appreciable atmosphere and water. To account for the observed irregularities of the planet's light, it may be presumed that it rotates on its axis, and that the surface is very rough. The period of Vesta's rotation is not indicated, but the rapidity of the changes in its light leads to the conclusion that it is short. What is true of Vesta may be regarded as likely to be true, *mutatis mutandis*, of the other small planets—a sizable family of bodies in the solar system our knowledge of which is chiefly confined to data of precision relating to the orbits in which they move, and the physical characteristics of which must remain almost entirely unknown.

—We have received from Geo. A. Leavitt & Co. a copy of the catalogue of the library of the late Henry Cruse Murphy, of Brooklyn, to be sold by them on March 3 and the following days at Clinton Hall. This library consists almost wholly of

Americana, or books relating to America. A brief sketch of the life of the collector, penned by a friendly hand, makes a fitting preface to this volume. Mr. Murphy was born in Brooklyn in 1810, graduated from Columbia College in 1830, and gained admittance to the bar in 1833. He filled the offices of Attorney, Counsel, and Mayor of his native city, was four years a member of the National Congress, twelve years a Senator in the New York Legislature, and four years United States Minister to the Netherlands. He was a journalist of repute, and among the historians of the early settlement of New Netherlands his name fills the leading place. His title to fame rests upon solid foundation, and not alone on his public services as a legislator, diplomat, and civic ruler, but mainly upon his love of books. This catalogue of his library, a carefully prepared work of four hundred and thirty-four pages, describes in upwards of three thousand numbers some of the rarest books that ever came under the auctioneer's hammer To select *the* gem of the Murphy collection would be a hazardable undertaking. At a venture, however, we have picked out the 'Jesuit Relations' as likely to take the lead in the biddings. This nearly matchless set comprises forty-two volumes, of which thirty-six are original editions. To bring these Relations' together was a work of Mr. Murphy's life. "In the great book-markets of London, Paris, Leipsic, and Amsterdam, his agents were constantly on the lookout for volumes, and it was only through this constant watchfulness that this remarkable set was made." The "Columbus Letter," a precious tract of three leaves, printed at Rome in 1493, is a thing for any possessor to be proud of. Its English title would be something like this: "Letter from Christopher Columbus (to whom our age oweth much) concerning the Islands of India beyond the Ganges, recently discovered, in the search of which he was sent eight months ago under the auspices and at the expense of the most invincible sovereigns of the Spains, Ferdinand and Isabella . . . translated from the Spanish into Latin the third day of the calends of May, 1493." Five thousand francs is the price marked in a late Paris catalogue for a copy of this "excessively rare" tract. Brotherhead's 'Centennial Book of the Signers,' with autograph letters of the signers of the Declaration of Independence added, together with portraits, views, etc., make up a volume of great interest and value. A note to this title informs us that "some twenty years since a less perfect, and in every way inferior, collection of original letters of the signers only was sold at auction in New York for a thousand dollars." Thirty-seven numbers of the catalogue describe as many editions of the 'Cosmographia' of the "divine" Ptolemy, twenty-six bearing dates from 1462 to 1600. The edition of 1462 is a marked one because of its date, and for a century and more has been a standard puzzle of bibliography. The learned agree that the date (1462) is false, but they disagree as to the true one, some favoring 1472, others 1482, and others 1491. Mr. Murphy was inclined to fix it at 1482, and we cannot gainsay so high an authority. Another edition, printed in 1535, is interesting on account of the name of its editor, Michael Servetus, the martyr. It is an historical fact that a passage from this edition of Ptolemy, stating that Palestine was not such a fertile country as people generally believed, since modern travellers related that it was entirely barren, was the foundation of one of the charges brought against Servetus, for which he suffered at the stake.

—The pages of the catalogue fairly sparkle with the names of Vespucius, Verrazzano, De Soto, De Bry, Hakluyt, Lescarbot, Strabo, Peter Martyr, etc., and it can truly be said that scarcely one of the old-time voyagers and geographers has been left out. Eliot's 'Indian Bible' and his 'New Testament' take up five numbers of the catalogue These are the masterpieces of American printing in the seventeenth century. The "Marquis of Hastings's copy" comes into the list, and for this identical book Mr. Quaritch, the London bookseller, received $1,100. Other Eliot titles are 'Tears of Repentance,' and three distinct works relating to the 'Progress of the Gospel among the Indians in New England.' The Mathers, Increase and Cotton, are here in twenty examples; and so are Thomas Morton, with his 'New English Canaan'; G. Mourt, with his famous 'Relation'; Thomas Welde, with his 'Short Story of the Rise, Reign, and Ruine of the Antinomians'; Roger Williams, with his 'Key into the Language of America,' etc., etc., in strange print and rich binding—a hoard of "nuggets" to gladden the eyes and lighten the pockets of bibliomaniacs from far and near. The numerous curious notes scattered through the catalogue make the work doubly serviceable to those into whose hands it will pass. Some of the notes are attributed to Mr. Murphy himself, and those by the maker of the catalogue exhibit a close acquaintance with many branches of literature.

—Mr. George W. Cable, in the February *Century*, calls attention to the evils of the convict-lease system in the Southern States. The following is his description of the system:

"Its features vary in different regions. In some, the State retains the penitentiary in charge of its officers, and leases out the convicts in gangs of scores or hundreds to persons who use them anywhere within the State boundaries in the execution of private enterprises or public or semi-public works. In a few cases the penitentiary itself, its appliances and its inmates, all and entire, are leased, sometimes annually or biennially, sometimes for five and sometimes for ten or even twenty years, and the convicts worked within or without the prison walls, and near to or distant from them, as various circumstances may regulate, being transferred from place to place in companies under military or semi-military guard, and quartered in camps or herded in stockades convenient to their fields of labor. In two or three States the Government's abandonment of its trust is still more nearly complete, the terms of the lease going so far as to assign to the lessees the entire custody and discipline of the convicts, and even their medical and surgical care. But a clause common to all these prison leases is that which allows a portion, at least, and sometimes all, of the prisoners to be worked in parts of the State remote from the prison."

The result is, of course, that the treatment of the convicts depends altogether upon the humanity of the lessees, overseers, or bosses who work them, and the result is a very high convict death rate in some parts of the South. Thus in North Carolina, among convicts working on the railroads, in 1879 and 1880, 178 died out of 776, or 11½ per cent.—a rate, says Mr. Cable, greater than that of New Orleans in the great yellow-fever year of 1853. Of these 178, no less than 11 were shot down in attempting to escape—a fact that reveals the severity of the discipline which the overseers find it necessary to maintain. They seem to be worked somewhat as the Roman convict gangs used to be two thousand years ago, and it is very significant of the general tone of the civilization which the South has inherited from the old ante-war times, that it is only just now that the attention of Southerners is beginning to be awakened to the pagan barbarity of the system. As Mr. Cable very justly says, no Christian community has any right to treat human beings in such a way. It is responsible for its convicts, and is charged with a duty a little more delicate than that of letting them out to be worked by brutal lessees and washing its hands entirely of them. Of course, the system results in its being very difficult to get at the facts with regard to many of the States, as, for instance, the following correspondence with the Arkansas lessee shows:

"OFFICE OF LESSEE ARKANSAS STATE PENITENTIARY, LITTLE ROCK, ARK, Jan. 12, 1882.

"DEAR SIR: Your postal of request to hand; sorry to say cannot send you report, as there are none given. The business of the Arkansas State Penitentiary is of a private nature, and no report is made to the public. Any private information relative to the men will be furnished upon application for same.

"Very respectfully,
"ZEB. WARD, Lessee.
"Z. J."

"OFFICE OF LESSEE ARKANSAS STATE PENITENTIARY, LITTLE ROCK, ARK., July 2, 1882.

"DEAR SIR: Yours of——date to hand and fully noted. Your inquiries, if answered, would require much time and labor. I am sole lessee, and work all the convicts, and of course the business of the prison is my private business. My book-keeper is kept quite busy with my business, and no time to make out all the queries you ask for. Similar information is given to the Legislature once in two years.

"Respectfully,
"ZEB. WARD."

—Mr. Cable calls for the substitution of the Northern contract or State-employment system; but, unless we are greatly mistaken, the problem is not so simple as this solution would seem to make it. Is it not seriously complicated with the race question? Mr. Cable's statistics do not discriminate between black and white, but probably the convicts employed on the railroads and in other manual labor in gangs are, to a large extent, blacks who have been accustomed to labor of this sort, and are better fitted for it than for making shoes, stoves, or hats. The mere fact that convicts in the South are worked in gangs is not therefore enough. It is how they are worked, how much they are worked, the character of the food they are given, and the discipline that they are subjected to that need investigation. Mr. Cable brings forward facts enough to show that the Southern convict system needs overhauling; but the inference that the reader would naturally draw—that nothing more is required than the abolition of leases, and the substitution of the Northern system of contracts—is misleading. A lessee can be held in check and made to work his gang properly, just as well as a contractor. In fact, a short lease of the labor of a gang of field-hands is in principle the same thing as a Northern shoe contract. Constant State supervision and publicity are evidently much needed, and nothing is better adapted to bring them about than the publication of articles by Southerners who feel the inhumanity of such features of Southern life.

—*Harper's* contains an illustrated article on "A Winter in Canada," by C. H. Farnham. The writer finds in Canada what all Americans find there—a civilization in complete contrast with their own in two essential points. Repose and good manners pervade the simple life of the Canadian French. "Your feelings," says Mr. Farnham, with a naïf humor, "are as safe as your life." It is, moreover, a different sort of politeness from that which we meet with in Upper Canada, though this again, as a change from our system, is refreshing. Old-fashioned courtesy, strictly speaking, it is difficult to find in the United States, except in certain parts of the South—Virginia, for instance—where in little antique oases may be found fine specimens of what we feel must have been the best manners of the last century. The caricatures of these in the newer Southern and Southwestern States should not be confounded with the genuine and now very scarce Virginian—or Southern—man-

ners. This survival, however, is confined to a small class, and bids fair to be soon repudiated altogether by the new Southern school, which feels toward the old rules of breeding much as the Mahones of the South do toward the old fancy about the binding nature of a pecuniary obligation. But in Canada we find ourselves in the midst of the traditions of another race, another language, and another religion, and get much further back into the past—two centuries instead of one. Nor is it among a few superfluous veterans that the old atmosphere is preserved. The atmosphere of Canada seems to know no change. The Quebec of to-day is the Quebec of Wolfe, and the Seigneur of the lower St. Lawrence, if he cannot claim feudal services, still has a seignory, and still lives among a simple-minded peasantry, benighted enough to connect his social position in some way with their religion. In the Easy Chair, Mr. Curtis returns to the "society news" question, and deals with it carefully and judicially; but he mistakes our position, and attributes to our views a dependence upon those of Mr. Richard Grant White, while we regard them as so independent of his that, even had he never written a line about the true aristocracy of America, they would have been forthcoming, expressed with boldness, yet not too boldly. Our position is this: Jenkins was a snob; Society News differs from the snob quite as much as the society of the Jenkins period differed from the society of our day. Mr. Curtis seems to insist that society is unchanged; but how can this be, when its change is reflected in Society News? Snobbishness is a sort of tribute paid to real social virtue by hypocrisy; and Jenkins was something of a hypocrite. But brazen effrontery is the chief "note" of Society News. He is a vulgar ruffian who gets under our sofa to overhear the orders we give our cook, hides behind our curtain to get at the "bottom facts" of our private family life, or who receives orders from vulgarians a little wealthier than himself to "notice" properly the supplies of coal they are distributing to the poor, or the cost of the "lay-out" for the great fandango which is to get them into society. Jenkins is disappearing, just as snobbishness is disappearing.

—The February *Atlantic* has an article by the Rev. O. B. Frothingham, called "Voices of Power." The pulpit, the press, and the stage are the three voices of the modern world on whose power he especially dwells. Admitting that the position of the clergyman is not what it once was, that the foundations of his authority have been sapped by the progress of modern thought, he still insists that he has a function to perform which neither the newspaper nor the drama can take from it. The introduction of the drama seems to confuse matters a little, for it cannot be said that the drama, ancient or modern, ever showed any signs of a tendency to usurp the attributes of the pulpit, and, indeed, we cannot see exactly what the two have to do with one another, while there is undoubtedly a rivalry in a certain sense between the pulpit and the press. Both, in Protestant countries, aim at influencing public opinion, and though the secular press shows very little interest in matters of dogma or sectarianism, it continually exhorts, holds up moral standards, discusses the moral aspects of social and political questions, and has a most important influence upon the general moral tone of its readers. Mr. Frothingham objects to the newspaper code of morals that it is "conventional," as distinguished from that of the pulpit.

"It appeals to the general conscience. It rarely soars above its occasion, or leaves the beaten track of conviction. The paper assumes the average moral sentiment of the community—the highest average sentiment, certainly—and is compelled to be, in substance, commonplace. It cannot diverge far from accepted principle, for by so doing it would be unfaithful to its leading purpose, which is to enlighten the minds of its contemporaries, not directly to elevate their consciences. It takes existing laws of duty for granted, follows the road of tradition, and, however fresh and forcible it may be in expression, abides by conceded examples. Now and then an editor ventures on original theses, indulges in speculative lucubrations, or propounds ethical theories beyond his calling. But this is felt to be out of his province, and is set down to the account of some private eccentricity. The task of uplifting the souls of men is committed to other hands, and if intrusted to him alone would hardly be fulfilled. To him belongs the office of the interpreter, not that of the prophet. Unquestionably, his influence may be great in extending the sphere of the pulpit, in holding the preacher to the level of his vocation, in distributing moral forces, but his power to originate them is small."

By what he says later on, it appears that he means by this that newspaper morality is limited by business considerations. A paper must pay a fair interest on the invested capital; and consequently must provide the kind of morality that the public like to buy. But there is really not so much difference between press and pulpit here as might seem at first sight. A modern church represents a certain amount of aggregated capital contributed voluntarily for the purpose of getting a certain amount of exhortation or exegesis, of music, of devotion, prayer, and praise. If the moral part is not to the satisfaction of the congregation, the clergyman is nearly as apt to find himself left without an audience as a newspaper. The voluntary principle in religion produces just the same effects that business principles do in the newspaper, and we doubt very much whether newspaper morality is on the whole more commonplace or limited than that of the pulpit. The pulpit has one great advantage over a large part of the press, so far as morality is concerned, which Dr. Frothingham does not mention—that it does not have to provide its audience with "spicy" news in addition to exhortation. Notwithstanding this, we think the secular press may fairly "claim" for its editorial page that its appeals to the public conscience are worth as much, appeal for appeal, as those of the pulpit.

—We have received from President Anderson, of the University of Chicago, a letter in regard to Dr. Clevenger substantially the same as that which we printed last week from another correspondent. President Anderson adds:

"We endeavor to teach here all that belongs to science, in every department of investigation. We make, and intend to make, a sharp distinction between science, that which is really known, and hypothesis. We teach both, but we mean to call each by its appropriate name."

—From the forthcoming volume of the Census Reports, relating to wealth, debt, and taxation, we learn that the estimated true valuation of the country upon June 1, 1880, was 43,642 millions of dollars. This estimate can, from the nature of the elements which enter into it, be but an approximation to the truth, and this fact is sufficiently indicated by the *roundness* of the figures in which the result is expressed. Still, it is probable that the truth has been much more nearly reached than ever before. The following table shows the valuation in 1880, 1870, 1860, and 1850, as given by the reports of the Census of those dates, with the percentage of increase from one date to another:

	Valuation in Millions.	Per cent. of increase.
1850	7,136	.....
1860	16,160	126.4
1870	24,055	48.9
1880	43,642	81.4

The valuation in 1850 is unquestionably an under-estimate, as is indicated by many considerations, which cannot, however, be discussed here. It should be remarked, too, that the valuation in 1870, given in the Census report of that date as $30,069,000,000, was expressed in currency, which was then at an average discount of about 20 per cent. The amount given in the above table is the gold value, and this value was used in computing the percentage of increase between 1860 and 1870, and 1870 and 1880. Moreover, the value of several millions of slaves, which formed a very notable part of the wealth in 1850 and 1860, disappeared in 1870. It is estimated that the value of this species of property was, in 1860, not far from $1,250,000,000. The loss of these slaves and the ravages of war diminished the property of the Southern States enormously, reducing them from the wealthiest States, in proportion to population, to the poorest.

—It appears that wealth has, during each decennial period, increased much more rapidly than population, as is further shown below:

Years.	Valuation per capita.	Per cent. of incr. of valuation per capita.
1850	$308	..
1860	514	67
1870	624	21
1880	870	39

The following are the principal items of wealth, with the estimated value of each in millions of dollars:

Farms	10,197
Residence and business real estate	9,881
All real estate exempt from taxation	2,000
Railroads and equipment	5,536
Telegraphs, shipping, and canals	419
Live stock, farming tools, and machinery	2,406
Household furniture, clothing, paintings, books, jewelry, household supplies of food, fuel, etc	5,000
Mines, etc., with one-half the annual product	781
Three-fourths the annual product of agriculture and manufactures, and of imports of foreign goods	6,160
Specie	612

This estimate places this country at the head of all the nations of the world in accumulated wealth, if we accept the estimates of Mulhall ('Balance Sheet of the World') as being correct in regard to other countries. Its nearest competitor is Great Britain, which, according to this authority, had in 1880 a valuation of 43,366 millions. France was an easy third, with 35,898 millions. Then followed Germany, with 29,403; Russia, with 17,134; and Austria, with 14,762 millions. It may be of interest to note here that Mulhall estimates the wealth of the United States in 1880 at 7,880 millions of pounds, or 38,139 millions of dollars—an amount absurdly small. Then, from this and the Census valuation in 1870, which is taken at its value in *paper*, he deduces the discouraging fact that wealth has increased at a lower rate than population during the past decade, which, as is well known, has been, on the whole, one of unexampled prosperity. The following note appended to Mr. Mulhall's estimate ('Balance Sheet of the World,' 2d ed., p. 31) has a curious sound to the American reader: "The Census returns just published are 25 per cent. over this figure, but perhaps the lands have been overvalued." It is not apparent where Mr. Mulhall obtained the figures indicated in this note, as the estimate with which this article opens is the only one made public by the Census Office.

—The extracts from the Diary of the Marquis Tsêng, recent Chinese Ambassador to England and France, translated by Mr. J. N. Jordan, and published in the December number of the *Nineteenth Century*, give some curious views of the estimation in which the civilization of Europe and America is held by an Oriental scholar. With the true instincts of a patriotic Chinaman, he seems to have measured and estimated everything from its resemblance to something in

the history of his own country. Nothing appears to have met with his approval except when he was able to find its prototype and its favorable influence in some early dynasty. In his opinion, "the ascendency of Western nations is due, not to the extent of their wealth, but to the sympathy which exists between the people and the governing classes, and in this respect they are exemplifying the maxims of China's sages of old." The belief is expressed that "the systems of government and civilization prevailing in the West bear a close resemblance to the institutions of China in the Chow dynasty." He even goes so far as to say, "it is plain that all Western institutions have existed in the past in China." When the objection is raised that steamers, steam-engines, etc., were unknown in past ages, his answer is ready: "By such an assertion the fact is ignored that mechanical ingenuity depends upon material resources, and varies according to a nation's prosperity or decay. In olden times China had no lack of mechanical appliances, but, as her national prosperity gradually declined, her people fell into idle and thriftless habits, and mechanical arts gradually died out. As by a glance at what Europe now is we may see what China once was, so by noting what China now is we may learn what Europe will one day become." But notwithstanding the apparent superciliousness of these views, the Marquis is inclined to what his countrymen would call a most liberal policy. He relates that just before leaving Shanghai he met Chang Huan-lun, "a young man of great promise and extraordinary attainments," who submitted to the Ambassador six propositions "which," in his opinion, "evince such originality of thought and such depth of insight, and are so different from the random assertions one often hears," that he reproduces them. They are: (1) the necessity of contracting a firm alliance with England, for the purpose of repelling Russian aggression; (2) the importance of adopting an honest and straightforward course of policy in our international relations, with a view to removing feelings of mutual distrust; (3) the advantages of embracing every opportunity of meeting Western scholars, so as to profit by their intercourse and conversation; (4) the advisableness of keeping ourselves informed from time to time of the price and quality of Western mechanical appliances, so as to avoid falling victims to fraud in purchasing them; (5) the translation of treatises on foreign systems of government, with a view to the adoption of what may be found useful therein; and (6) the arrangement, in the interests of China, of some satisfactory understanding with England for the stoppage of the opium traffic. The first of these propositions the Marquis could not accept in its entirety, and concerning the sixth he anticipates difficulty in securing such a solution as is there indicated. The views expressed in the remaining ones agree in the main with the opinions he has always held. It is also of interest to note that his belief is unqualified that a mistake was made in establishing the "Educational Mission" in America. Far greater advantage, in his opinion, is to be derived by China from the education of youths in the Government schools in Peking and Canton than from sending them to be educated either in Europe or in America.

—M. Clermont-Ganneau communicates to the London *Times* the news of an interesting find made in the Lebanon Mountains by M. Pognon, Assistant Consul of the French Republic at Beyrout. He vouches for its genuineness, having at his disposal the original documents, just laid before the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres by the Orientalist, Barbier de Meynard. M. Pognon, his admiring countryman tells us, has had the good luck to discover in one of the wildest valleys of the eastern slope of Lebanon, about two hours from Hermel, a village near the Orontes, two inscriptions of King Nebuchadnezzar. They are engraved on the rock, and placed opposite each other on the right and left of the pathway occupying the hollow of the valley. They measure a little over five metres in breadth, and about half as much in height. One is in an archaic and the other in cursive cuneiform characters, both together forming nineteen columns. Each inscription is accompanied by a basso-rilievo. One of the images is that of a person wearing the Assyrian tiara, and seizing an animal, possibly a lion, standing on its hind legs; and the other represents a man in adoration before a tree. Each inscription begins with the titles of the King: "Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon, the illustrious pastor, the servant of Merodach, the great lord, his creator, and of Nebo, the illustrious son, whom his royalty loves." In other respects the texts differ. They mainly contain an account of buildings which the King is having constructed in Babylon. Some of the contents is a reproduction of texts already found elsewhere. The inscriptions are badly mutilated—in fact, "in a deplorable state of obliteration." The discoverer does not think that they indicate a place where the Babylonian conqueror passed with his army; he believes they mark the site of a timber-yard where trees were cut to be sent to Babylon. This agrees with a formerly-discovered inscription of the same monarch, which says "that he has employed for the woodwork of the Chamber of Oracles the largest of the trees which he has conveyed from Mount Lebanon." In reference to the use by ancient princes of the cedars of Lebanon, M. Clermont-Ganneau makes some very interesting remarks and comparisons of a learned character, but he forgets to quote that Biblical "proverb against the King of Babylon"—evidently the same Nebuchadnezzar, although the words are contained in a chapter ascribed to the much older Isaiah (xiv.): "Yea, the fir trees rejoice at thee, and the cedars of Lebanon, saying, Since thou art laid down, no feller is come up against us."

—That composite weekly, the *Journal Général de la Librairie*, etc., lately published in its *Chronique* the address of Alexandre Dumas to the electors of Seine-et-Oise in 1848. It was worthy of the great inventor. In 1848 the workman was supreme. To them, therefore, the candidate recommended himself as a fellow-workman and a benefactor of workmen. "Without counting," he says, "six years of education, four years of notaryship, and seven years in office, I have labored twenty years at ten hours a day (73,000 hours) in composing 400 volumes and 35 dramas. Four thousand copies, on an average, were printed of the volumes and sold at five francs apiece—11,853,600 francs. The 35 dramas were played 100 times apiece—6,360,000 francs." He then goes on to state how much his novels have produced for various classes of workmen—compositors, 264,000 francs; pressmen, 528,000; paper-makers, binders, booksellers, engravers, circulating libraries, expressmen, etc. And his dramas similarly have brought such and such sums (which he displays in a long column carefully added up) to the directors, actors, decorators, costumers, hairdressers, bill-stickers, machinists, ticket-sellers, firemen, musicians, and so on, including, of course, the poor, who by law have their five per cent. of the receipts. With all this, Dumas was not elected. The workmen cared nothing for these material benefits. Perhaps if he could have appealed to those who had profited in another way by his writings, those who had drawn not francs but enjoyment from them, the result might have been different. The companion of D'Artagnan through the eight volumes of his adventures would not have turned a cold shoulder upon his historian. Even now, when we are told that a new generation has grown up which knows not Dumas, we fancy he could find a sufficiently numerous constituency. At any rate, his lately-erected statue was warmly greeted.

EXCURSIONS OF AN EVOLUTIONIST.

Excursions of an Evolutionist. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. 379. $2.00.

AMONG our thoughtful essayists, there are none more brilliant than Mr. John Fiske. His pure style suits his clear thought. He does not write unless he has something to say; and when he does write, he shows not only that he has thoroughly acquainted himself with the subject, but that he has to a rare degree the art of so massing his matter as to bring out the true value of the leading points in artistic relief. It is this perspective which makes his work such agreeable reading even on abstruse subjects, and has enabled him to play the same part in popularizing Spencer in this country that Littré performed for Comte in France, and Dumont for Bentham in England. The same qualities appear to good advantage in his new volume, which contains his later essays on his favorite subject of evolution. Most of them (if not all) have already appeared in the magazines, but they are well worth reperusal in a permanent form.

The papers fall mainly into two groups—those concerning the evolution of primitive man in Europe, and those concerning the evolution of Protestantism there—with a few scattering but cognate essays on hero-worship, Darwin, Clifford, etc. The first chapters, on the arrival of man in Europe, give the best popular account that we have seen of that interesting subject—the only one, indeed, in which the preglacial remains in Portugal and California are fairly estimated. Some high authorities give less weight than Mr. Fiske to the theory of Croll, which connects our glacial period with perturbations of the earth's orbit some one or two hundred thousand years ago. Some of them prefer to set a nearer date for that period, and consequently for the appearance of that Arctic race of cave-dwelling men who accompanied it. But the expanse of time since man appeared is so great, on any of the computations now in scientific favor, as to stagger the imagination, and dull it with endless centuries of savagery. The exact length of those long periods in which humanity seemed to stagnate is not a very vital question, for we measure time by its accomplishment rather than the lapse of the monotonous years.

There is a good deal to be said in favor of the theory which Mr. Fiske adopts, that the "missing link," the ape man who first began to use flint weapons and live by his wits rather than his muscles, is to be sought far back in the miocene period, which was so prolific in new animal forms; though, in the absence of any remains but chipped flints and hacked bones, we cannot be sure of the degree of development then reached. The conditions evidently favored change; and variation, once begun, is apt to spread, as the botanists who are trying to make our flowers sport into new forms to-day are well aware. When variation really begins it is not hard to continue and direct it, for the previously unbroken force of heredity is partially counteracted. And so for a time we may well suppose

that this half-hatched humanity was plastic; that variations were abundant and important; and that the new and more intellectual form which the struggle for existence assumed, cooperated with a sexual selection more influenced by considerations of beauty than before, so that the new race progressed for a time at an exceedingly rapid rate. But by the time the period was reached to which we must refer the earliest discovered human bones, the remains of that extinct race of hunters who preceded the glaciers, and whom Mr. Boyd Dawkins calls the men of the river drift, we find a race which had taken the shape of humanity as we know it, but had apparently no power to develop its higher qualities. Natural selection seems to have become a static, not a dynamic power; preserving, but no longer improving man. It had roughly harmonized him with his surroundings in favored European spots, but it had done so in a way which weeded out any further growth there. And when the change of climate came, and these prematurely arrested men of the river drift died out, they left the country to the equally unprogressive but hardier coeval race of Eskimo cave-dwellers, who moved down from the North with the glaciers, and at last retreated northward with them, and still exist there with their primitive characteristics seemingly unchanged since the age of the mammoth.

This long period of savagery lasted for hundreds of thousands of years, according to Mr. Fiske's computation of time—a stagnant marsh of humanity without apparently one current of progress. The few thousand years of modern progress, compared with those interminable centuries of stupor which roll lifelessly back through the age of stone weapons, seem but the passing phase of a moment, like the waking of the Emperor Barbarossa from his magic sleep for an instant once in a century. No one can deny that we are now awake and are living in a period of rapid evolution; but just what relation it bears to the infinitely longer periods of rest or retrogression, neither Mr. Fiske nor Mr. Spencer has yet pointed out. All that we know is that some time after the final retreat of the glaciers, a great awakening of humanity did come in Asia. The European record only shows that after the restoration of a temperate climate the dark-haired Iberian wandered into Europe with his dogs and cattle and grain and pottery, bringing with him from the Orient the rudiments of civilization, and that the tall blonde Aryan, who after a time followed him and conquered him, had the same origin. Pursuing the line of philological argument suggested by Max Müller and others, Mr. Fiske reconstructs some part of the lost Aryan tongue, and derives from it a good deal of information of their customs and character. It is very interesting, but, from the evolution standpoint, one wants to go further, and learn how this strange new civilization arose, with the promise of all our modern progress. What raised this wonderful Aryan from the dead level of the dwellers of the cave and the river drift, and, like the leaven in the parable, gave lightness and life to the whole world? One or two things may be suggested. The discovery of the art of working bronze must have had some stimulating effect, but one must look deeper for a true cause. While fertile Europe stagnated in the hands of a single feeble race, at least three great ones were striving together in Asia: the ancestors of the Iberian, the Mongol, and the Aryan. Then the character of the country encouraged extensive migrations, and emigration is often a vigorous selection of the best stock, particularly when it is aided by the radical sexual selection which accompanies a disproportion of the sexes and a judicious intermixture of foreign blood; and it is favored and its fruits are preserved by new surroundings. The only two cases of marked race development that can be plainly traced in historical times are those of the Teutons in northern Europe and the Moors in Spain—both migratory tribes settling in a land more fertile than their own. But then, many Asiatic migrations come quickly to mind, like that of the Turks into Europe, which produced no such results, so that evidently some other elements must have been active with these to explain the awakening. Mr. Spencer's old suggestion of a rhythmic law of alternating evolution and disintegration Mr. Fiske has never given much weight to. Probably he recognizes in its notes more of the poet's music of the spheres than the anvil clang of modern science.

Toward the middle of the volume Mr. Fiske reprints his reply to the attack which Dr. William James made upon Spencer in the *Atlantic*, three years ago. Dr. James, it will be remembered, objected to the insufficient part which Spencer assigns to the influence of great men upon the progress of humanity; and Mr. Fiske speaks with his master's authority in his defence. The question of hero-worship is so much a matter of sentiment and of point of view, that it is safe to say that it will never be decided. If one is trying to give a dramatic and life-like picture of a past age—as Mr. Froude does, for example—he must perforce throw himself into the lives of its great men, and look at things through their eyes; and then a certain one-sidedness and short-sightedness is almost unavoidable, if one would keep up the illusion. On the other hand, if one is treating history scientifically, and looking not so much for facts as for the general laws which guide the centuries, exceptional men disturb the view, and must be passed over. In such works as those of Buckle, Lecky, or Spencer, the individual is of little importance, except as an illustration of average humanity. We are looking for movements of the mass, and have to ignore to a great extent the exceptions; just as in certain mathematical calculations, where it is important to find the true mean from a number of divergent observations, those which differ very widely from the average are disregarded, and only the nearer ones are combined to get the mean quantity which is to represent them all. The illustration is a misleading one, however, for great geniuses are not exceptional errors, which one can disregard; they are something more even than those brilliant spontaneous variations to which the naturalist looks for improved strains to preserve. They seem often to supply to the great world of thought an impulse which transforms it from stagnation to vigorous and sustained action; and so the question brings us back again to the forces which arouse or arrest evolution.

The essays upon Protestantism are those upon which there will be the most difference of opinion. It is natural that Mr. Fiske should look forward to the future triumph of his own liberal but extremely vague religious views; and the reader will notice that he accepts as satisfactory Mr. Matthew Arnold's still vaguer definitions of divinity. In discussing the causes of the old religious persecution, Mr. Fiske regards as insufficient the usual explanation—namely, that it sprang from the conviction that salvation was only to be won by accepting a particular creed, and that it was an imperative duty to do everything, no matter how extreme, to prevent the eternal punishment which followed unbelief. He attributes it rather to the hardness and cruelty of the times, and to the domineering habit of asserting one's own opinion as infallible, and especially to the feeling of corporate responsibility for the religious belief of all the members of the community—a survival of the savage notion that the gods will punish us if we suffer our neighbors to insult them. No doubt all these feelings had some effect, though perhaps not quite so much as Mr. Fiske attributes to them. The intolerance of imperfect civilization showed itself in many ways, which modern liberalism avoids; but the intellectual pretexts which men employ to defend or excuse their course do have a great effect upon the restraint they put on their acts, although the impulse generally comes from feeling more than from thought. There are other causes, too, that should be mentioned. The spread of practical utilitarianism, for instance, is such that we almost never punish any act now that does not tend to injure others. This is due partly to religious indifference, but more to a feeling that matters of mere opinion are beyond the province of government. It is not exactly a question of infallibility, for every legislator has to assume his own infallibility now as much as formerly when he passes a law, even if there is much to be said on both sides—as, for instance, about marriage with a deceased wife's sister or daughter. His duty compels him to punish those who follow a different rule from that which he lays down; for, on practical matters, some invariable rule must be enforced. But for a fuller discussion of these and many other interesting matters we must refer the reader to Mr. Fiske's pages.

MITCHELL'S HISTORY OF ANCIENT SCULPTURE.

A History of Ancient Sculpture. By Lucy M. Mitchell. With numerous illustrations, including six plates in autotype. Dodd, Mead & Co.

MRS. MITCHELL'S elaborate work has some qualities which render it a valuable addition to the series of works on the same subject that have appeared during the past few years. It is a résumé and study of what has been accumulated, which shows immense diligence and wide reading, and a conscientious getting up of the facts so far as studying museums and collating authorities will go; and the copious illustrating of it gives it a value as a popular book on this subject greater than that of any of its predecessors, so far as illustration can confer value. In the direction of references, while the authoress acknowledges her obligations to Brunn, she follows up her borrowings from the elder authorities by careful study of the occasional articles on the latest researches, so that the book becomes a dictionary of references to all that has been written on its theme.

It begins with the history of Egypt, and gives all the information of the early chronology and of the theological bases of sculpture which are attainable; runs through the eras of Egyptian art; then, taking Chaldæa, Assyria, Persia, Phœnicia, and Asia Minor—each of which divisions of the subject receives a short chapter—enters on the theme of greater interest to the artistic reader, of the "earliest art on Greek soil." For, in fact, sculpture as art, in contradistinction to that sculpture whose purpose was monumental and mnemotechnic, or literary, began with the Greek adoption of it. Archaic Greek sculpture occupies five chapters, followed by six on the age of Pheidias and of Polykleitos; these by eight on the age of Skopas, Praxiteles, and Lysippos; four on the Hellenistic age of sculpture, concluding with three on sculpture in ancient Italy and under Roman dominion. One of the most valuable features of the book is the copious appendix, giving 1,290 notes of reference, many citations from Greek and Latin writers, a general index, and tables of museums, indicating the works of the various epochs to be found in them—a product of great patience, if not always of entire exactitude.

Unfortunately, the confused and discursive character of the book greatly diminishes its popular utility, and its excessive diffuseness makes needless labor in the simple reading of it. A book on such a theme—dry at best and didactic if anything—should be condensed and orderly to the last degree, and the authoress had Müller's 'Ancient Art' as a model in which compactness and orderly arrangement are carried to the highest perfection, with the result of imparting all the certain information we possess of all the ancient arts, in less than half the biblical bulk of Mrs. Mitchell's volume. Such useless digressions as the historical passages, and the mythological—where, as in "The Aryan and Semitic Elements in Greek Religion," they have the faintest and most strained relation to sculpture—are in their aggregate a burden to the avowed function of the book; but when, as in the above case, they are completely misleading, and betray the want of balanced judgment which alone can deal with such uncertain themes, the misdirection of the reader is more than an offset to the slender information conveyed in the aggregate. The summary way in which the authoress dismisses, as put beyond debate, subjects on which the widest difference of opinion exists, only shows that she has herself given but little thought to them. The radical defect of her book, indeed, is the too ready acceptance of one side of any debated question, according to her having been taken by an ex-parte exposition of it. Thus, in the chapter named above, we read:

"The Pelasgians, according to tradition, worshipped at Dodona one highest God, Zeus, but without images [she might have added, that the priests of Dodona, on the same authority, are spoken of as saying that the gods are powers, for they know not their forms]. . . . Hesiod [who wrote centuries after the Dodonean simplicity of theology] tells of thirty thousand immortal watchmen of Zeus wandering through the earth doing his bidding; and it seems most probable that in the people's fancy the poet's great ethical host were polydemoniacal powers, lower in grade than Zeus and inherited from an Aryan ancestry, but giving rise in time to gods of higher standing. . . . Even Apollo and Athena must have been later and beautifully individualized members of this great host; but Aphrodite, we know, was a stranger imported from thoroughly foreign shores and peoples."

Now, so far as we have a right to "know" anything on this subject, the reverse is the case; Apollo and Artemis coming to Greece from Asia Minor, and Aphrodite being, by the authority of the same traditions, one of the earliest Pelasgic deities and most unjustifiably identified with Astarte. We have the genealogy in the Pelasgic legends as Zeus, Dione, and Aphrodite, then Eros. That the subject is abstruse, shadowy, and difficult to decide on, is true, but this is all the better reason why the authoress, who had no call to deal with mythology, should have avoided charging her already overloaded work with matter which should have been better digested in order to be printed anywhere, and which here is a positive drawback to the book.

The Phrygian tombs discovered by Mr. Ramsay, and which from their resemblance to those at Mykenæ have been objects of great archæological interest, the authoress disposes of with judicial briefness, and without reasons—"thus indicating clearly that the pattern of the Mykenæ tombs came from Asia Minor"; when the fact is, that, according to the opinion of Mr. Ramsay and the character of the work itself, it is most probable that the Phrygian work is centuries later than that of Mykenæ, and, if belonging to the same art, is a provincial and barbarous descendant of it. Of that much-debated subject, the necropolis of Mykenæ excavated by Schliemann, Mrs. Mitchell says: "That these tombs of Mykenæ have a greater antiquity than the encircling Cyclopean walls . . . is evident from their primitive build, . . . as well as from the fact that the Cyclopean walls, on reaching this circle, deviate from a regular line, etc., thus clearly indicating the earlier existence of the latter." But the truth is, that the indications all point to the opposite conclusion, showing beyond any cavil that the tomb was fitted to the previously existing walls, of which some fragments, as well as others of buildings of the Hellenic epoch, are employed in the construction of the buttresses which held up the barbarous stone-work of the tomb. Again, "Strabo calls the grottoes at Nauplia the work of the mythic Kyklopes." What he speaks of is the labyrinth, which is a subterranean work entirely different from the grottoes, which are common rock tombs, apparently of a poor class of people, and long posterior to the vaulted tombs of Mykenæ.

On p. 281, we read:

"There is much reason to believe, in consequence of comparisons made by modern study, that such fine archaic bronzes were not of Etruscan manufacture, but were imported from the Greek colonies in Southern Italy, and probably also from the corresponding cities in their parent lands, whence came, as already seen, even so great a master as Pythagoras of Samos. To this family of archaic bronzes of grand style from Italy, but far too noble to be of Etruscan origin, must belong such works as the famous Chimæra in Florence and the splendid Cortona lamp, full of the early Ionian spirit, despite their Etruscan inscriptions, which were doubtless scratched in afterward."

This shows in brief that the authoress misconceives the spirit of Etruscan art, besides being heedless of the weight of evidence. The Chimæra and the Oratore of the same museum are so entirely in the spirit of Etruscan art, and so far from any form of the Greek—even Mykenæan—that there is no excuse whatever for attributing them to Ionian influences or origin.

In general, the 'History of Ancient Sculpture' shows a want of digesting power. There is no gauge of the value of information or opinion, and the crudest and least-founded attributions seem to have as much value as any other. There seems to have been no effort to collate and weigh adverse opinions, where they exist. This absolutely destroys the critical value of the work, and, in fact, leaves it little better than a mass of notes collected with great diligence and perseverance, and, in general, with the most frank and unbiassed intentions, but which, for want of critical acumen, conclude nothing and cannot be admitted as an authority in matters of art or archæology. If it had been limited to the nominal scope—the purely historical—it would have been a more useful book, because smaller and more trustworthy as a guide; for its historical element is, in general, based on good authority. The authoress enters into needless æsthetical considerations, which are sometimes idle and sometimes false. She seems to have adopted the German bases for all her conclusions; but, admirable and sound as are the Germans as scientific authorities, and wherever patience and minute research will carry them, in æsthetical conclusion—in all matters, in fact, which pertain to the regions of pure art and artistic judgment—we do not accept their dicta as of the least authority.

Humor, Wit, and Satire of the Seventeenth Century. Collected and illustrated by John Ashton. J. W. Bouton.

HARDLY any method is observable in the arrangement of the contents of this scrap-book. Verse and prose, epigrams and riddles, anecdotes and ballads, broadsides and plays, are mingled almost pell-mell; and, to add to the confusion, the author now and again inserts a disquisition, or a preface, or a connecting paragraph, which is undistinguished typographically from the reprinted matter. When this has been said, there is little fault to be found with this interesting collection. The author has suppressed the grosser indecencies which lay ready to his hand, while leaving enough to show the coarseness of the age. He has annotated the text, on the whole usefully, but sometimes unnecessarily; once, we have observed, he has failed, as if from inability, to do so. He prints: "I had hope (*sic*) him off with all his cloaths." Few readers would be troubled by this form of the preterite of "help," least of all those who know their 'Uncle Remus' by heart: "Den Brer Wolf, he put in en hope Brer B'ar pull, but dez like he didn't; en den dey all hope 'im, en, bless grashus! . . ." Mr. Ashton has also furnished each extract with a number referring to the list of sources in the appendix; has copied in facsimile a large number of curious woodcuts appertaining to his material, and has added the music of his ballads where he could—some of this being well worth recovering.

We have already indicated the nature of the contents. Of all the objects of satire, the woman, the wife, and particularly "the cruell shrow," is the chief, surpassing the Welshman, the Cavalier, the Oxford "literary feller," and the Papist. Here is the mildest form of it, which sums up not badly one of Lowell's familiar poems. It is taken from 'Witts Recreations. Selected from the finest Fancies of Moderne Muses' (1640):

"Marriage, as old men note, hath likened bin
Unto a publique feast, or common route,
Where those that are without would faine get in,
And those that are within would faine get out."

From the same source comes also this bit of pleasantry, which may illustrate in one way the drinking department of the book, as in another the fine old ballad of the "Bloody Murther of Sir John Barleycorne":

"A fly out of his glasse a guest did take,
'Ere with the liquor he his thirst would slake.
When he had drunk his fill, again the fly
Into the glasse he put, and said, 'Though I
Love not flyes in my drink, yet others may,
Whose humor I nor like nor will gainsay.'"

Of the staple jest, the following is a fair specimen (from 'Coffee House Jests Refined and Enlarged,' 4th ed., 1686):

"A Man in a bitter cold Winter night was passing through the Street, and seeing all a Bed, and no Candle in any Window neither; then bethought himself of this project; for then he went up and down crying Fire, Fire, which made several come to the Windows: They askt him where? where? He told them that he did not know, for if he did, he would go to 't to warm himself; For, says he, I am devilish cold."

What is most interesting, perhaps, is the reader's recognition of old joes to which he is hereby enabled to give approximate dates. Thus one meets with the story of the old woman not ready to be put to shame by the little boy who knew his Creator, as "he was made but t' other day" (1698); of the surgeon who sends for a plaister without delay for an alarming wound that "will heal of it self" if the messenger does not make great haste (same date); of the "Conceited Scholar that was lately come from *Oxford*," who "would needs be forming of Sylogismes," proves that two glasses of wine set before him "at the *Mitre Tavern* in the *Poultrey*" are three, and is left to drink the third as best he can (same date); of the man with whom it was "not so well neither" that he was married, because he had taken a shrew, and "not so ill neither" when his house was burned, "for my Wife was burned in it"—and all the wells and ills between (same date); of the man who would not weep under "a melting sermon" "'because,' says he, 'I am not of this Parish'" (1697); of the man who had as lief go to sea

though his ancestors died there, as another man to bed whose father, etc., had died there (1669). Add the tanner who finds London fashions "not like the Countries, for here the stones are fast in the streets, and the Dogs are loose," and excuses himself for not using the blunt end of his pike against the butcher's dog because the dog had not "used his blunt end, and runne his taile" at him (1650 ?). Here, too, occur the ambiguous verses "to be understood two ways":

"I saw a Peacock with a fiery tail.
I saw a blazing Comet, drop down hail.
I saw a Cloud," etc.

('Westminster Drollery,' 1672). And here, finally, is the culprit who retorts with a graceless pause upon the justice:

"Sir, I am no Dog,
Nor so errant a Rogue
As your Worship——takes me to be"

('Westminster Quibbles in Verse,' 1672).

Mr. Ashton offers this book as an illustration of "Merrie England"; but its mirthfulness is far from being so great as to repress reflections on the evolution of humor in two centuries. Some of the jocosities are almost naïf in their want of anything to stir the risibles, and in this class are anecdotes of what were doubtless actual occurrences, and which, when seen, were comical enough, but become vapid in the telling. We have room for only a single typical instance, taken, by the way, from 'The Sackfull of Newes' (1673):

"A Certain Butcher was flaying a Calf at night, and had stuck a lighted Candle upon his head, because he would be the quicker about his business, and when he had done he thought to take the same Candle to light him to bed; but he had forgot where he had set it, and sought about the House for it, and all the while it stuck in his Cap upon his head, and lighted him in seeking it. At the last one of his fellows came and asked him what he sought for. 'Marry (quoth he), I look for the Candle which I did flay the Calf withal.' 'Why, thou Fool,' qd. he, 'thou hast a Candle in thy Cap.' And then he felt towards his Cap, and took away the Candle burning, whereat there was great laughing and he mocked for his labour, as he was well worthy."

Compare this, for its realism, with the imaginative humor of the following sample of the "funny column" of our American daily press:

"A colored individual who went down on the slippery flags at the corner of Woodward Avenue and Congress Street, scrambled up and backed out into the street, and took a long look toward the roof of the nearest building.

"'You fell from that third-story window!' remarked a pedestrian who had witnessed the tumble.

"'Boss, I believes yer!' was the prompt reply, 'but what puzzles me am de quesbun of how I got up dar', an' why I was leanin' outer de winder!'"

Problems in Political Economy. By William G. Sumner. Henry Holt & Co.

THIS collection will be of great service to instructors, not only as furnishing them with a supply of exercises for their pupils and thus helping to do away with the old-fashioned system of recitations, but also as enabling them to test their own knowledge and powers of exposition: the book might, in fact, be used as a breviary with excellent results. The number of problems happens to be 366, which would allow one for every day in the year including Sundays, and an extra one for leap year. We can fearlessly say that if any one has the courage to devote that amount of time exclusively to answering these questions, he will never regret it—if he survives it. It was once said that it was impossible for any human being to *be* so wise as Lord Thurlow *looked*; and we cannot believe that the present graduates of Yale are so far superior to the former ones as the mastery of these problems would indicate. Some of them imply definite convictions concerning those fundamental principles of philosophy and human society that have been in debate since man became a thinking being, and others relate to subjects upon which it cannot be said that economists have come to any agreement.

For example, to answer the question, "Is political economy a deductive or an inductive science?" in any but parrot fashion, presupposes a profound acquaintance with logic and with scientific methods. The question, "What would be the effect of technical and industrial schools, maintained by taxation, on the wages of artisans?" opens the whole subject of the relation of the state to its subjects, and implies positive conclusions as to the comparative effects of taxation upon rents and wages. Some of the longer questions are still more far-reaching, but we have not space to quote them. Nevertheless, it is well to ask such questions if it be understood that the end is not truth, but the search for truth. As Professor Sumner says, the questions are leading, but although his pupils may be trained to give certain answers of a more or less ready-made character, the very method of instruction that he adopts necessarily develops the judgment. As he remarks in his introduction, the object of his exercises is to develop some independent power of thinking and of applying the principles which have been learned; but the power of criticising these principles is acquired with the power of applying them. We are apprehensive that the statement, "I have long used fallacies as auxiliary to my other class-room work," may be seized upon by captious protectionists as a damaging admission; but it can be met by showing that it is their fallacies to which the author refers. While, we repeat, the book will be of much value to teachers, we can hardly agree with Professor Sumner in the view that a person who has studied only an elementary text-book can deal with these problems. They are in many cases so worded as to be nearly unintelligible to those who have neither heard the author's exposition of the subjects, nor read the works containing the doctrine to be criticised. Even to a tyro, however, the work will be suggestive. Some of the problems are taken from Milnes's collection of 2,000 questions from English examination papers. The book is of a convenient size for the pocket.

John Greenleaf Whittier. A Biography. By Francis H. Underwood. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

WE are not persuaded that this book has a clear title to existence. The most that can be said for it is that it has been prepared, if not with the approval, at least with the assistance, of the poet, and is the nearest approach to an autobiography that we are ever likely to get from him. But then, when we examine the new personal and genealogical details, we do not find that they add enough to what had been already published to justify another ante-mortem volume. It is something to learn that the first ancestor who came over was not a Friend, and should not have been called "Friend Whittier" by Mr. Kennedy in his biography (p. 11). But this being so, we might have expected to be told exactly which one of his descendants joined that denomination. By inference it was his youngest son, the poet's great-grandfather, who married a Quakeress. Again, in a much more important matter, Mr. Underwood has neglected to better the work of his predecessors. He repeats the tradition, for which Joshua Coffin, the historian of Newbury, was responsible, that through the Batchelder family (on his mother's side) Whittier is of one blood with Daniel Webster; and he enlarges it by including also the late Senator Fessenden, Caleb Cushing, Col. William B. Greene, "and other prominent men," all sprung from the Rev. Stephen Batchelder, the first minister of the town of Hampton, N. H. "It is now known," says Mr. Underwood; but he does not offer any but hearsay evidence in support of the tradition, whereas to establish so interesting an example of "hereditary genius" would have been worthy the greatest pains. A similar disinclination to hard work is shown in the bibliography, which is doubtfully an improvement upon Mr. Kennedy's—in some respects falls below it. Thus, the latter had in a foot-note corrected his erroneous statement that "The Deity" was Whittier's first published poem (in the *Free Press*). Mr. Underwood repeats the blunder (pp. 66, 396), though he of course had Mr. Kennedy's book before him. The point is not quite insignificant, for the title of the earlier poem, "The Vale of the Merrimack," is even more indicative of that attachment to the soil which is one of the strongest characteristics of Whittier's muse.

For the rest, such a work as this, composed under existing circumstances, could hardly be made up without padding, of which Mr. Underwood has been free, as witness the long talk about Quakers in general, and many an irrelevant passage. Whittier's life, while of great moment to the country, has been comparatively uneventful, and the untrammelled biographer would find himself reduced mainly to a study of character and opinion. This, however, would involve far more labor than a mere narrative of personal incidents, and it could not decently be undertaken while Mr. Whittier still survived. For the former rather than for the latter reason, perhaps, Mr. Underwood has avoided the task, and in so doing he has obscured rather than thrown light upon Mr. Whittier's relations to the anti-slavery agitation, for example. Motives of delicacy must put a similar restraint on the critic of the poet as a poet. Nothing would have been lost if Mr. Underwood had omitted all his fine writing in this direction, always excepting the possible inducement so many selections may give to read more deeply of Whittier. As criticism it hardly deserves attention. It remains to point out one or two serious slips of the pen. On p. 107, "Brattleboro'" stands for Bennington. It is inconsistent with all that is known of the editor of the *Liberator* to be told, on p. 127, that "Garrison opposed this view on the ground that a moral cause could *not* be carried on to success without ignoble means." No one who had ever seen John Brown would have described him as "below the middle size" (p. 226). Even at the age of eighteen he was remarked as "a tall, sedate, dignified young man." There are some admirable portraits in this volume—one in particular of Whittier at the age of thirty—and other engravings.

Characteristics. Sketches and Essays. By A. P. Russell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

MR RUSSELL is one of those authors who write books because they are affected by the distemper called the *lues Boswelliana*. He is ever regretting that every great man was not attended by a Boswell, as his shadow or daimon: "what a book we would have had," he keeps saying, as if the principal use of men of genius were to furnish food to the gossip-scavengers of literature. In default of such author-valets, however, perhaps the next best thing is to supply their place by a diligent reader of memoirs and diaries, who shall collect from this and that quarter the scattered anecdotage concerning those unfortunate

gentlemen who trusted their fame only to their public works.

In this spirit the compiler of these essays on literary or other celebrities has gathered up the stories about Macaulay or Randolph, or whoever it may be, and bound them together by the slightest thread of comment. When, as sometimes happens, there is a dearth of witticisms or adventures in the career under review, he helps the matter out by inserting other tales of kindred spirits, or even less apposite padding, such as Arabic proverbs or moral apothegms. Now, in the manner of the elder Disraeli, he seems selecting from his commonplace book or rummaging his library to make up his patchwork essay; or again, like Montaigne, he slips into a paper on "Habit" the most various material quoted from here, there, and everywhere. Such authors he evidently loves and has in mind; perhaps it seemed easy to him, while he read the one or the other, to make similar books. But in the trial how much easier it always is to miss the secret of that touch which gives to the Englishman's works the pervading sense of scholarly cultivation, and to the Frenchman's the affability of noble leisure. It is harder to be a Disraeli or a Montaigne than a Boswell—at least it is so in Mr. Russell's case. Possibly the seeming haste in which the papers were put together made the result worse than it must needs be. The repetition of the same extract from Lord John Russell, or the same old anecdote of Johnson, grows monotonous; for even gossip may pall on the taste. More attention to style, too, would have made comparison with the suggested models less odious.

In regard to the substance, those who like collectanea of this sort need find no fault. The author has been diligent in his search and profuse in communicating all he found. Such as have occasion for stories of this kind (and the kind is often excellent), and are not above the peccadillo of adorning their addresses or conversation with second-hand glitter that looks like polite learning, will find this volume excellent for their purposes. A certain amount of rubbish and dust may be expected, as in any virtuoso's cabinet, but there are good things enough besides and well worth attention. It is not often that in the space of twenty-two pages (but without one original word) one can obtain so clear an idea of the talk of Coleridge; nor was its monotony and bathos ever more finely given than by its comparison, as here, to a great river like the St. Lawrence, a cataract, the Pontic Sea, a lake overflowing in inextricable currents and regurgitations, an ocean's ebb and flow, a river that imposes silence, the ocean, the waters—and so on to the end of Neptune's geography. For the essay on Woolman, too, we have a liking; the impression it leaves is as softening and ennobling as the one in Coleridge's case is humorous. But, after all, it is melancholy to see any writer dealing with poets like Burns and men like Johnson with such interest in their outward life, and such neglect of what makes them remembered, as if they were the cronies of Pepys instead of the brothers of Shakspere. Such a method is good enough for a wit like Foote, but not for one like Lamb. The whole volume reads like a Sunday newspaper—"reportorial" in substance, realistic, with a spice of morality and religion here and there, and interminably long.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aikman, Rev. W. A Bachelor's Talks about Married Life and Things Adjacent. Fowler & Wells. $1.50.

Bartlett, A. Jennie. Elder Northfield's Home; or, Sacrificed on the Mormon Altar. A story. The J. Howard Brown Company.

Byers, S. H. M. The Happy Isles, and Other Poems. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.25.

Calvert, G. H. The Nazarene: a poem. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

Cook, Mrs. E. G. For Mothers and Daughters. Fowler & Wells. $1.50.

Everts, Rev. W. W. John Foster: Life and Thoughts. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.

Farrar, Canon F. W. With the Poets: a Selection of English Poetry. Funk & Wagnalls.

Froude, J. A. Luther: a Short Biography. Charles Scribner's Sons. 30 cents.

Hall, G. S. Methods of Teaching History. Vol. 1. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

Harwood, J. B. One False, Both Fair. A novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.

Hulsh, M. B., and Thomson, D. C. The Year's Art: 1884. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle, and Rivington.

Huntington, Rev. W. R. The Church Idea: an Essay toward Unity. Third edition. E. P. Dutton & Co. 25 cents.

James, H. Portraits of Places. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Kellogg, J. A. Philosophy of Henry James. A Digest. John W. Lovell & Co. 25 cents.

Larison, C. W. Silvia Dubois (now 116 yers old). A Biografy of the Slav who whipt her Mistres. Ringos, N. J.: The Author.

Leighton, Caroline C. Life at Puget Sound. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.

Lippincott's Magazine. New Series. Vol. VI. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.00.

Little, Rev. C. E. Biblical Lights and Side-Lights. Funk & Wagnalls. $4.

Lockwood, T. D. Electricity, Magnetism, and Electric Telegraphy. A Practical Guide and Hand-Book. D. Van Nostrand.

Marston, P. B. Wind-Voices. Poems. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.

McKeever, Harriet B. Crown Jewels: a Tale. Phillips & Hunt. $1.

Mitchell, Dr. S. W. Fat and Blood: an Essay on the Treatment of Certain Forms of Neurasthenia and Hysteria. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.

Morris, L. Songs Unsung. Poems. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.

Oehler, Rev. G. F. Theology of the Old Testament. Translation, edited by G. E. Day. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.

Oliphant, Mrs. Hester: a Story of Contemporary Life. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.

Parsons, T. The Law of Contracts. 3 vols. Seventh edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $18.

Richter, J. P. Literary Works of Leonardo da Vinci. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co.

Riddle, Rev. M. B. The International Revision Commentary. Vol. VI. The Epistle to the Romans. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.

Schaff, Rev P. History of the Christian Church. Vol. III. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.

Stevenson, R. L. The Silverado Squatters. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.

Swinburne, A. C. Poetical Works. Complete edition. John D. Williams.

The Millionaire. A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.

Warner, C. D. A Roundabout Journey. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.

Webster, G. H. A Presentation of the Grammar of New English, beginning with the Age of Elizabeth. Pittsburg, Pa.: Herald Printing Co.

Wells, Clara L. The Amphitheatres of Ancient Rome. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Wheeler, Mary P. Poems for the Fireside. Original and selected. Phillips & Hunt. $1.

Wilson, A. S. A Bushel of Corn. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Wordsworth, J., Editor. The Gospel according to St. Matthew: from the St. Germain MS. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.

Worman, Prof. J. H., and Monsanto, Prof. H. M. First Spanish Book. A. S. Barnes & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1884.

The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S latest banking bill is a trifle too obscure for popular understanding. It provides that upon a deposit of bonds any national banking association shall be entitled to receive circulating notes equal in amount to the par value of their bonds bearing interest at the rate of not less than 3 per cent., and redeemable at the pleasure of the United States at the date of such deposit; and if the bonds deposited are not so redeemable, and bear a rate of interest higher than 3 per cent., then the issue of circulating notes may be to an amount equal to 95 per cent. of the par value of such bonds and of the interest that shall accrue on such bonds before they become redeemable, in excess of the interest thereon computed at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum. "And at no time shall the total amount of such notes issued to any association exceed the amount at such time actually paid in of its capital stock, nor the ratio of such bonds and interest above stated, computed on the first day of January of each year." We suppose that this means that circulation may be issued on the 3 per cents at the rate of one hundred cents for each dollar of bonds, and upon the 4 per cents (redeemable in 1904) at the rate of one hundred and fifteen cents for each dollar—*i. e.*, ninety-five cents for the face of the bond and twenty cents for the excess of interest to accrue for twenty years over and above 3 per cent. per annum. This excess, however, is to be computed every year. Consequently the margin of circulation will decrease one cent on the dollar each year. It strikes us that it is quite as important to pass a bill that people can readily comprehend as it is to pass one that the banks can live under and subsist on.

That versatile and somewhat ubiquitous person, Mr. James McHenry, has been getting up a more dreadful exposure of what are called American "railroad methods" than any that has yet appeared. He made his very extraordinary discovery through his having been compelled by "recent events" to "look narrowly into the cause of the disasters to American railroads." What he has discovered is that about half the Western produce exported from Eastern ports is carried here fraudulently—that is, without paying anything to the railroads. Moreover, numerous trains, known, it appears, as "ghost trains," of which nothing is heard at the head offices of the companies, come from the West to the East. In fact, he says that only about one-tenth of the earnings of the roads reach the companies' treasuries. Nobody but Mr. McHenry, we venture to say, ever dreamed of the frauds reaching such a high figure. But Commissioner Fink, who is much better informed about American railroads than Mr. McHenry, says these fraud estimates are far too high; for, says he, the acknowledged railroad receipts last year were $700,000,000. If this was, however, only one-tenth of the actual receipts, the total must have been $7,000,000,000, which is the actual cost of building all the railroads in the United States. So that, if Mr. McHenry's story were true, it would show that the railroads earned their cost in one year, and lost $6,300,000,000 by theft, without its attracting any attention. Mr. McHenry has evidently been looking too "narrowly" into the causes of American railroad disasters, or has delivered himself into the hands of some egregious impostor, or has himself been romancing a little. We fear the public does not greatly care which hypothesis is the correct one.

The most important bill for the regulation of inter-State commerce now before Congress is that of Mr. Reagan, of Texas. Mr. Reagan is a lawyer, and, we believe, an ex-Judge, so that it is not unfair to express the hope that if he reports his bill, he will fully explain in some detail to Congress and the country how he expects it to work. It contains some curious provisions. For instance, it is made unlawful for any carrier "directly or indirectly to charge to or receive from any person or persons any greater or *less* rate or amount of freight, compensation or reward than is charged to or received from any other person or persons for like and contemporaneous service in the carrying, receiving, delivering, storing or handling of the same." Any violation of the act makes a carrier liable to a suit for damages, to an amount treble the loss sustained, and a fine of a thousand dollars. It may be, for all we know, a very wicked thing for a railroad to charge one person more or even less than it charges another for a "like and contemporaneous" service; but what is a like and contemporaneous service? Apparently this precludes a railroad from lowering its rates in order to attract business from any particular quarter, a form of crime which is no doubt very common among the more reckless railroads in a new State like Texas.

Another species of villany very rife in some parts of the country is reached by the following section:

"SEC. 3. That it shall be unlawful for any person or persons engaged in the carriage, receiving, storage, or handling of property as mentioned in the first section of this act to enter into any combination, contract, or agreement, by changes of schedule, carriage in different cars, or by any other means, with intent to prevent the carriage of such property from being continuous from the place of shipment to the place of destination, whether carried on one or several railroads. And it shall be unlawful for any person or persons carrying property as aforesaid to enter into any contract, agreement, or combination for the pooling of freights, or to pool the freights, of different and competing railroads, by dividing between them the aggregate or net proceeds of the earnings of such railroads, or any portion of them."

The knowledge that the railroads not only "pool" freight, but do all in their power to prevent the carriage of property from being "continuous," has been thus far kept from the public; but it had to come out sooner or later, and Judge Reagan evidently means to show them that, the facts once known, no trifling will be allowed. He ought to be intrusted with all legal proceedings arising under the act.

The bill introduced into Congress last Monday by Mr. Hewitt, authorizing newspapers to copyright their titles, seems objectionable, chiefly on the ground that the copyright clause in the Constitution was not intended to apply to such a case. Congress is authorized to secure to "authors" the exclusive right to their "writings" for a limited time. (Constitution U. S., Article 1, sec. 8.) It seems going very far to call the selection of a newspaper title a work of authorship, or the person who selects it an "author." It is, properly speaking, a trade-mark, and as such, it is, we suppose, already protected.

The Fitz-John Porter Bill has passed the House by a considerable majority, after much good speaking, the last speech of note being one by Mr. Phelps, of New Jersey, who produced a letter of President Garfield's to General Porter, expressing himself favorably to the appointment of a board to review the proceedings of the original court-martial. One of the good results of the work of the Advisory Board which President Hayes appointed, is that it sifted the charges against Porter down to two points which the general public could understand and form a judgment about—namely, the slowness of the night march, and the failure to "go in there," on the 28th of July. Before this Board did its work the accusation against Porter bore in the public mind the aspect of a generally treasonable line of conduct, extending over many weeks, and coloring all his acts, and, according to one accuser, showing itself markedly in his countenance. The Advisory Board swept all this away, and brought us down to the only two facts of any importance, and on them threw a flood of light, through new evidence. Since its finding it is safe to say that no one who has examined the case, apart from strong political prepossessions, has failed to see in Porter a greatly injured man. Those who still resist his vindication, of whom General Logan is the chief, are men in whom the political traditions of the war are too strong to be shaken, and who in fact make it a rule to examine all questions arising out of the war under the influence of these traditions. To them Porter was, and must always remain, a traitor, because he was at a critical period dissatisfied with a change of command which good men and women at the North at that day received joyfully as a sign that the war had at last had sincerity and vigor infused into it.

It is reported that among the amendments to the Lowell Bankruptcy Bill suggested by the Convention recently held in Washington,

is one making dealings in "futures" on the part of the bankrupt a ground for objecting to his discharge. This, of course, must be based upon the idea that it is wrong to deal in "futures," but it is hard to see any reason for making a discrimination between this and other kinds of speculation. If the Bankruptcy Bill is to be used as an engine of general moral and commercial reform, then no one who speculates at all ought to be discharged; but why are dealers in "futures" any worse than the rest? The true test is not speculation, but fraud. If a trader conducts his business in such a way that he uses his credit to keep up a fictitious appearance of solvency after he is really bankrupt, he is a cheat and swindler, whether he is speculating in coffee or conducting an apparently conservative banker's business. Of course, dealing in futures under such circumstances would be very wrong, not because they are futures, but because the man, to save himself, is taking risks which will probably involve in ruin or serious loss numbers of innocent people who trust him.

The Atlanta *Constitution* maintains that Mr. Benjamin's denial of the authenticity of the Thurlow Weed Barnes letter "will amount to nothing as far as Republican editors are concerned." We doubt if there was any Republican editor who needed any such denial to convince him that either Mr. Thurlow Weed or Mr. Thurlow Weed Barnes had fallen a victim to a curious delusion. We do not for our part believe that anybody tried to impose on either of them about the letter, or that the writer of it ever thought of anybody supposing that it was written by Senator Benjamin. He was probably some poor devil of a Southerner stranded in New York, who wanted free transportation to Washington, and who signed it "Benjamin," because that was his first name, or because it was the first name that occurred to him. We believe, moreover, that this name "Benjamin" is the only reason which has ever existed for supposing that Mr. Judah P. Benjamin wrote the letter. As a mark of authenticity, it is about as valuable as the name "George" attached to a begging letter declaring the writer a high tariff man, would be in showing that Senator Hoar had secretly come to New York for a spree, had lost his money and was ashamed to borrow of his friends.

Mr. Blaine's "retirement" continues to be disturbed in various annoying ways. Only a few days ago his publishers were compelled to come out in a card denying a malicious rumor that they were in trouble through his failure to supply "copy" fast enough. The rumor was especially atrocious because everybody has had a chance to know, by means of regular weekly statements since the "work" was begun, that Mr. Blaine was reeling off copy at the rate of some thousand pages a month, and that he devoted no less than five hours a day to steady composition. His publishers say that he not only keeps the copy pouring in upon them in an unbroken stream, but that he is writing in a "thoroughly conscientious spirit," and that those who have read the advance sheets are charmed with its "style" and "fairness to both sides." The name of the book is incidentally given, and also the fact that more "steel portraits" will be added than was first intended. The card containing all this valuable information was published on Sunday. Now comes a statement from Pennsylvania that some meddlesomely active journalist there has taken a "poll" of an entire county of the State on the question of Republican Presidential candidates, with the following result: Blaine, 66; Arthur, 1; Lincoln, 1; Beaver, 1; Edmunds, 1. This will require another card containing a positive statement that Mr. Blaine cannot consent to be a candidate. How can a man keep himself in a proper frame of mind for historical composition with perpetual interruptions of this kind to distract him?

The *Christian at Work* is apparently not ashamed of its recent escapade, and returns to its defence of precautionary homicide with an increase of absurdity. What it says now is:

"If our 'preaching' does 'not provide any tribunal to decide' such cases, it is because such tribunals already exist in the established courts of the State—such a court as tried Nutt. The *Christian at Work* not only does not propose that there should be no trial in such cases—it believes that every man killing another should be tried just as Nutt was tried; so that the assertion of the *Nation* that our theory of the justification of a homicide like that of Nutt makes the slayer 'both prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner,' is conspicuously inexact, and 'falls to the ground by its own gravity.'"

The writer of this extraordinary passage actually forgets the murdered man, and thinks his friends have no right to complain if only the self-constituted prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner is, after murdering him, made to undergo even a mock trial, like Nutt's. Suppose, however, the jury had found Nutt's act unjustifiable, would this have given Dukes his life again? And if Billy McGlory should kill the editor of the *Christian at Work*, under a misapprehension as to his rights or wrongs, would complete amends be made to society if Billy were afterward tried, and it were shown that when he did the killing he really believed that the editor had done him a great wrong, for which the law furnished no remedy? Suppose it turned out that Billy had been mistaken, would this give the editor back to his work? We think, for our part, that a *Christian at Work* who does not see that if we allow any man to take human life with impunity, on any pretext, in his own quarrel, we open the door to the slaughter of innocent men, and help to bring all criminal justice into contempt, ought to take a vacation—and the longer the better.

Notwithstanding the long period of liquidation and declining prices—nearly two years now—the future course of prices and general state of finance is involved in more than the usual degree of obscurity. Until very recently it has been generally believed that when commodities "touched bottom" they would from that point begin to advance. But the experience with all the articles made from the two great commodities of iron and cotton has not borne out this expectation. The recent reduction of wages by the Fall River cotton manufacturers, and various other incidents, show that the producers and middlemen in all the lines of traffic in cotton goods have adopted the low prices as comparatively permanent. The same is true of the iron trade; there has been no reaction from the extreme depression, nor does the present aspect of trade promise any advance, or any increase of demand, even at the low prices, for any of the great variety of articles manufactured from cotton and iron. We have a large surplus of breadstuffs in the United States—more wheat, it is believed, than at this time last year—and notwithstanding that prices are below the average of the last fifteen years, there is but little demand in foreign markets for our surplus; consequently our exports are falling off as compared with this time last year, and the entire volume of our foreign trade, both in exports and imports, is very much less than it was then. The general drift of our foreign trade is indicated by the fact that foreign exchange has advanced gradually ever since the beginning of the year, until it is now so near the specie-exporting point that an outward movement of gold may begin any day. The dulness of trade throughout the country is of course an index of a decrease of enterprises of every kind, and this in turn is the reason of the excessive supply of idle money in the banks and the abnormally low rates of interest which have now prevailed for a longer time than ever before known in this country.

Mr. John Bright has been bitterly denouncing Mr. Henry George's land scheme on account of its confiscation feature, and remarked, aptly enough, that although it was an American invention there was no sign of its being tried on this side of the water. We called attention to the confiscation feature in these columns two years ago as insuring the condemnation and failure of the whole plan. The curious state of mind into which neophytes sometimes get was illustrated by the fact that this brought us some abusive letters from the Georgites, charging that we had never read 'Progress and Poverty,' or we would not assert that Mr. George proposed to take people's land without compensation. But he does propose it, and in a form which would make it the most heartless as well as the most extensive piece of robbery ever set on foot, for he proposes to rob not only the great landlord, but the poor laborer who had put his money into a house or a farm. We suggested at that time, and suggest now again, that the disciples should be required, as the early Christians were, to show their faith by their works, and that every one embracing the new gospel should be required to present a piece of land to the State. At present we notice, with shame, that it is always other people's real estate which the orators propose should be "resumed" by the Government.

Mr. Matthew Arnold has been asked in St. Louis to give his "general impression of

America," an inquiry regularly put to all distinguished travellers who visit the United States, but, as experience shows, very difficult to answer satisfactorily. The answer which the inquirer desires, and feels to be only fair and proper, is that the reality far exceeds the traveller's highest anticipations. That being once said, the ground is cleared for any friendly criticism that may occur to the visitor —as that life and property seem strangely unsafe here, or that it is singular how low the tone of our political life is, etc., etc. But Mr. Arnold, instead of pursuing this safe course, seems to have assumed that the interviewer wanted him to criticise what he had seen, and he accordingly replied that he noticed that at the railway stations people had to "help themselves," instead of having their comfort looked out for by guards and porters. This unfortunate remark he followed up by a reference to the London *Times*, showing that he understands very little the view generally taken of that newspaper by most Americans, and the interviewer mentions that he "sighed," explaining the sigh as coming from the remembrance of the pleasure he got at home from the daily perusal of that dastardly sheet. The interview adds little to our knowledge of Mr. Arnold or his impressions; but, as is so often the case, shows the interviewer to be a most intelligent and discriminating critic, with a dash of racy humor which Mr. Arnold sadly lacks, and consequently failed to appreciate.

The friends of woman suffrage in England are making a vigorous push to have the change embodied in the coming bill extending the franchise to county householders. Mrs. Fawcett, who has always been one of its vigorous advocates, writes cheerfully about its prospects to the *Pall Mall Gazette*. She uses all the well-known arguments in its favor, but her reasons for thinking she is going to get it are perhaps more interesting than her reasons for thinking that she ought to get it. One is, that at a great reform meeting in the Newcastle Town Moor last autumn, "all allusions to the desirability of removing the political disabilities of women were received with cheers and general approval." Another is, that the Liberal associations of Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Edinburgh, and Huddersfield have adopted resolutions "embodying the principle of women's suffrage." The third and last is, that the Liberal members in the present House of Commons are in favor of it by 120 to 76, whereas the Tories are opposed to it by 99 to 29. The Tories, however, have to be counted, unfortunately, on this as on other matters, and, when the Liberals are divided about anything, are very strong.

Mr. Gladstone has been receiving delegations from the late Liberal Conference at Leeds and also from the Trades Unions, seeking to stimulate him in his policy about the extension of the suffrage. The intentions of the Government are very well known as regards the measures it is to introduce. Whatever doubt exists is about the order in which they are to be introduced, and their dependence on each other. There is no doubt, for instance, that Mr. Gladstone will introduce a bill assimilating the county and borough franchises, but there is some doubt as to whether this will be accompanied or only followed by a redistribution of seats, or rather a rearrangement of constituencies. The Tories insist on having both measures together, and so do some Liberals. But the regular old orthodox Liberals wish to leave the order to Mr. Gladstone's discretion. They take similar ground with regard to the bill making London a municipality, which will be one of the most serious tasks he has ever undertaken.

There are all the signs in England of a stormy session of Parliament. The Parnellites have held their usual conference and show but little disposition to confine themselves, as their enemies in England always hope they will, to agitating for separation. They declare their intention of opposing the London Municipality Bill unless they can get a similar bill for Dublin, and are going to bring in a shower of bills of their own amending existing legislation about county government, the municipal franchise, the fisheries, the poor laws, and the national schools. These will of course not be passed, but they will obstruct English business, and are probably intended simply or mainly to meet the taunt that the Home Rulers make no practical demands, and produce no practical scheme of Irish reform of their own. The present tactics will undoubtedly be more difficult to deal with than those of last year.

A Cairo despatch to London states that the Khedive has received a telegram from Baker Pasha announcing his defeat near Tokar. His losses were 2,000 men, four Krupp cannon, and two Gatling guns. The disaster was expected, as Baker Pasha's force consisted of raw troops, poorly armed. The Egyptians are said to have "bolted." Whatever effect this defeat may have upon the ultimate solution of the Egyptian question, recent despatches must convince any fair-minded strategist that all attempts to meet the False Prophet with Egyptian troops formed in a "hollow square" ought to be abandoned. The effect of the attempt in this case is described as follows in one of the despatches: "Only three sides of a square were formed owing to the fact that two companies of the Egyptian troops stood still, being overcome with fright. The enemy poured into this gap, when the Egyptians threw away their rifles and flung themselves upon the ground screaming for mercy. The troops on one side of the square killed many of their own men by wild firing." A square with only three sides, with a gap presented to welcome the enemy, and with the troops on one side firing into the troops on the other, is probably the kind of square the Prophet likes best to meet. It is more common in cable despatches than in actual warfare.

The death of M. Rouher removes the last of the really prominent figures of the Third Empire. There is nobody left now who really stood by the throne of the last Napoleon and answered for him. Rouher in his later years was known as the "Vice-Emperor," so faithfully and fully did he represent his master's sentiments. His value lay mainly in his power and brass as a debater, which became very important after 1866, when the Corps Législatif began to get from under control, and large Liberal majorities began to come in at every election. His opinions were worth but little, and his advice was always wrong. But he figured prominently in some historic scenes. It was he who undertook to reply to M. Thiers's famous epigram, "You have not left yourselves another blunder to commit." It was he, too, who, when the terrible news of the formation of the new German Bund in 1866 came out, in 1867, threw Italy into the German alliance, by almost shouting in the Senate, that "never should she go to Rome—never." He made one more dramatic appearance in the new Chamber after the fall of the Empire, when he was baited mercilessly by the Duke d'Audiffret-Pasquier, in the presence of a crowded house, some of whom would have liked to assault him, and had almost to cry for mercy in his humiliation. He was the last of a tribe who brought almost indelible disgrace, not simply on French politics but on the French character.

The Nihilistic panic in Vienna continues, and is said to pervade all classes of the community. That something in the nature of an insurrectionary outbreak is feared seems to be inferable from the troops having been kept under arms in their barracks through the night. Anything of this kind is, however, very unlikely. The last thing the Anarchists in any country like to do is to show their actual numerical strength by an armed rising. They have hit upon a plan which answers their purpose far better than any open revolt, and that is the spreading of alarm by assassinations and explosions. This is a new but most effective weapon. It has succeeded wonderfully in Russia, measurably in England, and is succeeding now wonderfully in Austria. The great size of modern cities, the quickness of communication, and the greatly increased portability of explosives have placed it in the power of a very small number of men to fill the official and wealthy class in almost any community with terror. But predictions, such as those with which Mr. Henry George is now trying to revive his "boom" in England, of an internecine conflict between classes, like the Thirty Years' War in Germany, may be fairly set down as cheap rhetorical devices. The dangerous anarchical class in every civilized state is very small. The vast majority of the population are people who are industrious and own property, and will fight fiercely for peace and order if necessary. The only way in which the Anarchists can attain even a shadow of success is by lying hid and producing vague terror. If they were ever to show themselves in force anywhere, there would be no thirty years' war with them. Thirty hours would settle their grievances, and the settlement for most of them would be final and complete.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 30, to TUESDAY, February 5, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

SECRETARY FRELINGHUYSEN has addressed to the President a communication to be transmitted to the House of Representatives in accordance with the recent resolutions asking for information on the subject of pork prohibition. After reviewing the history of legislation against American pork, Secretary Frelinghuysen calls attention to the constitution of a pork commission by the President, and, in view of the prominent part this commission must play in any intelligent discussion of the question, recommends the President to advise Congress to abstain from any immediate legislative action until the report of the commission shall be before it. He adds that if in the face of clear proofs that our meats are free from disease, any nations with which we are on terms of intimacy should discriminate against us, it would then be the province of the Executive to call the attention of such nations to the provisions of treaties, with the confident expectations that those treaties would be respected.

Secretary Folger has written to the Supervising Inspector-General of Steam Vessels in regard to the application of Mrs. Miller, of New Orleans, for a license as the master of a steamboat plying on the Ouachita River: "I see no reason in unwritten or in written law why Mistress Miller may not lawfully demand an examination, and, if she prove herself duly qualified, have a license to serve as a master of a steam vessel."

In the House of Representatives on Thursday a bill was passed declaring forfeited a number of railroad land grants to Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and other States. By a vote of 184 to 78 the House of Representatives on Friday passed the bill restoring Fitz-John Porter to the army, and directing the President to place him upon the retired list.

Mr. Morrison on Monday introduced his Tariff Bill in the House of Representatives. In general terms it proposes an average reduction of 20 per cent. from the existing tariff throughout the list; but there will be so many exceptions, both as to schedules and articles in the schedules, that the average reduction of the whole bill will not be more than 16 or 17 per cent. Mr. Morrison and his school claim that the actual reduction in the revision of last winter does not exceed 5 per cent., so that the reduction of last winter, taken with the reduction which will be proposed by the Morrison bill, will not exceed 22 per cent., which is a smaller reduction than the Tariff Commission pretend that their bill proposed. An extensive addition to the free list is also made.

Mr. Morrison says that he does not expect that Mr. Randall will resort to anything but open warfare to defeat his bill, or that Mr. Hewitt will introduce a separate measure. Mr. Randall for himself has said that he has no intention of withholding appropriation bills, as has been reported, in order to defeat tariff legislation.

A bill introduced in Congress by Mr. Eaton (Dem., Ct.) on Monday provides that any Federal officer who shall knowingly permit any of his subordinates to be assessed or called upon to contribute money for elections shall be guilty of felony, and on conviction shall be imprisoned two or five years. Any official contributing money shall be liable to indictment and subject to fine or imprisonment at the discretion of the Court, and any citizen knowingly soliciting from any officer or employee of the Government shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.

A bill was introduced in the House on Monday to amend the Constitution. It provides for the election of a President and three Vice-Presidents, each chosen for the same number of years. The First Vice-President shall be President of the Senate, and the Second or Third Vice-President shall occupy that position in case of the removal from office of the President of the United States.

Senator Logan has reported to the Senate the Cox bill to repeal the test oath with important modifications. It repeals the test oath, but it places the continuing stigma of treason upon the graduates of West Point and of the Naval Academy who joined the rebellion, and it makes it impossible for a disloyal man to recover war claims.

President Arthur gave his first state dinner for this season on Wednesday evening, to the members of the Cabinet, the General of the Army, a number of Senators and their wives.

Second-Assistant Postmaster-General Elmer resigned on Monday, and Chief Contract Clerk Henry D. Lyman was nominated as his successor. This is in accordance with civil-service reform principles. Mr. Elmer has accepted the Presidency of a New York financial company.

The decrease of the public debt during January was $11,958,004.

A warm debate took place in the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday, when the bill to regulate the hours of service on street cars was under consideration in the Committee of the Whole. The best men in the Legislature participated. The bill was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 89 to 27. It provides that no horse-railroad company shall exact more that twelve hours for a day's work from its employees. It is opposed on the ground that it is an interference with personal rights.

In the Assembly, on Friday, Mr. Locke, of Rensselaer, introduced a bill similar to the Scott Liquor Law of Ohio, with some modifications. It provides that upon each dealer in intoxicating liquors there shall be a yearly assessment of $300 for spirituous and $150 for malt liquors.

The Roosevelt Bill, taking from the Aldermen of this city the power of confirmation, was ordered to a third reading in the Assembly on Tuesday afternoon by a vote of 61 to 38.

The New York Civil-Service Commission has sent its report to the Assembly with a message from the Governor approving suggestions that the law be made to apply more strictly to cities.

Statistics compiled by the Secretary of New York State show that the total number of paupers relieved and supported during 1883 was 135,154, and the expenses of the poor-houses, $2,112,792. In administrating temporary relief, $640,382 were spent. Of the total expenses New York city shows $1,070,320, and Kings County, $286,811.

Elisha Harris, M.D., Secretary of the New York State Board of Health, died in Albany on Thursday. Dr. Harris was regarded as a high authority on the subject of vital statistics, and in relation to sanitary matters generally.

The Texas House of Representatives has passed a bill imposing a penalty of from one to five years' imprisonment for fence cutting, but allowing any one who has been completely cut off by surrounding fences to open a passageway.

The jury in the Feuardent-Cesnola suit gave a verdict late on Saturday afternoon. They found for the defendant on the first and third counts and on the second count ten stood for the defendant and two for the plaintiff. Of the five counts, on each of which Mr. Feuardent claimed $5,000 damages, only three were submitted to the jury. The libel alleged in the first was that in his first published answer to Mr. Feuardent's criticisms on the Cypriote statues, General di Cesnola said that the charges were maliciously made, and absolutely without foundation in fact; in the second count, that in a letter to the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum General di Cesnola said that the firm of Rollin & Feuardent had not made an honest effort to sell the collection, and had overcharged him for expenses. The third count was based on General di Cesnola's letter, published in various newspapers, intimating that Mr. Feuardent was a charlatan, ignorant of archæology, and either thoroughly dishonest or thoroughly ignorant and reckless.

The long strike in the glass-works trade, which has lasted for seven months, was settled by the conference at Pittsburgh, Pa., on Wednesday. The strike was against a reduction of from 10 to 20 per cent. in wages. The basis of the settlement is immediate resumption at last year's wages, which will be paid until April 1, after which, until July 1, the wages will be governed by a sliding scale based upon the price of glass.

A strike of the spinners at ten Fall River, Mass., mills was begun on Monday.

Rowell, the murderer of Lynch, who seduced his wife, was acquitted at Batavia, N. Y., on Thursday, on the ground of self-defence. His attorneys had urged the plea of insanity. Rowell was given a popular reception.

Eleven colleges were represented by thirty-one delegates at the second annual conference of the College Young Men's Christian Association held at Amherst, Mass., during the week.

Wendell Phillips died at his residence in Boston on Saturday at 6:15 P. M., after an illness of about one week. His disease was angina pectoris. He was born November 29, 1811. His invalid wife survives him. The funeral services will be held on Wednesday. The Rev. Samuel Longfellow will deliver an address.

Catherine Morgan Dix, widow of General John A. Dix, died in this city on Sunday at the age of seventy-seven.

President H. E. Packer, of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, died at Mauch Chunk, Pa., on Friday, at the age of about thirty.

FOREIGN.

It was reported from Egypt on Wednesday that Baker Pasha, with 1,600 troops, had landed at Trinkitat on the previous Monday, and an additional body of 2,000 men landed on Tuesday, completing the force for the relief of Tokar. Nearly 20,000 rebels are between Trinkitat and Tokar. Baker Pasha recently made a cavalry reconnoissance, and attacked Osman Digna, killing and wounding more than 120 of his men.

The commander at Tokar, in a letter published on Friday, said: "It would be impossible for our condition to be worse. The rebels have filled up all the wells outside the town. The water inside is brackish and bad, and the troops are suffering from diarrhœa. There is great fear that it will be necessary soon to surrender. The firing on the part of the rebels continues day and night."

A spy captured near Trinkitat on Friday reported that there were 7,000 rebels five miles distant. Baker Pasha sent letters promising full pardon to rebels who submit to him.

The enemy has made an unsuccessful attack upon the fortified camp of the Egyptians at Suakim. Baker Pasha's advance on Tokar was begun on Sunday. The Turkish Ambassador to Great Britain has informed Earl Granville that the Porte is preparing a note to the Powers insisting upon the retention of the Sudan as an integral part of Egypt under the Sultan's suzerainty, and requesting that the whole question be referred to a conference of foreign ambassadors at London or Constantinople. Bismarck has advised a postponement of sending the note.

Despatches from Suakim received on Tuesday announced the serious defeat of Baker Pasha on Monday. He was near Tokar when attacked. Of the 3,500 men which he had with him 2,000 were killed and wounded. Four Krupp and two Gatling guns were captured. The Turks and Europeans fought well. With the remnant of his force Baker Pasha succeeded in reaching Trinkitat, where the gunboat *Ranger* is lying. He will proceed to Suakim immediately on the *Ranger*.

General Gordon telegraphs to London that messages have reached him from the Sudan hailing his mission with gladness.

At a great Liberal meeting in Birmingham, Eng., on January 29, Mr. John Bright denounced the virulent and extravagant attacks made by the Conservatives upon the Government during the Parliamentary recess. The Tories, he declared, were still as much opposed to the rights of the people as when they opposed the abolition of the Corn Laws. Mr. Bright entreated the workingmen of England to continue to exclude from power a party which so injured and insulted them, while it continued unchanged and impenitent.

Mr. Bright also condemned Henry George's land propositions, saying that they were most extraordinary and impracticable, and the wildest ever imported by an American inventor. Mr George's scheme began with a hitherto-unheard-of general system of confiscation, which Mr. Bright believed would end in immeasurable evil and confusion. The plan, he said, was simply an insult to the intelligence of the English people. Nevertheless, the system of land tenure must be altered so as to enable the land to come gradually and naturally into the hands of those most requiring and desiring it, most able to pay for and be t able to work it for the public advantage. Englishmen should try these reforms before attempting wild and extravagant schemes.

An urgent summons was issued on Thursday to the British Conservatives by the "whip" of that party. He says that an amendment relative to the Egyptian policy of the Government would be moved to the address in reply to the Queen's speech, and that an important division would, in all probability, be taken on the 7th of February.

Mr. Bradlaugh made no effort to take the oath on the opening of Parliament, but remained below the bar. On the 11th of February, however, he will advance to the table of the House of Commons in order to take the prescribed oath. Meanwhile Sir Stafford Northcote will make no motion hostile to Mr. Bradlaugh, and will not support any Conservative who does so.

Parliament was opened on Tuesday by Royal Commission. Very few members were present to hear the Queen's speech read. It announced the continuance of friendly relations with all the foreign Powers and made no statements of particular significance. In regard to Egyptian affairs it says that the order of evacuation was recalled as a precaution against possible effects of the Sudan military reverse in Egypt itself. The aim of the occupation of Egypt remains the same as heretofore. Such counsels have been offered to the Egyptian Government as a prudent regard for its resources and conditions seemed to require. The address in reply was adopted by both houses without amendment. In the House of Commons an amendment was moved and the Government policy was severely criticised by the Conservatives, but the Liberals made no reply, as all members of the Cabinet were absent at a special Council on Egyptian affairs. A vote on the amendment was thus precipitated, and the Conservatives were wholly unprepared. The vote was 77 to 20 against the amendment. The Conservatives complain that they were deceived by the Liberals. They intended to prolong the debate until Friday and then marshal all their forces for a vote.

At the conference of Parnellite members of Parliament in Dublin on Monday, it was decided to oppose the London Municipal Bill, unless a similar bill for Dublin should be introduced. It was decided to introduce bills amending the acts which relate to land and to laborers. These will deal with county government, municipal franchise, fisheries, the reclamation of land, the poor laws, national teachers, and the registration of voters.

A letter from the British Government was officially transmitted to the directors of the Suez Canal Company, at their monthly meeting in Paris, on Tuesday, approving the convention of M. de Lesseps with the British steamship owners. This agreement was made in November, 1883. M. de Lesseps advised its acceptance.

Lord Derby, British Secretary of State for the Colonies, has accepted the modified proposals of the Transvaal delegates regarding the new frontier by which a commission appointed for the purpose is to settle the disputed boundary on the spot.

Marquis of Queensberry, in a pamphlet to Parliament advocating reform in the marriage service, proposes, in order to meet divorce cases, to leave out in the marriage ceremony the words, "Whom God has joined together let no man put asunder," substituting "Whom the Government or nature may put asunder let no man attempt to keep together."

In the debate on the labor question in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday M. Ferry said that it did not appertain to the Government to find a solution of the labor problem, but rather to private persons. Real reforms consisted of liberty in individual initiative and foresight. The state ought to aid a private initiative, but not become its substitute. M. Clémenceau, replying, said that crushing taxes and high rents caused the sufferings of the working men. The remedy was an alliance between the working men in all countries, a reduction in freight rates, and the development of public instruction and liberty.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, M. Clémenceau's resolution for the appointment of a committee to inquire into the needed reforms of the working classes was adopted by a vote of 254 to 249, notwithstanding the protest of M. Ferry. The Senate, by a vote of 136 to 117, has rejected the clause of the Trades' Syndicate Bill, legalizing federation trades meetings.

There are exciting rumors in Vienna of a plot to assassinate the Emperor of Austria, the Empress, and certain princes, statesmen, and editors who have been condemned to death by the Anarchists. Several bodies of troops are kept under arms in case of emergency.

In spite of numerous arrests, the agrarian agitation still continues in Pskow and Vitebsk, Russia. So intense is the irritation of the peasants in the latter province that the Governor has telegraphed to St. Petersburg asking that the troops specially sent to Vitebsk be withdrawn as a collision is feared.

The Berlin police discovered on Thursday a Socialist plot to rescue the Russo-Polish student, Padlevski, who had been imprisoned there for the past nine months. Two Socialist leaders were placed under arrest.

The Lower House of the Prussian Diet passed on Thursday the estimates for public worship, in spite of the opposition of the Ultramontane party, by a vote of 147 to 100.

The controversy between the Liberal and Conservative press of Berlin regarding the funeral of Herr Lasker has grown in bitterness and intensity. The Conservative papers make violent attacks upon the memory of the dead statesman.

The *Moniteur de Rome* on Saturday said: "Herr von Gossler's recent replies in the Landtag end for the present all hopes of a reconciliation between the Vatican and Prussia. The Catholics of Prussia are full of faith and ardor, and ready to meet fresh persecution for the honor and liberty of the Church." The Court of Cassation has decided the case of the Government against the Propaganda, that the latter's real property must be converted into Government stock. This decision is a severe blow to the Vatican, which talks of appealing to the Powers.

General Lew Wallace, the American Minister to Turkey, has demanded from the Porte an indemnity of $10,000 on account of the alleged illegal arrest of Dr. Pflaum, an American, by the Governor of Assos; also an indemnity for the American travellers who were recently attacked by Kurdish brigands in Anatolia.

Two invalided members of Henry M. Stanley's expedition to the Congo River have arrived at Madeira. It is their positive opinion that M. de Brazza, the leader of the French expedition, is dead, as at last accounts he was surrounded by hostile natives.

O'Neill, the African explorer, has arrived at Mozambique, having traversed 1,400 miles of hitherto unexplored territory between Lake Nyanza and that place. He discovered Lake Amurambu, which he declares to be the true source of the Prenda River.

Fears of another revolt in the Spanish army were reported, on Tuesday, in a Berlin despatch.

The new agreement between the Canadian Government and the Canadian Pacific Railroad was presented to the Dominion House of Parliament on Thursday. By it an advance of not more than twenty-two million five hundred thousand dollars is made by the Government at five per cent. interest, for which the entire road becomes liable. The three per cent. Government guarantee remains as before.

The Winter Carnival was opened auspiciously at Montreal on Monday. The Governor-General arrived in the afternoon and was given an enthusiastic reception. In the evening there was a torch light procession of snow shoe clubs and an illumination of the Ice Palace. Ten thousand visitors had arrived in the city on Monday.

P. W. Thomas, Sons & Co., London stock brokers, failed on Thursday for about $4,000,000. One member of the firm has absconded.

Eugene Rouher, the French statesman, died in Paris on Sunday, at the age of seventy. He began his public career after the Revolution of 1848, when he was sent to the Constituent Assembly. He became Napoleon's Minister of Justice in 1849. Napoleon appreciated his abilities and frequently recalled him to his Cabinet. In 1860 he concluded a treaty with England on free-trade principles and in the following years concluded equally liberal treaties with other countries. In June, 1863, he became President of the Council of State. For the next five years he shouldered great responsibilities—the Mexican expedition and the Maximilian episode, the relations of France to America during the civil war, and her attitude toward Germany. He opposed the granting of more liberty to the people, and his ministry fell in 1869. He was then made President of the Senate. The Emperor was supported by him in precipitating the Franco-Prussian war. In 1872 he again entered the Chambers as a Bonapartist and advocated the Prince Imperial's cause until his death. He was an efficient supporter of free trade.

The death of the Swedish Bishop Carl Olaf Bjorling was announced on Friday. He was the author of a number of works on theology, history, and philosophy, written in Latin.

The death of the eminent Danish preacher and theologian, Hans Lassen Martensen, was announced on Monday. His most important work is a profound treatise on 'Christian Dogma' (1849).

Josephine Gallmeyer, the well-known German soubrette, died in Vienna on Sunday at the age of forty-five.

THE STATE OF TRADE.

THE situation of trade and industry shows no improvement with the beginning of the new year, nor is there any reason, except in the hopes and imaginations of men, why January, 1884, should be different from December, 1883. It is true that a good deal of money is liberated on the first of January, in the shape of dividends and interest; but unless the conditions of trade invite its investment in productive industry, the effect of dividend and interest payments is as small as the transfer of money by an individual from one pocket to the other. Midwinter is the time of all others when we should least expect a revival of trade, and this has been an unusually close winter. What the approaching spring may have in store for us we must wait to learn.

We have remarked in former articles that the present state of trade and industry bears all the marks of a commercial crisis except one. It was *not* introduced by a money panic. According to the usual conditions of a crisis, we should have had a great stringency in money about the 1st of July, 1881, a run on the banks, a violent collapse of credit, a sudden fall in stocks, and a lot of heavy failures followed by a dribble of smaller failures prolonged for an indefinite period. The absence of anything like a money panic in the present case has deceived even the shrewdest and most experienced observers of commercial events. The decline in stocks has been very gradual, and there has been no collapse of credit, yet we are having all the after effects of a crisis in full measure. Manufacturing industry is depressed to a degree hardly surpassed in our history, and mercantile failures are extraordinary in number and amount. It is a common remark among those who do not look below the surface of things, that this is "a rich man's panic." The losses of a few rich men make a stronger impression than the pinching of the great mass of the well-to-do and working-classes, whose silent but severe economy and suffering are manifest on every hand. But it is not true that this is peculiarly a rich man's panic. If the millionaires have parted with a few of their millions the poor have encroached heavily upon their past savings; and many thousands of them in the iron, woollen, and cotton trades are out of work altogether, with no immediate prospect of re-employment.

Another singular and anomalous condition of the crisis is that prices of agricultural products are depressed in a marked degree, together with those of manufactured goods. As the exchange of the one for the other really constitutes the trade of the world, it would seem that a simultaneous decline of the two ought to leave things about where they were before. Such would be the case if the decline were proportional all round, but it is not proportional. The products of handicraft have fallen in price more than the products of the soil. Sales of cotton goods have been made this winter at thirty per cent. below actual cost to the manufacturer, and an enormous quantity of like fabrics are on hand in warehouses, and cannot be sold except at prices which will not replace the capital that they represent. No such condition exists as regards agricultural products, although prices are considerably lower than the average of this season of the year, and lower than we had reason to expect when the harvest was gathered. If the decline had been equal to that which has taken place in other departments of industry, there would be no such thing as a general depression, although there might be special cases of stagnation and distress growing out of overproduction in particular lines of trade.

A large part of the existing depression results from the slackening of railway construction since the close of the year 1882. Few persons have any adequate conception of the amount of labor and material required to build and equip a thousand miles of railway. When we say that the West Shore and Buffalo Road, for instance, has cost fifty or sixty millions of dollars, the mind can scarcely grasp a sum of such magnitude. Still less can it trace the countless channels and rivulets through which so vast a reservoir of capital has taken its refreshing course. The stoppage of such gigantic works has the same effect upon general traffic as the derailment of a fast-moving train of cars has upon the passengers, who are dragged a long distance bumping over the ties if not completely overturned.

The overproduction of railways during the past four years has been the cause of the overproduction of many other things, especially of things which enter into the construction of railways. An abnormal activity in these trades has turned more capital and labor in certain directions than can be profitably and permanently employed there. There must be a redistribution of employments, and this is in fact now going on. The cure and remedy for the hard times is to be found in this way, and no other. When the equilibrium of employments is once more reached or approximately reached, it will be found that good times have returned unperceived. Business will then start up afresh as it did in the latter part of 1879, and with as little presage of its coming.

MR. FRELINGHUYSEN ON COPYRIGHT.

THE importance of the correspondence between the American Copyright League and Mr. Frelinghuysen lies chiefly in the fact that his letter may be taken to represent the views of the Administration, and to show that should an authors' copyright bill pass Congress, the President would sign it. In a measure intended to afford international protection to authors, the President would, in the ordinary course of things, be guided by the opinion of the Secretary of State. Especially would this be the case now, when the State Department has already been appealed to to secure the same protection by way of treaty. Mr. Frelinghuysen, too, is one of the few very cautious and reticent men in public life, and would not be likely to break the silence he has carefully maintained as to copyright ever since he came into office, unless what he said was intended to go for much more than the expression of mere private opinion. He has, in fact, apparently taken the opportunity afforded him by the letter of the League to make such a statement of the views of the Administration on the subject of copyright as it would have been long ago forced to make on the floor of Congress had the Cabinet seats there.

The correspondence shows that the Copyright League, before adopting their present plan of urging before Congress the passage of a simple authors' copyright law, very judiciously determined to get some official statement of the exact condition of the negotiations for a publishers' treaty. The possibility of obtaining copyright by means of such a treaty had been under consideration for several years, and it was generally understood that the negotiations were a failure; but so far from anything being known positively on the subject, it was not even known what were the views of the Secretary of State as to the possibility of disposing of the matter by treaty, or as to copyright in general. Any one who wished to know what Mr. Frelinghuysen's views were, had to apply confidentially, not to anybody connected with the Government, but to some publisher; and, as a result, all that he could find out was that Mr. Frelinghuysen was thought to be opposed to a treaty; but whether because he was in favor of securing copyright by some other means, or because he was a believer in piracy and "cheap books," could not be ascertained. The Copyright League determined, in the first place, to find out. They therefore wrote him a letter, in which they asked him to let them know how the negotiations stood, expressing themselves at the same time as opposed to the whole scheme of a publishers' treaty, yet willing to take even that if they could get nothing better. What the publishers had tried to get was a treaty recognizing the English author's copyright here, provided he would sell it to an American publisher within a limited time, or vice versâ as to American copyright in England. What authors want, and what justice demands, is a recognition of copyright as property in both countries without any such restrictions whatever. Nevertheless the authors were willing to take for the time an instalment of justice granted them as a sort of boon by the publishers of England and America. Thus far, nobody had profited in any way by what had been attempted, except the great pirate Munro, who had neatly used the time consumed in the negotiations to make his fortune by wholesale plunder of both the foreign author and the American publisher. He, of course, must have hugely enjoyed the spectacle afforded by the discussions in the press over the question, whether the time during which justice required that the foreign author should be protected from him was three, six, or, as some people thought, nine months. Not a month, said he, not a week, not an hour. Rob the rascal as soon as he reaches the market, and give the public "cheap books."

Mr. Frelinghuysen's reply to the League is dated January 25, and states that the treaty "is still under consideration," but adds these words, which, so far as the Administration is concerned, remove all perplexity and obscurity from the path of those who have taken the matter up. He says:

"The difficulty in the way of negotiating a

formal copyright treaty with any foreign country is that the copyright laws of the two countries are usually so different that a detailed reciprocal code cannot be agreed on. Such a codified treaty necessarily puts the foreign author on a different footing from the home author, more privileged in some things it may be, and less so in others. And this difficulty is enhanced when—to quote the language of the Executive Committee's letter—such detailed stipulations 'put limitations as to time of publication and impose conditions as to manufacture that belong to regulations of trade and tariff, and not to authorship.' I am satisfied that a simpler solution of the question could be effected by some means which will give in each country to the foreign author the same right as a native author enjoys. The domestic copyright law does not attempt to legislate upon the relations between an author and his publisher, and it is not easy to see why an international compact should legislate upon a point which in each country is left to the course of trade. I think the foreigner owning a copyright should have here the same privilege as our own citizens, provided our citizens have in the foreigner's country the same rights as the natives thereof; and thereupon I would leave to the mutual convenience of the holder of the copyright and the publisher the adjustment of their contract, and leave to the tariff the task of protecting the paper makers, type founders, printers, and other artisans who join in producing the book as a marketable article."

This was probably much more than the League expected to get. Before the reply was written, Mr. Dorsheimer had introduced in Congress his simple authors' copyright bill—embodying precisely the same suggestions which, with some amendments making the term of international copyright the same as that of domestic copyright, the Judiciary Committee has agreed to report favorably to the House. The publishers are in favor of some bill, and it is known that the cheap-book business—the 20 and 25-cent "libraries" (reprints of foreign copyright works)—has been pushed so far that there is now little or no profit either in piracy or in reprinting from advanced sheets. The advanced-sheet publisher is only a fortnight ahead of the pirate, and his "library" cuts heavily into the pirate's profits. The foreign author suffers, and nobody gains. Hence, after many long years, the sudden and significant cessation of the people's bitter cry for cheap books, and the remarkable discovery that the press of the country, the Executive, and probably a majority of Congress, are in favor of putting the right of the literary man to the enjoyment of the product of his labor on the same footing with the right of the planter to his bale of cotton, of the farmer to his acre of wheat. The League has a chance such as no movers for copyright in the last fifty years have enjoyed.

THE FEUARDENT-CESNOLA TRIAL.

The Feuardent-Cesnola suit has at last terminated. The jury has refused to believe the attacks on the genuineness and authenticity of the Cesnola collection made by Mr. Feuardent, directly and through Mr. Clarence Cook. On the charges brought by General di Cesnola against Mr. Feuardent, in connection with their business transactions, it has failed to come to any conclusion. All this was foreshadowed clearly enough in 1881. It was tolerably plain then that Mr. Feuardent and his friends were asserting a great many things about the collection which they were unable to prove, and were relying on such flaws, or shortcomings, or contradictions as they could detect in General di Cesnola's writings and personal history to make up for any defects there might be in their own argumentation. It was this importance of the part played in their case by the personal element which made their writing so heated and vindictive. Such fury as pervaded Mr. Clarence Cook's pamphlet and the articles in the *Times* would have been useless and ridiculous if the destruction of General di Cesnola's personal reputation had not been so needful to success of the whole enterprise. No sane man, however enthusiastic an archæologist, could have become so excited simply over the question whether "No. 157" had had a tambourine stuck on it, or "Hercules" had been furnished with a new leg.

It is necessary to a proper understanding of the case to admit that the history of the collection furnished a good deal of material for this mode of attack. General di Cesnola did not go to Cyprus with any special or proper equipment for the work of archæological exploration. His previous career had been that of a soldier, and not that of a savant or even a student. He acknowledged on his cross-examination that he had not given any attention to archæology until he began to excavate, and he was then obliged to import from abroad the books with which he "studied up." He had apparently at that time not visited the Continental museums, nor familiarized himself in any way with the work that had been done in this field by the great lights of England, France, and Germany. Nor does it appear that he had any of that thorough knowledge of ancient literature which is so needful a part of an archæologist's outfit. Moreover, he was, during his explorations and up to the time of the sale to the New York Museum, placed in the anomalous and somewhat embarrassing position of having to seek a market for his finds almost as rapidly as he reached them. He made four or five consignments of antiquities for sale in England in the course of the ten years he was in Cyprus. There is nothing discreditable in this. There was no good reason why General di Cesnola should not sell his discoveries; but we all know that nobody who is looking for a market for anything can long preserve a scientific or judicial frame of mind about it. A man may have to be at the same time a dealer and an archæologist, but just in so far as his collections become wares must his judgment of their scientific or artistic value be disturbed or impaired. While General di Cesnola was trying to play these two not wholly compatible rôles, he wrote a good deal about the collection, both letters and articles and a book, sometimes in the character of a vender and sometimes of a virtuoso, and he was evidently all the while learning more and more about his subject, correcting some of his earlier impressions and getting a clearer knowledge of the archæological standards and tests and terminology. It is plain from his evidence, for instance, that when he wrote his book he did not attach the precise and distinct meanings to the words "repair" and "restore" which he has more recently made them bear.

The result of all this is, naturally, that it is possible to catch him in a good many contradictions, and inconsistencies, and misdescriptions, and failures of memory. He wrote a good many things during this, to him, most eventful and exciting period of his career, which it would doubtless be well if he had not written, and which he himself regrets, and which are capable, in the hands of an enemy, of disagreeable interpretations. But then which of us would pass with success or *éclat* through the ordeal to which he was subjected on the witness stand the other day? Who could bear to have his private letters, accounts, articles, promises, professions, explanations, during six or seven trying years, and his whole history from his boyhood, turned inside out by a bitterly hostile questioner, without suffering in some degree in dignity, if not in reputation?

The tribunal to which he submitted the Feuardent charges when they were first made, too, was, it must be admitted, unfortunately constituted. If these charges were worth examining at all, they should not have been examined by a body which, however competent, did not possess the complainant's confidence, and on whose impartiality he could cast reasonable doubts. Mr. Feuardent was not a person who could be treated with absolute contempt. He bears high testimonials from the authorities of the British Museum, who have employed him in this field as an adviser and purchaser for many years, both as to his knowledge and character. He was *primâ facie* entitled to have his charges passed on by an unprejudiced jury of experts. As a matter of fact they were passed on by a body of gentlemen who were almost necessarily biassed in favor of General di Cesnola, and of the contents of the Museum, and only one of whom had any reasonable claim to be considered an archæological authority. If it be said that the questions submitted to them were questions of fact rather than of law, the answer is that the main object of the investigation was to close Feuardent's mouth, and that this could only have been done, if at all, by plainly disinterested and authoritative judges.

The mistake that Mr. Feuardent and his friends made, however, to which the court and the public owed this extraordinary and costly trial, was in supposing that if they could discredit General di Cesnola as a man, the utter unreliableness of the collection as a specimen of antique art would follow as a logical sequence. No other theory will account for the extraordinary weakness and, as it has turned out, futility of their evidence as to the nature and extent of General di Cesnola's alterations. They have not been able to show that he made extensive repairs or restorations, or that any statue whatever is "a fraudulent patchwork of unrelated parts," or that anything has been done to the collection which any competent authority considers mischievous, misleading, unprecedented, or even unusual. They have fulfilled none of the serious promises of the Cook pamphlet or the *Art Amateur* article. The jury refused to adopt the theory that even if General di Cesnola were as base as Mr. Bangs depicted him, the

collection must be worthless either for artistic or educational purposes. They evidently are prepared to hold that a bad man may be a good collector, and that a statue may have great value even if the owner tells lies about it.

The truth is that the Feuardent party has suffered a good deal from having a too ready command of the press. Their situation now reminds one of the unfortunate stock speculator who said that "exclusive information and extensive banking facilities had been the ruin of him." They had so many periodicals and able writers at their disposal that they became lavish and overweening, and forgot, what is so necessary in making charges, to conjure up vividly and frequently the possibility of some day being called on to prove them before an unsympathetic audience. The most infallible of accusers has now and then to think of the witness stand in order to prevent his indignation from running away with him. Mr. Clarence Cook must just now be thinking of this a good deal. Ever since these proceedings began, the witness stand was for that furious and implacable archæologist the only post of honor. He ought to have passed the last three months in trying to get into it, in order to explain to an outraged community the true inwardness of this astounding fraud. And the truculent and amusing young lions of the New York *Times* ought to have sat round him on their haunches. But he avoided it as if it were a plague spot. He popped in and out of the court-room, but nobody called him, and he does not appear to have struggled or protested. This is a melancholy close to a very brilliant and exciting "art" episode.

SHOULD LYNCHING BE REVIVED?

THE Ohio lynching case recently reported reads in some respects like the cases common fifty years ago, when life and property in the new Western States were notoriously insecure, and society so unorganized that the courts of justice could not be relied upon to deal with criminals. A man named Clifford, living at a place called Rendville, was called to his door on Saturday night, and shot down in cold blood. Richard Hickey and his son, owners of a liquor-shop in the neighborhood, were arrested on suspicion, and taken before a magistrate for a preliminary hearing. While the examination was going on, twelve masked men —not twelve enraged, or furious, or excited men, but twelve "silent, steady, masked men" —came in, took the case out of the magistrate's hands, put a rope round the younger criminal's neck, "hoisted" him, and then proceeded to conduct a preliminary examination of their own. This resulted in a speedy declaration by the young man that his father committed the crime. The elder Hickey was then "hoisted," but he protested his innocence, and was thereupon hoisted and rehoisted until he was strangled to death. It is not known who the lynchers were, but they are believed to be "peaceful and quiet citizens" who "thought the circumstances under which Clifford lost his life, in view of the uncertainty of the courts, required that speedy justice be done." There is "general regret," the despatch adds, that "this act of lawlessness occurred," but there are "few sympathizers" with Hickey.

The unfortunate point in the case is that it seems at least doubtful whether the old man committed the crime at all. The only explanation of the murder of Clifford is that a brother of his had recently married a daughter of old Hickey, and that he had subsequently said that he would rather have seen his brother dead in his coffin than married to her. This enraged the old man so that he at once murdered Clifford. It is evident, however, that this evidence is defective; for, assuming that such a remark is necessarily wiped out in blood by the family of the slighted girl, the act of vengeance is after all as likely to be executed by a brother as by a father, and so we are not surprised to find that another member of the family declares that an older son, who has since escaped, fired the shot.

If this were an isolated case, we should not think so much of it; but there have been recently several indications pointing to the prevalence of a feeling in some parts of the United States that lynching, on account of the difficulty of executing murderers, must be revived. In Colorado the other day, a woman was summarily tried and executed by a number of "silent, steady" neighbors—the first woman, it is said, ever lynched in that "section"; and within a few miles of New York a ruffian who had made a murderous assault, but had not actually taken life, was rescued from a crowd of lynchers with great difficulty. In all these cases, the lynching, successful or attempted, is the work of the neighbors, acting in a hasty but organized way, and therefore in a way that makes all talk of punishment idle. They resemble each other in springing from a feeling that the law is so uncertain, and the difficulty of hanging murderers so great, that lynching has "got to come." A return to the custom of lynching in civilized communities is, however, a vastly more serious matter than its temporary outbreak in a pioneer State. In California such work as was done by the vigilance committee was always looked upon as merely a temporary substitute for the regulated administration of justice by the courts. It was always treated in the press and even by foreign observers as destined to disappear as the community grew civilized. But a revival of lynching in the midst of magistrates, sheriffs, police, detectives, and courts of justice, regularly organized and dealing with crimes against the person, can only be talked about as a "remedy" for anything by those who take a very black view of our social condition. A revival of lynching can only be excused by the admission that the courts do not, for some reason, administer justice in criminal cases; or, in other words, that they positively encourage crime.

We actually do hear, in communities like New York and Ohio, the complaint that the law is in such a state that murderers cannot be hung. Here, for instance, owing to the great facility of appeal and technical defence, we have practically three trials—one with the jury, one in the Supreme Court, and one in the Court of Appeals—before we know whether there is even a good chance of a murderer being hung. This comes, apparently, from the fact that the Legislature, whenever it is appealed to to make the procedure in murder cases a little more complicated than it was before, invariably does it. The acts which it passes, it is true, usually attract little or no attention at the time they are passed, and their existence is often unknown to the public till they are brought out in the progress of some trial. They are often passed at the instance of the class of criminal lawyers who in our large cities make fortunes out of the delays in criminal cases, and are essentially "private" bills, designed for the exclusive benefit of murderers.

But such laws could not be passed or remain for an instant on the statute books of any community in which there was not a vast amount of latent sympathy with crime of this sort, and a very feeble feeling of the importance of punishing murder rapidly and in a way to enforce the lesson upon the criminal class. No such statutes get passed in England or France or Germany. There is nothing to prevent their repeal here, if we want to have them repealed. A revival of lynching, however, or the taking of the work of judge, jury, and executioner into private and volunteer hands is a singular way of correcting or removing the causes from which the trouble springs. It is not found necessary to lynch or administer private justice upon thieves, because there is no liking for theft in the community, and consequently none gets into the Legislature. Of course, if murderers are not punished by the courts they will be in other ways, but a revival of lynching, or the fact that lynching has "got to come" in a modern civilized State can only be looked upon as not a cheering sign of hope or progress, but as an awful warning. It has "got to come" in the same sense that the plague or cholera has got to come if we do not prevent its coming. If there is a "feeling abroad" as to the uncertainty of murder trials, why does it not find its way into the Legislature? May it not be said that the very fact that it does not tends to throw doubt on the existence of any such feeling, which is not removed by the exploits of "silent, steady," masked executioners, however usually quiet and peaceable?

DOCTORS IN COURT.

A VOLUME has just been privately printed in Pennsylvania by Dr. George L. Harrison, formerly President of the Board of Public Charities of that State, collecting all the legislation of the modern civilized world on the protection of the insane. Dr. Harrison is a lawyer and a philanthropist, and has made a special study of this subject in all its aspects. The result throws some light on one or two questions of considerable interest to the public and the medical profession, in connection not only with the protection of the insane, but with expert testimony as to insanity.

A generation ago there was comparatively little indication in the laws relating to insanity of any prevalent dread of intrusting the decision of the fact of insanity to physicians. The general view was that the certificate of two or three doctors to a man's being out

of his mind was reason enough for shutting him up, and taking away his property from him. When an English novelist undertook to show that such a system might lead to terrible consequences, what he said was generally thought in this country to be the exposure of an English abuse, and to have little application to the United States. But Dr. Harrison says that precisely this abuse is to be found in Pennsylvania to-day. He gives several cases which have come under his own observation. In one of these a boy, perfectly sane, but suffering from the effects of an amputation, was locked up in an asylum, and was nearly driven crazy when he discovered where he was. He was released, and is now earning a living and married. In two of the cases, the patients were, properly speaking, kidnapped by the doctors; an attempt to inquire into their conduct in one of them came to nothing. In another, a man of considerable means was caught, shut up for nine months in a "retreat," at a distance from his friends, who did not know where he was. His property was handed over to a committee, and it was not till after nine months that he managed to obtain his liberty again. When the matter came up in court it appeared that the only ground for thinking him insane, even after he reached the hospital, was his habit of walking up and down the corridors and talking about himself.

Such are the results of leaving the right to decide the fact of insanity to physicians, and the tendency of legislation now is to insist upon a judge's decision in addition to that of the doctors. This is the law of Massachusetts to-day. In New York the judge is, as we understand it, not obliged by law to pass upon the question, but he has the right to do so, and generally now exercises it. A decision by him ought to be obligatory, as the question is not purely a medical one, and the doctors are in most cases paid for their certificate by some one who has an interest in depriving the patient of the control of his property. The question whether a man can take care of his property is a question which it is far safer to leave to any fair-minded lawyer, occupying a responsible position, than to a couple of casual alienists who may have been called in for this purpose, and who have at any rate the usual alienists' facility for finding lunacy in every case they examine.

The tendency which is thus exhibited in the laws of some States is found in the verdicts of juries in others. A curious illustration of this fact is given in the Meredith case in Philadelphia, in which the jury has just returned a verdict of sanity in the case of a gentleman who was proved to be subject to a delusion that he was "persecuted" by enemies—a strong indication of insanity—whose delusion was declared by the judge in his charge to "belong to a dangerous class or type," and who had, in consequence, been during most of the time since 1877 either "in actual confinement," or "under a moral restraint," and as to whom the experts testified that the removal of his restraint would cause his insanity to break out again. That the jury should have, under such circumstances, decided that Mr. Meredith was entitled to his liberty, could only have come from an entire disregard of the doctors' testimony. The distrust of medical testimony exhibited in this case is shown not only by juries, but by every good judge who has to pass upon it. He always nowadays warns the jury against the testimony of the doctors, as entitled to very little weight. The effect of the prevalent feeling on the subject is seen in all trials like the Meredith case, in all will contests, and generally in murder trials, though here it seems to be more than balanced by sympathy for the criminal. It is this sympathy which is at the root of the difficulty of getting criminals hung; but the doctors here come in to furnish a medical basis for a perjured verdict. As long as the prisoner, therefore, is allowed to introduce evidence on his own behalf—and how this is to be prevented it is difficult to see—the introduction of the State expert system, frequently recommended by writers who discuss this subject, will not avail much, although it will of course be an improvement. If physicians who give such evidence on the subject of insanity as we meet with every month or so now in criminal trials, are never punished either by their own profession or by the law, "experts" will continue to be produced for the purpose of giving a semblance of decency to verdicts of acquittal, and so long the prejudice against medical testimony in general will deepen.

THE RUMFORD MEDALLIST.

It is well understood that the "Rumford Medal" is about to be awarded by the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, in Boston, to Prof. Henry A. Rowland, of the Johns Hopkins University. Great as this honor is, it has been so rarely bestowed that the public may be excused for inquiring, "What is the Rumford Medal?" and "Why is it given to Rowland?" We shall try to answer these questions, though as to the former "the intelligent reader" will do well to turn for himself to the pages of Rumford's 'Life,' which was written by Dr. George E. Ellis a few years since.

On the 12th of July, 1796, nearly ninety years ago, that learned, humane, versatile, foresighted philosopher, who began his life as Benjamin Thompson, of New Hampshire, and ended it as Count Rumford of Bavaria, addressed two letters, in nearly the same words, to the Royal Society of London and the American Academy of Boston. Their purpose was to convey £1,000, or $5,000, to each of these scientific bodies, to be held as a fund, the income of which should be given every second year in premiums for important discoveries or useful improvements which might be published (within the two years previous) on heat or on light. If nothing should appear worthy of the prize, the premium was to be withheld and the income applied to the augmenting of the capital. One of the premiums was offered exclusively for discoveries made public in any part of Europe; the second, in any part of America.

During most of this century the Royal Society has had but little difficulty in discharging its trust. Rumford, Davy, and Brewster were among the first to receive the prize, and then there came a barren period, between 1818 and 1834, with but one fruitful year, when Fresnel was honored for his work on 'Polarized Light.' From 1846, onward, there is an unbroken series of biennial awards. A mere catalogue of the worthies who have thus been decorated suggests the history of modern physical research: Faraday, Regnault, Arago, Stokes, Pasteur, Kirchhoff, Tyndall, Jamin, Clerk Maxwell, Des Cloizeaux, Angström, Lockyer, Janssen, Cornu, Huggins, and Abney. In this country the task at first was not so easy, and no award was made during a period of more than forty years. In 1831 the difficulty of finding worthy competitors appeared so great, that the American Academy requested permission from the Legislature of Massachusetts, and finally obtained it, to use a part of the income for purposes akin to, but not identical with, those proposed by the founder of the prize. In 1839, for the first time, an award was made, and the Rumford Medal was bestowed on Robert Hare, of Philadelphia, for his invention of the compound blowpipe. Another barren period followed. At length, in 1862, Ericsson received the medal for his caloric engine; and in 1865 it was given to Professor Treadwell, of Harvard, "for improvements in the management of heat." It was next awarded, in 1867, to Alvan Clark, for his improvement in the telescopic lens. In 1870 it was given to George H. Corliss, of Providence, for improvements in the steam-engine. At a later day it was given to Dr. John W. Draper, of New York, for his discoveries in the theory of light. The latest award, prior to the current year, was to Prof. Willard Gibbs, of Yale College, for researches in thermo-dynamics.

All this is an old story, in which there happens to be a fresh interest because of the recognition now given to the work of Professor Rowland. As yet this is not well known to the public, for his printed statements in regard to it are brief and scattered, and have not yet permeated to the popular compendiums of science. But his inventions and discoveries are perfectly well known to physicists, for they have been repeatedly brought to the attention of learned societies at home and abroad. The admirable ruled surfaces, or "diffraction gratings," as they are commonly called, which were made by Mr. L. M. Rutherford, of New York, for spectrum analysis, have been for several years past among the most important instruments for investigations in respect to the nature of the sun's light. Mr. Rowland conceived the idea of improving these gratings, partly by making the surface on which they are ruled concave, and partly by a new and better method of ruling. He devised a new method of making the screw which guides the cutting diamond, and designed the whole dividing engine so as to obtain the highest accuracy. In both particulars he was successful. The machine worked so perfectly when it was first mounted for a trial, that it has never been taken down, but has steadily, by night and by day, pursued its accurate course. If he had paused here, after giving to the physicists of the world these gratings as instruments for further investigation, he would have made a grand contribution to physical science; but he did not rest content. He mounted his own gratings in a spectroscope of an original construction, in a room fitted up as a camera obscura, and there for two years past he has been making a photograph of the spectrum on a scale never before attempted. In this part of his work he has had the benefit of personal relations with Captain Abney, of the Royal Engineers, whose scientific researches in photography need only be alluded to. A photographic map of the spectrum is now well advanced toward publication, which will show to the world exactly what this invention has done.

One curious fact is worth adding. The scene of Professor Rowland's activity is a small "back-building" (as they call it in Baltimore), fitted up as a mechanic's shop, in Howard Street near the University. The screw which does the

ruling is down in a dark cellar where the temperature is nearly uniform, and the camera where the photographic work is carried on is the garret of an adjacent dwelling house. Nothing could be humbler than these unpretentious laboratories; but hither have come pilgrims from this and other lands—Cayley, Spencer, Sylvester, Carpenter, Newcomb, Hall, Young, Langley, Trowbridge, Draper, and many more, to watch with their own eyes the marvellous furrows of the little diamond plough, to wonder at the brilliant hues of the spectrum revealed by the grating, and to see the mysterious multitudes of lines which may be counted on the photographic plates.

We have referred to these researches on the solar spectrum because they are the most recent. It is probable, however (though we have not seen it so stated), that the award to Professor Rowland is based partly on a previous study of the mechanical equivalent of heat. In 1877 he began an investigation on this subject—after a preliminary study of thermometers, which was of importance—aided in the construction of a new instrument which he had invented by an appropriation from the Rumford fund of the American Academy. The main conclusion of his elaborate and original inquiry was a close confirmation of the value already announced by Joule. His paper on this subject was printed by the American Academy. A second paper, in which an elaborate review was made of all similar investigations, was honored with a premium from an Academy in Venice, and printed there. It is only just to add that the work of Professor Rowland has been generously encouraged by the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins University, who have given him ample pecuniary support, and have allowed him abundant freedom for the prosecution of his great research.

WENDELL PHILLIPS.

LIKE so many eminent men in New England, Mr. Phillips traced his line of descent to a Puritan clergyman—in this case the Rev. George Phillips, first minister of Watertown, Mass. From him was descended, in the fifth generation, John Phillips, first Mayor of Boston, who was chosen in 1822, a sort of compromise candidate between Harrison Gray Otis and Josiah Quincy, who equally divided public favor. John Phillips is credited by tradition with "a pliable disposition," which he certainly did not transmit to his son. He was a graduate of Harvard College in 1788, held various public offices, and was for many years "Town Advocate and Public Prosecutor," a function which certainly became, in a less official sense, hereditary in the family. He was a man of wealth and reputation; and he built for himself a large mansion, which is conspicuous in the early engravings of Boston, and which is still standing at the lower corner of Beacon and Walnut Streets. There Wendell Phillips was born November 29, 1811. He was thus placed by birth in the most favored worldly position, the whole Phillips family being rich and influential, at a time when social demarcations were more distinct than now. He was, however, brought up wisely, since John Phillips made this rule for his children: "Ask no man to do for you anything that you are not able and willing to do for yourself." Accordingly his son claimed in later life that there was hardly any kind of ordinary trade or manual labor used in New England at which he had not done many a day's work. He attended the Boston Latin School, entered Harvard College before he was sixteen, and was graduated (in 1831) before he was twenty, in the same class with Motley, the historian. Both of them had personal beauty, elegance, and social position; and Mr. Phillips always readily testified that both of them had certain narrow prejudices which he outgrew very soon, and Motley in the end.

It is rare for any striking career to have a dramatic beginning; but it may be truly said of Wendell Phillips that his first recorded speech established his reputation as an orator, and determined the career of his life. Being graduated at the Cambridge Law School in 1833, he was admitted to the bar in 1834. In 1835 he witnessed the mobbing of Garrison; in 1836 joined the American Anti-Slavery Society. In 1837 occurred the great excitement which raged in Congress around John Quincy Adams when he stood for the right of petition; and in November of that year Elijah P. Lovejoy was murdered at Alton, Ill., while defending his press from a pro-slavery mob. The Rev. Dr. Channing and others asked for the use of Faneuil Hall for a meeting to express their indignation; the city authorities refused it; Dr. Channing then wrote an appeal to the citizens of Boston, and the authorities yielded to the demand. At the Faneuil Hall meeting Jonathan Phillips, a wealthy citizen and a second cousin of Wendell Phillips, presided; Dr. Channing spoke, and then two young lawyers, Hallett and Hillard. James Trecothick Austin, Attorney-General of the State, then took the platform, and his speech soon proved the meeting to be divided on the main question, with a bias toward the wrong side. He said that Lovejoy died as the fool dieth, and compared his murderers to the men who threw the tea into Boston Harbor. The meeting broke into applause, and seemed ready to go with Austin, when Wendell Phillips came on the platform amid hisses that scarcely allowed him to be heard. Almost at his first words he took the meeting in his hands, and brought it back to its real object. "When I heard," he said, "the gentleman lay down principles which placed the murderers of Alton side by side with Otis and Hancock, with Quincy and Adams, I thought these pictured lips (pointing to their portraits) would have broken into voice to rebuke the recreant American, the slanderer of the dead." From that moment the tide was turned, the meeting carried, the oratorical fame of Wendell Phillips secured, and his future career determined. From this time forward, and while slavery remained, he was first and chiefly an abolitionist; all other reforms were subordinate to this, and this was his life. To this he sacrificed his social position, his early friendships, his professional career. Possessing a sufficient independent property, he did not incur the added discomfort of poverty; but, being rich, he made himself as it were poor through life; reduced his personal wants to the lowest terms, earned all the money he could by lecturing, and gave away all that he could spare.

He was fortunate in wedding a wife in perfect sympathy with him—Miss Ann T. Greene—and indeed he always said that her influence first made him an abolitionist. A life-long invalid, rarely leaving her room, she had yet such indomitable courage, such keenness of wit, such insight into character that she really divided with him the labors of his career. It is impossible for those who knew them both to think of him without her; it is sad to think of her without him. They lived on Essex Street in a region almost deserted by residences and given over to shops; the house was plain and bare, without and within; they had no children, and, except during the brief period when their adopted daughter was with them, the home seemed almost homeless outside of the walls of Mrs. Phillips's apartment. There indeed—for her husband and her few intimates—peace and courage ruled, with joy and hilarity not seldom added. But for many years Mr. Phillips was absent a great deal from home on his lecture tours, though these rarely extended Westward or over very long routes. Both he and his wife regarded these lectures as his main mission; for, even if he only spoke on "The Lost Arts" or "Street Life in Europe," it gave him a personal hold upon each community he visited, and the next time, perhaps, an anti-slavery lecture would be demanded, or one on temperance or woman's rights. He always claimed this sort of preliminary influence, in particular, for his lecture on Daniel O'Connell, which always secured for him a great following among our Irish fellow-citizens, at a time when they were bitterly arrayed against the anti-slavery movement.

Unlike his coadjutor, Edmund Quincy, Wendell Phillips disavowed being a non-resistant. That scruple, as well as the alleged pro-slavery character of the Constitution, precluded most of the Garrisonian abolitionists from voting or holding office, but Phillips was checked by his anti-slavery convictions alone. This fact made him, like Theodore Parker, a connecting link between the non-resistants and the younger school of abolitionists who believed in physical opposition to the local encroachments, at least, of the slave power. They formed various loosely-knit associations for this purpose, of which he was not a member; but he was ready with sympathy and money. In one of their efforts, the Burns rescue, he always regretted the mishap which for want of due explanation threw him on the side of caution, where he did not belong. At the Faneuil Hall meeting, which it was proposed to transfer bodily to Court Square, Theodore Parker was notified of the project, but misunderstood the signal; Wendell Phillips was never even notified, for want of time, and was very unjustly blamed. It is doubtful whether he was, in his very fibre, a man of action; but he never discouraged those who were such, nor had he the slightest objection to violating law where human freedom was at stake. A man of personal courage he eminently was. In the intense and temporary revival of the mob feeling in Boston, in the autumn and winter of 1860, when a John Brown meeting was broken up by the same class of "gentlemen of property and standing" who had mobbed Garrison, Wendell Phillips was the object of special hostility. He was then speaking every Sunday at the Music Hall, to Theodore Parker's congregation, and was each Sunday followed home by a mob, while personally defended by a self-appointed body-guard. On one occasion the demonstrations were so threatening that he was with difficulty persuaded to leave the hall by a side entrance and was driven to his home with a fast horse by the same Dr. David Thayer who watched his dying bed. For several nights his house was guarded by a small body-guard of friends within and by the police without. During all this time there was something peculiarly striking and characteristic in his demeanor. There was absolutely nothing of bull-dog combativeness; but a careless, buoyant, almost patrician air, as if nothing in the way of mob violence were worth considering, and as if all threats of opponents were simply beneath contempt; he seemed like some English Jacobite cavalier on the scaffold, carelessly taking snuff and kissing his hand to the crowd before laying his head upon the block.

No other person than Garrison could be said to do much in the way of guiding the "Garrisonian" anti-slavery movement; and Wendell Phillips was thoroughly and absolutely loyal to his great chief. In the details of the agitation, perhaps the leading organizers and strategists were two remarkable women, Maria Weston

Chapman and Abby Kelley Foster. The function of Wendell Phillips was to supply the eloquence; but he was not wanting either in grasp of principles orinterest in details. He thoroughly accepted the non-voting theory, and was ready not only to speak at any time, but to write, which he found far harder, in opposition to those abolitionists, like Lysander Spooner, who were always trying to prove the United States Constitution an anti-slavery instrument. His "The Constitution a Pro-Slavery Compact" (1844), though almost wholly a compilation from the Madison papers, was for many years a storehouse of argument for the disunion abolitionists; and it went through a series of editions.

In later life he often wrote letters to the newspapers, in which he did not always appear to advantage. But he did very little writing on the whole; it always came hard to him, and he had, indeed, a theory that the same person could never succeed both in speaking and writing, because they required such different habits of mind. Even as to reports of his speeches he was quite indifferent, and it was rather hard to persuade him to interest himself in the volume of 'Speeches, Lectures, and Essays,' which was prepared by James Redpath in 1863. The editor was a good deal censured at the time for retaining in these speeches the expressions of applause or disapprobation which appeared in the original newspaper reports, and which Mr. Phillips had erased. It is, however, fortunate that he did so; it not only increases their value as memorials of the time, but it brings out that close contact and intercommunion with his audience which was an inseparable part of the oratory of Wendell Phillips. He also published "The Constitution a Pro-Slavery Compact" (1844); "Can Abolitionists Vote or Take Office?"(1845); "Review of Spooner's Constitutionality of Slavery" (1847), and other similar pamphlets. He also showed real literary power and an exquisite felicity in the delineation of character in his memorial tributes to some of his friends, as, for instance, the philanthropist Mrs. Eliza Garnaut, of Boston, whose only daughter (now Mrs. G. W. Smalley, of London) he afterward adopted.

The keynote to the oratory of Wendell Phillips lay in this: that it was essentially conversational—the conversational raised to its highest power. Perhaps no orator ever spoke with so little apparent effort or began so entirely on the plane of his average hearers. It was as if he simply repeated in a little louder tone what he had just been saying to some familiar friend at his elbow. The effect was absolutely disarming. Those accustomed to spread-eagle oratory felt perhaps a slight sense of disappointment. Could this quiet, easy, effortless man be Wendell Phillips? But he held them by his very quietness; it did not seem to have occurred to him to doubt his power to hold them. The poise of his manly figure, the easy grace of his attitude, the thrilling modulation of his perfectly trained voice, the dignity of his gesture, the keen penetration of his eye, all aided to keep his hearers in hand. The colloquiation was never relaxed, but it was familiarity without loss of keeping; when he said "isn't" and "wasn't," or even, like an Englishman, dropped his g's and said "bein'" and "doin'," it did not seem inelegant; he might almost have been ungrammatical and it would not have impaired the fine air of the man. Then, as the argument went on, the voice grew deeper, the action more animated, and the sentences would come in a long sonorous swell, still easy and graceful, but powerful as the soft stretching of a tiger's paw. He could be terse as Carlyle; or his sentences could be as prolonged and cumulative as those of Choate or Evarts; no matter, they carried the same charm. He was surpassed by Garrison in grave moral logic; by Parker, in the grasp of facts, and in merciless sarcasm; by Sumner, in copiousness of illustration; by Douglass, in humor and in pathos; but after all, in the perfect moulding of the orator, he surpassed not merely each of these, but all of them combined. What the Revolutionary orators would now seem to us we cannot tell, but it is pretty certain that of all our post-Revolutionary orators, save Webster only, Wendell Phillips stood at the head; while he and Webster represented types of oratory so essentially different that any comparison between them is like trying to compare an oak-tree to a pine.

He was not moody or variable, or did not seem so; yet he always approached speaking with a certain reluctance, and never could quite sympathize with the desire to listen either to him or to any one else. As he walked toward the lecture room he would say to a friend, "Why do people go to lectures? There is a respectable man and woman; they must have a good home; why do they leave it for the sake of hearing somebody talk?" This was not affectation, but the fatigue of playing too long on one string. Just before coming on the platform at a convention he would remark with absolute sincerity, "I have absolutely nothing to say"; and then would go on to make, especially if hissed or interrupted, one of his very best speeches. Nothing spurred him like opposition, and it was not an unknown thing for one of his young admirers to take a back seat in the hall to stimulate him by a counterfeited hiss if the meeting seemed too tame. Then the unsuspecting orator would rouse himself like a lion. Again, when this opposition came not from friends but foes, it was peculiarly beneficial; and perhaps the greatest oratorical triumph he ever accomplished was on that occasion in Faneuil Hall (January 30, 1852), when it was reopened to the abolitionists after the capture of the slave Thomas Sims. Mr. Webster's friends were there in force, and drowned Mr. Phillips's voice by repeated cheers for their favorite, when Mr. Phillips so turned the laugh against them each time, in the intervals when they paused for breath, that their cheers grew fainter and fainter, and he had at last mobbed the mob.

He used to deny having trained himself for an orator; drew habitually from but few books, Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America' being among the chief of these; but read newspapers enormously, and magazines a good deal; while he had the memory of an orator or a literary man, never letting pass an effective anecdote or a telling fact. These he turned to infinite account, never sparing ammunition and never fearing to repeat himself. He used to say that he knew but one thing thoroughly—the history of the English Revolution—and from this he obtained morals whenever he wanted them, and, to tell the truth, used them in almost any direction. He knew the history of the American Revolution also; Sam Adams being his favorite hero. He was a thorough Bostonian too; and his anti-slavery enthusiasm never rose quite so high as when blended with local patriotism. No one who heard it can ever forget the thrilling modulation of his voice when he said, at some special crisis of the anti-slavery agitation: "I love inexpressibly these streets of Boston over whose pavements my mother held up tenderly my baby feet, and, if God grants me time enough, I will make them too pure to bear the footsteps of a slave." At the very outset he doubtless sometimes prepared his speeches with care, but his first great success was won off-hand, and afterward, during that period of incessant practice, which Emerson makes the secret of his power, he relied generally upon his vast accumulated store of facts and illustrations, and his tried habit of thinking on his legs. On special occasions he would make preparation, and sometimes, though rarely, wrote out his speeches beforehand. No one could possibly recognize this, however; he never seemed more at his ease, more colloquial, more thoroughly extemporaneous than in his remarkable address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society at Cambridge; yet it had all been sent to the Boston daily papers in advance, and appeared with scarcely a word's variation, except where he had been compelled to omit some passages for want of time. That was, in some respects, the most remarkable effort of his life; it was a tardy recognition of him by his own college and his own literary society; and he held an unwilling audience spell-bound, while bating absolutely nothing of radicalism. Many a respectable lawyer or divine felt his blood run cold next day when he found that the fascinating orator whom he had applauded to the echo had really made the assassination of an emperor seem as trivial as the doom of a mosquito.

He occupied during most of his life the willing position of a tribune of the people; nor was there any class with which he was unwilling to be, logically and politically at least, identified. Emerson, while thoroughly true to the anti-slavery movement, always confessed to feeling a slight instinctive aversion to negroes; Theodore Parker uttered frankly his dislike to the Irish. Yet neither of these had distinctly aristocratic impulses, while Phillips had. His conscience set them aside so imperatively that he himself hardly knew that they were there; he was always ready to be identified with the colored people; always ready to give his oft-repeated lecture on O'Connell to the fellow-countrymen of that hero; but in these and all cases his democratic habit had the good-natured air of some kindly young prince; he never was quite the equal associate that he seemed. The want of it never was seen by his associates; it was in his dealing with his antagonists that the real attitude came out. When he once spoke contemptuously of those who dined with a certain Boston club which had censured him, as "men of no family," the real mental habit came out. And in his external aspect and bearing the patrician air never quite left him—the air that he had in college days, or in that period when, as Edmund Quincy delighted to tell, an English visitor pointed out to George Ticknor two men walking down Park Street, and added the cheerful remark, "They are the only men I have seen in your country who looked like gentlemen." The two men were the abolitionists Quincy and Phillips, in whose personal aspect the conservative Ticknor could see little to commend.

There is no fame so intoxicating or so transient as that of mere oratory. Some of the most accomplished orators whom America has produced have died within a few years in mid-career and left scarcely a ripple on the surface. Two of these, to name no others, were ex-Governor Bullock, of Massachusetts, and Professor Diman, of Rhode Island. Neither of them had the fortune to be identified with any great moral enterprise or to stand before the public for a long time and be the mouthpiece of its indignation or its aims. It was not chance that gave this position to Wendell Phillips. A great many elements of genius, studies, social prestige, and moral self-sacrifice had to be combined to produce it. It never turned his head; his aims were too high for that, and he was aided by the happy law of compensation, which is apt to make men indifferent

to easily-won laurels. There is no doubt that, in the height of his fame as a lecturer or platform speaker, he often chafed under the routine and the fatigue; and felt that, had not fate or Providence betrayed him, his career would have been very different. He felt that, coming forward into life with his powers and at the time he did, he might easily have won the positions which went easily to men less richly endowed—as Abbott Lawrence and Robert C. Winthrop; and that, had he been once within the magic circle of public office, he could have used it for noble ends, like his favorite, Sir Samuel Romilly. "What I should have liked," he said once to a friend, "would have been the position of United States Senator for Massachusetts"; and though he never even dreamed of this as possible for himself, he saw his friend Sumner achieve a position which he himself, could he once have accepted its limitations, might equally have adorned.

It is impossible to say how office might have affected him; whether it would have given him just that added amount of reasonableness and good judgment which in later years seemed often wanting, or whether it would have only betrayed him to new dangers. He never had it; and the arduous life-long habits of the platform told upon him. The platform speaker has his especial dangers as conspicuously as the lawyer or the clergyman; he acquires insensibly the habit of a gladiator, and the better his fencing the more he becomes the slave of his own talent. *Les hommes exercés à l'escrime ont beau vouloir ménager leur adversaire, l'habitude est plus fort, ils ripostent malgré eux.* As under this law the Vicomte de Camors seduced, almost against his will, the wife of the comrade to whom he had pledged his life, so Wendell Phillips, once with rapier in hand, insensibly fought to win as well as for the glory of God. The position once taken must be maintained—the opponent must be overwhelmed by almost any means. No advocate in any court was quicker than he to shift his ground, to introduce a new shade of meaning, to abandon an obvious interpretation and insist on a more subtle one. Every man makes mistakes; but you might almost count upon your ten fingers the number of times that Wendell Phillips, during his whole lifetime, owned himself to be in the wrong or made a concession to an adversary. In criticising his career in this respect, we may almost reverse the celebrated censure passed on the charge of the Six Hundred, and may say that it was not heroic, but it was war.

If this was the case during the great contest with slavery, the evil was more serious after slavery fell. The civil war gave to Phillips, as it gave to many men, an opportunity, but it was not, in his case, a complete opportunity. At first he was disposed to welcome secession, as fulfilling the wishes of years; "to build," as he said, "a bridge of gold for the Southern States to walk over in leaving the Union." This mood passed, and he accepted the situation, aiding the departing regiments with voice and purse. Yet it was long before the war took a genuinely anti-slavery character, and younger men than he were holding aloof from it for that reason. He distrusted Lincoln for his deliberation and believed in Fremont; in short, for a variety of reasons, took no clear and unmistakable attitude. After the war had overthrown slavery, the case was even worse. It was a study of character to note the differing demeanors of the great abolitionist leaders after that event. Edmund Quincy found himself wholly out of harness, *désœuvré;* there was no other battle worth fighting. He simply reverted for the rest of his life to that career of cultivated leisure from which the anti-slavery movement had wrenched him for forty years; he was a critic of music, a frequenter of the theatres. Garrison, on the other hand, with his usual serene and unabated vigor, went on contending for the rights of the freed men and of women, as before for those of the slaves. Unlike either of these, Wendell Phillips manifested for the remainder of his life a certain restlessness; always seemed to be crying, like Shakspere's *Hotspur,* "Fye upon this idle life!" and to be always seeking for some new tournament. This would not perhaps have been an evil had he not carried with him into each new enterprise the habits of the platform, and of the anti-slavery platform in particular. There never was a great moral movement so logically simple as the anti-slavery reform; once grant that man could not rightfully hold property in man, and the intellectual part of the debate was settled; only the moral appeal remained, and there Wendell Phillips was master, and could speak as one having authority. Slavery gone, he found himself thrown, by his own life-long habit, into a series of new reforms, where the questions involved were wholly different and at a different stage of development. You could not settle the relations of capital and labor off-hand, by saying, as in the case of slavery, "Let my people go"; the matter was far more complex. It was like trying to adjust a chronometer with no other knowledge than that won by observing a sun-dial. In dealing with questions of currency it was still worse. And yet Wendell Phillips went on, for the remainder of his life, preaching crusades on these difficult questions, which he gave no sign of ever having seriously studied, and appealing to prejudice and passion as ardently as if he still had three million slaves for whom to plead.

It was worse still when, with the natural habit of a reformer, he found himself readily accepting the companionship into which these new causes brought him. The tone of the anti-slavery apostles was exceedingly high, but there were exceptions even there. "He is a great scoundrel," said Theodore Parker of a certain blatant orator in Boston, "but he loves liberty." It was true and was fairly to be taken into account. You do not demand a Sunday-school certificate from the man who is rescuing your child from a burning house. But it is to be said, beyond this, that though the demagogue and the true reformer are at opposite extremes, they have certain points in common. Society is apt to make them both for a time outcasts, and outcasts fraternize. They alike distrust the staid and conventional class and they are distrusted by it. When a man once gets in the habit of measuring merit by martyrdoms, he discriminates less closely, and the best abused man, for whatever cause, seems nearest to saintbood. Mr. Phillips, at his best, had not always shown keen discrimination as a judge of character; and the fact that the Boston newspapers thought ill of General Butler, for instance, was to him a strong point in that gentleman's favor. In this he showed himself less discriminating than his old associate Stephen Foster, one of the most heroic and frequently-mobbed figures in anti-slavery history; for Stephen Foster sat with great reluctance to see Caleb Cushing mobbed and silenced in Faneuil Hall by his own soldiers, after the Mexican war; and only lamented that so good a mob, which might have helped the triumph of some good cause, should be wasted on so worthless a creature as he. Fortunate it would have been for Wendell Phillips if he had gone no further than this; but he insisted on arguing from the mob to the man, forgetting the people may be censured as well for their sins as for their virtues. The last years of his life thus placed him in close coöperation with a man whose real motives and methods were totally unlike his own; indeed, the most unscrupulous soldier of fortune who ever posed as a Friend of the People on this side the Atlantic.

But all these last days, and the increasing irritability with which he impulsively took up questions to which he could contribute nothing but courage and vehemence, will be at least temporarily forgotten now that he is gone. They will disappear from memory like the selfishness of Hancock or the vanity of John Adams in the light of a devoted, self-sacrificing, and courageous career. With all his faults, his inconsistencies, his impetuous words, and his unreasoning prejudices, he belonged to the heroic type. Whether we regard him mainly as an orator or as a participant in important events, it is certain that no history of the United States will ever be likely to omit his name. It is rarely that any great moral agitation bequeaths to posterity more than two or three names; the English slave-trade abolition has left only Clarkson and Wilberforce in memory; the great Corn Law contest only Cobden and Bright. The American anti-slavery movement will probably embalm the names of Garrison, Phillips, and John Brown. This is for the future to decide. Meanwhile, it is certain that Wendell Phillips had during life that quality that Emerson thought the highest of all qualities—of being "something that cannot be skipped or undermined." Now that he is gone, even those who most criticised him will instinctively feel that one great chapter of American history is closed.

A LIVERPOOL ART GALLERY.

LONDON, January 16.

OF the thousands of travellers weekly passing through Liverpool, scarcely one in a month finds his way to the Gallery of Art of the Royal Institution. Indeed, it requires some perseverance to arrive there; for, of the inhabitants of the town, and even of the policemen, few know the whereabouts of the place, and the enterprising person who eventually reaches the door (unless indeed it be on a Monday) probably finds it closed and the building apparently deserted. Let him, nevertheless, ring, and boldly walk up stairs, asking no questions, for there are pictures hanging upon the four walls of the main room on the first floor that are well worth an hour's inspection.

The history of this little neglected gallery might be told in a few words, were it worth while, but a hurried reader will be thankful to be introduced at once to the paintings themselves. Of these, there are some hundred and fifty or more, many of them indifferent, many interesting only historically; there remains, however, a residuum of real excellence. The two or three Byzantine paintings of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, rare though such works are in the galleries of Europe, belong, perhaps, to the historically interesting class, and the same may be said of a mutilated panel painted with a "Coronation of the Virgin" by Lippo Memmi; but the little *tempera* painting by his brother-in-law, Simone Martini (signed and dated 1342), cannot fail to afford delight as well as to awaken interest. "Two surpassing painters have I known," said Petrarch; "Giotto, the Florentine, whose fame is great among the moderns, and Simone, of Siena." It was at the Court of the Popes at Avignon that the poet met Simone, and there he painted the portrait of Laura, described in more than one of the sonnets. During the painter's residence at Avignon he made the little Liverpool picture; and of all his smaller works it is not only the best preserved, but it is the one

that represents in highest perfection the lyrical beauty of the artist's thought. It shows us the boy Christ brought back by his father from among the Doctors to where the weary Virgin sits, reading for consolation in her Book of Devotion. But the charm of the little picture lies almost as much in the beautiful finish of the decorative adjuncts, the minute colored mouldings, the cusped canopy, the punctured halos of varied pattern on the gold ground, as in the graceful and expressive figures.

Of Giotto, likewise, the gallery possesses a reminiscence in the shape of certain portions of fresco, cut from the walls of the Carmine, at Florence, the year before the conflagration took place by which all except the famous Brancacci Chapel was destroyed. Vasari says that the frescoes were by Giotto, but it is not impossible that in this, as in so many other statements, Vasari was wrong. At all events these saved portions are judged, by common consent, to be the work of pupils, from the design of the master, perhaps, and, it may be, executed under his eye. The most pleasing of the pair represents a group of women holding baby John the Baptist, rolled up in a bundle; the dumb parent does not appear, but can be readily supplied by the imagination. Of two predella panels, from some altar-piece, one is obviously the handiwork of Fra Filippo Lippi himself, and represents an incident not without its charms for the romantic monk. A Bishop and a young lady sit together at a table eating and drinking; she, we are given to understand, has procured an invitation from him by certain unholy blandishments, and, indeed, the two black horns that find their way through her golden hair proclaim her character plainly enough to be the reverse of angelic. The pious Bishop is on the high road to ruin. Providentially, however, St. Andrew knocks at the door of the room, and the machinations of the fiend are brought to nought. In execution the work is most carefully done, the colors are tenderly handled and harmonious, and the most carnal spectator must admit that the expressions of the faces, especially that of the serving-lad, are remarkably naïve. A bust portrait of a lady is interesting, because it was cut from the wall of the Riccardi Palace at Florence, and may well depict some member of the Medici family, who formerly dwelt there. As to its authorship there are various opinions, the name of Botticelli being mentioned, not without a show of reason.

The latest picture of importance, belonging to the Florentine school, is a Madonna and Child, undoubtedly by Luca Signorelli. It is not one of the best of the works of that powerful but unequal master, and, besides, it has been a good deal rubbed; nevertheless, it is instinct with the force and vigor which he never failed to manifest in every creation of his brush.

Far more beautiful is a predella panel painted with a "Birth of St. John Baptist," by the little-known but most accomplished Umbrian artist, Fiorenzo di Lorenzo. The execution possesses the qualities of patience and delicacy, and the design is marked by the felicity and tenderness that have rendered famous the panels which once formed the treasury doors of the Church of S. Francesco, and are now preserved in the gallery at Perugia. The women are of peculiarly sweet and affectionate type. Their drapery is gracefully arranged and harmoniously colored. The lights upon the folds are drawn in fine lines of gold with great good taste.

Of pictures belonging to the school of Siena in the fifteenth century, there are two worthy of note. The first of these, probably the work of Francesco di Giorgio, is a picture which has been much discussed by historians. It represents the "Preaching of St. Bernardino of Siena," and contains the portraits, on a small scale, of several members of the Medici family. The figures are in many cases badly drawn and the buildings are in bad perspective; nevertheless the panel is of rare value, enabling us as it does to enter a mediæval church, and watch the behavior of a congregation listening to the words of a famous mediæval saint. Bernardino stands in the little four-legged pulpit he used to take about with him, and is in the act of displaying to the people one of his little tablets with the monogram I.H.S. The women are separated from the men by a curtain, which, however, is not too high to prevent a young dandy from taking up a good position of observation. Most of the people are kneeling before the little six-inch-high benches, which are all the sitting accommodation provided. The devout are not ashamed to give visible expression to their feelings, old ladies being particularly fervent. Many, both men and women, look about them and chatter, and some ladies who are just coming in, have all their attention concentrated on their own personal appearance. No attempt is made to keep the children in order. At the moment chosen by the painter, the preacher is pausing in his address, and trumpeters are blowing a blast to herald the entrance of the magnates of the town. The other Sienese picture is a "Madonna with Angels," probably by Matteo da Siena. The loving Virgin and her crouching babe, with the lily-bearing Gabriel and the reverently inquisitive little John, are fascinatingly grouped together, while the tasteful use of gold adds to the attractions of the well-combined colors. An excellent reproduction of this picture appeared in the *Portfolio* about two years ago.

The best represented of the Italian schools is undoubtedly the Venetian. Even in Venice such an altar-piece as the "St. Mark with Four Saints" is rare. It was painted by one of the earliest-settled Venetian artists, and belongs, properly speaking, to the school of Murano. The manner of the coloring is altogether that of the Umbrian Gentile da Fabriano, who for some years resided in Venice in the service of the town; the type of the figures, on the other hand, shows unmistakable traces of German influence. The picture is thus of great value, marking as it does the exact point of departure of true Venetian art, which united the strength of the North and the grace of the South to the rich coloring of the East. By Mantegna's marriage with the sister of Gentile and Giovanni Bellini, the influence of the learned and scientific school of Padua was brought to bear upon the rising artists of Venice; and it is probable that it was owing to this influence that the Bellini were enabled to overcome their rivals, the Vivarini, and thus to determine the line of development which led through Giorgione and Titian to Tintoret and Veronese. In such connection the presence of a finely-finished though rather damaged "Pietà," not indeed by Mantegna, but by his close imitator, Ercole Roberti di Antonio, is of especial interest. It shows, indeed, the influence of Giovanni Bellini, but the Paduan factor is so visible in it that it may well be taken (for want of a purer type) as an example of the Paduan element, which formed the final ingredient that went to make the Venetian school. A genuine and most excellent example of the work of Giovanni Bellini is a "Portrait of a Venetian Gentleman," duly signed and in good preservation. The rather weak brow of the youth is surmounted by a black cap of the shape fashionable at the day. He wears a black waistcoat and a cloak of dark green, bordering on black. The only bright color in the picture is the blue of the sky, with its white cumulus clouds; nevertheless there is a richness of tone and texture about the whole that marks it unmistakably as the work of a great colorist. Giovanni's less important followers—Pietro degli Ingannati, Vincenzo Catena, and the like—are well represented, but their pictures are of secondary importance. First rate, however, is the "Holy Family with S. Margaret in a Landscape," by one of the three Bonifazios—probably by him called, in Morelli's now classical work, Bonifazio Veneziano. It is a beautiful human family, grouped happily together among the flowers, the prettiest young mother, and the sweetest of babes, who playfully lays a garland of flowers upon the glorious golden hair of kneeling Margaret. The child John would gladly join in the play, and the Virgin looks musingly toward him as he reaches forward. Pet goldfinches are on the marble base of a ruined column, and pet rabbits sit in solemn discussion on the grass. The whole is painted with perfect skill and perfect ease. A more ideal work it would be possible to find, but not one fuller of refinement, gentleness, and quiet joy.

But the Venetian painter best represented is Tintoret. The study for the "Paradise" in the Ducal Palace at Venice is alone worth a day's journey to see. At Paris and Madrid are other studies for the same great work, but the Liverpool canvas is the most important of them all, because in it the conception of Paradise as a solid sphere of seraph-borne blessed ones, ranged about the central glory, makes its first appearance. The sketch is wrought with wonderful speed and certainty of hand. It must have been begun and finished at a sitting. The colors are splashed in, yet no single touch of brush or finger has been directed by chance. Few forms are rendered, it may be, but every form is definite and true. Each figure (and there are multitudes of them) is recognizable and usually namable. Each face wears a definite expression. The whole is solidified by the master's extraordinary power in the handling of light, and animated by his unrivalled and almost terrific power. An "Entombment" (for the present in the meeting-room of the Royal Institution in the building on the other side of the street) is a finished work by the same painter. It is one of the most powerful conceptions of the final scene of the great tragedy. The figures are in a mysterious half-light, grouped about the tomb, their attitudes expressive of long pressure of suffering, culminating in despair. A vague glimmer of pallid light strikes weirdly athwart the group and adds to the woeful aspect of the whole. Dark rocks shut them in behind, and a dark sky envelops them above, and from out the gloom emerge only the cold forms of painful death and more painful life. A "Last Judgment" professes to be the painter's study for the well known colossal picture, in the Madonna del Orto at Venice (described not quite accurately in vol. ii. of 'Modern Painters' and in the Venetian Index in 'Stones of Venice'). It is really an early copy from that picture, but, owing to the present faded state of the original, its vast dimensions, and the dark position in which it hangs, the copy is of more than ordinary value to the student of Tintoret. A "Crucifixion," painted by some scholar of Paul Veronese's, is founded on Tintoret's picture in S. Cassiano at Venice, and is not without charm. The "Finding of Moses" is likewise a tolerable work of Veronese's school.

Of pictures by Northern artists the collection contains no inconsiderable number, and one or two of them are worth notice. First in order comes a "Descent from the Cross," ascribed to Roger van der Weyden, and certainly by a painter of his school. The two thieves upon the wings are identical with those in a unique engraving of a "Descent" by the "master of 1464," preserved at Hamburg, the remainder of the

engraving being copied from Roger's "Descent" at Madrid. A large picture of one of the same thieves is in the museum at Frankfort, so it is not impossible that that may be one of the wings of the Madrid picture; it is, at all events, from the hand of Roger. Two very interesting panels belong to the early Westphalian school, and are undoubtedly the wings of a "Crucifixion" in the National Gallery, close beside which hangs another panel, evidently by the same master. The Liverpool panels represent various incidents in the Passion of Christ, painted in a coarse but powerfully dramatic manner. No gallery would be complete without its Cranach, and this possesses at any rate one (a "Venus"), and possibly a second in the form of a portrait of a middle-aged woman "got up" in very juvenile fashion, and smiling forever at the usually empty room. Hans Baldung Grün is represented by an "Age and Youth," and there are several more school pictures, both of German and Flemish origin. One of the most remarkable panels in the gallery is painted with a Madonna of very Milanese type, but in colors and with accessories that can only have come from the Low Countries. It is almost the only picture painted by a Northern artist under Italian influence that cannot be called a failure. The little naked smiling boy, nestling so happily against his mother's breast, is one of the most charming productions of any school or period. A beautifully finished portrait of Marguérite de Valois, sister of Francis I., can be none other than the handiwork of François Clouet, called "Janet," though it is usually assigned to Holbein. The rich stuffs of the lady's garments are painted with extraordinary care and skill; every detail is finished to the last point of perfection, and, though the subject is not an interesting or beautiful person, the painter has treated her with such genius that she cannot fail to attract the eye of even the most casual spectator.

Of later pictures of the schools of Rembrandt, Rubens, and other Dutch and Flemish painters, there are several worth seeing, though possibly not worth going to see. There are also meritorious specimens of the English school—a self-portrait by Reynolds's pupil and biographer, Northcote, for instance, and a series of some dozen or more cartoons by Romney—but these and the like the visitor will have no difficulty in discovering for himself, if the paintings mentioned above prove attraction enough to draw him, when next he passes through Liverpool, to the neglected Gallery of Art of the Royal Institution. W. M. CONWAY.

Correspondence.

THE ISSUE OF PAPER MONEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent criticism of the opinion expressed by Mr. Jackson Schultz, that the paper circulation of the country should be issued by the national Government instead of by private corporations, you cite as conclusive answers to the proposition, 1st, that to charge the Government with the duty of issuing paper currency is substantially to ask it to engage in the banking business on an immense scale; 2d, that the issue of paper money is left to the banks by all solvent governments, because it is only through the banks that the exact amount of paper needed by the country can be ascertained; 3d, that if the Government were to issue the paper money without doing a regular banking business of deposit and discount, the amount of circulation needed by the country would have to be determined either by Congress or by the Secretary of the Treasury.

I think I represent a large class of your readers willing to be enlightened on this subject, when I say that your arguments seem to me far from conclusive. The Government has been for years charged with the duty of issuing paper money, and now has about $346,000,000 of it outstanding. If without "engaging in the banking business on an immense scale" it can issue that amount, why not $376,000,000 more? Is it the amount of the issue which determines whether the Government is engaging in the banking business? If so, how are we to fix the point at which the issue ceases to be a legitimate function and becomes "engaging in the banking business on an immense scale"?

The most obvious answer to your second objection is, that the issue of paper money by the United States is the strongest possible evidence that at least one solvent government does not leave the issue of such money to the banks.

I think, too, you exaggerate the danger of allowing Congress to determine the amount of currency needed by the country. Until the amendment of the clause in the National Bank Law fixing the amount of the circulation, that question was under the control of Congress, and nevertheless the country was reasonably prosperous and made considerable progress in the payment of the national debt. Its determination will devolve upon Congress again when the bonded debt, and with it the national bank circulation, shall be extinguished. But as long as any portion of the bonded debt remains outstanding, the volume of the currency can be kept adjusted to the wants of the people by authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury either to anticipate the payment of bonds out of the surplus funds when that can be done to advantage (which is equivalent to saying when there is a demand for currency), or to loan the surplus funds upon the security of bonds deposited and *bearing no interest during such deposit*, which is substantially what is done now with the national banks—the principal practical difference being that the bonds deposited by the banks continue to draw interest. It is assumed that the demand for currency would never exceed the available surplus in the Treasury—an assumption which is justified by past experience.

The immediate advantage to the public at large to be derived from replacing the national-bank notes with United States notes must be apparent to every one. In order to redeem their outstanding notes, the banks would be obliged to surrender their bonds to that amount, the United States would save more than $11,000,000 annually in interest, and a number of offices would be rendered unnecessary. And all this would be effected without either inflation or contraction of the currency, and without any appreciable disturbance of values. When such an opportunity is offered to any government, stronger arguments than those advanced by you ought to be required to induce it to forego it.

J. CHAMBERLAIN.

BALTIMORE, January 18, 1884.

[In the first place, the Government never was, and is not now, "charged with the duty of issuing paper money." Its paper money now in circulation was issued for the purpose of making a forced loan in time of war, and the amount issued was determined solely by the needs of the Treasury. The greenbacks are, in other words, simply unredeemed promissory notes. In the second place, the Government can issue $1,000,000,000 greenbacks if it likes, but it cannot, we hold, make them legal tenders. But issuing them would not "be engaging in the banking business on an immense scale," inasmuch as the banking business consists in the receipt of money on deposit, and the lending of it to traders and others on interest. The issue of notes is not an essential part of the banking business. In the third place, the existence of the national banks *is* proof that this Government also does leave the issue of paper money to the banks, inasmuch as the national bank bills are the only paper money now in the country issued simply and solely as currency. In the fourth place, the extent of the danger to be apprehended from leaving the amount of the currency in the control of Congress, is, of course, as yet matter of opinion, and is only deducible from the past dealings of Congress with the currency, and from principles of human nature, and the experience of other countries. As a matter of fact, legislative power over the volume of the currency has always been abused in times of trouble.—ED. NATION.]

CHINESE AND ITALIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your correspondent, Mr. S. B. Wiggin, is justified in his belief that "no man ever heard any Californian propose a restriction of Italian immigration," although all Californians approve the restriction of Chinese immigration, Californians must discriminate with much more nicety than New Yorkers. For there are certainly many people in this State who would like to see both Chinese and Italian immigration prohibited—probably one-third of the voters of New York city would.

Many Italian laborers came to this place some two years ago to work on the West Shore Railroad and on the Amsterdam City Water Works. They were as a class industrious, sober, and very frugal, many of them eating little besides bread. But the sight of their industry and frugality was to some of our citizens the reverse of edifying. Italian industry and frugality were associated in the minds of those citizens with a low standard of living; and a low standard of living they look upon with that solemn disapproval which Mr. Arnold would think appropriate to their own low standard of morals and manners.

One day there was a squad of twenty or thirty Italians digging in one of our principal streets. There were some half-dozen English-speaking laborers looking on. As I was passing I heard one of these remark: "They're not like men at all; they're worse than the Chinese." The others agreed in a chorus. I stopped and looked to see what the matter was with the Italians. They were good-looking and able-bodied and were working hard; and yet they were not oppressed by their work, as was shown by their occasionally joking, laughing, and singing snatches of some ditty. It was quite clear that there was nothing the matter with them that these on-looking laborers were capable of discerning. The matter simply was that the Italians were *there*. Either of these English-speaking laborers would undoubtedly *second* a proposal for the restriction of Italian immigration. Probably no one of them ever "proposed" anything in his life. J. C. COZENS.

AMSTERDAM, N. Y., January 28, 1884.

PACIFIC COAST VIEW OF THE CHINESE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is an endless, as well as a thankless, task to answer the attacks upon the Chinese by California writers, for the reason that they dis-

dain evidence, and readvance refuted reasons or arguments as if they never had been met. Nevertheless, it is worth while to say a word now and then; for, though they succeed in obtaining foolish and unjust laws, we can at least keep them in mind of the fact that they have not gained the moral support of the rest of the nation.

Your contributor in the *Nation* of January 24, Mr. Samuel Bradley Wiggin, who considers his Eastern opponents "hide-bound fanatics," is evidently himself a fanatic of the first water. He hesitates at no extreme in his description of the Chinaman; he believes in no arguments in his favor. Yet he must have at hand abundant evidence contradicting every statement that he makes. He can find in any library, and in a great many houses of San Francisco, Mr. George F. Seward's book on 'Chinese Immigration,' giving the testimony of hundreds of reliable, intelligent people, collected by the State, proving the Chinese to be industrious and frugal *in every true sense* (Mr. Wiggin's observation, whatever it may mean), of good general habits, and, moreover, what may surprise him, cleanly as compared to the average Californian.

As to infanticide, he had only to be at the pains to inquire of any respectable and intelligent Chinaman (and there are plenty in San Francisco), and he would have received indubitable proof that destruction of female children is as uncommon among the Chinese of that city as among any other of its inhabitants. Probably he and his Eastern friend could not discriminate between boys and girls in Chinese dress. To them they would look alike. But, in any case, it would not be surprising to any but a monomaniac that the majority of the children in the streets should be boys. Yet on that slender suggestion, fortified by the extorted and probably half-understood admission of some irresponsible shopman, intent on conciliation, Mr. Samuel Bradley Wiggin makes an assertion to the whole American public which he should be ashamed on such evidence to whisper to his wife.

I have lately been living in California, and I did not find the unanimity against the Chinese which he represents. Every man that held an office, and every man that hoped to run for an office (and the latter class is unhappily uncommonly numerous in the State), and every man of the loafing class, whether he wore broadcloth or homespun, was indeed dead against John Chinaman. Those who had nothing to expect from the voters, and who aimed to advance their fortunes by industry, temperance, and frugality, were oftener in his favor than against him. But, as everybody knows, there are enough of the latter class united with those of the former, and aided by the activity of the anti-Chinese politicians, to carry the State against the Chinese with an apparent unanimity. There is no pretence of fair dealing in the public discussion of the subject, which no doubt in part accounts for this appearance of unity. The leading San Francisco papers will not publish an article on the Chinese side, or would not while I was in the country. I know of instances where the attempt was made in vain.

As for relative habits and morals, not to speak of the abundant evidence in favor of the Chinese in Mr. Seward's book, I know of household servants who, after the continuous and faithful labor of the day, walked four miles into town to attend an evening school, returning at midnight to be up and at work again by six in the morning. On the other hand, I saw in one of the best up-town streets of San Francisco two boys of ten and twelve, pinks of respectability, with gold watch-chains and shirt-studs, throwing pieces of brick and stone at a respectable Chinese house-servant who was walking in front of them, he vainly remonstrating. There were but few people in sight, but those few paid no attention other than to bestow a benignant smile upon the boys. I ventured also to remonstrate, and as I suggested a visit to a police station, and stood by until the Chinaman turned the corner, the amusement terminated for that time. Who corrupted the sense of right in those young gentlemen? Not Chinamen.

Mr. Samuel Bradley Wiggin's views about the Italians are an amusing commentary on his anti-Chinese sentiments. They also, it seems, are industrious and frugal, and undersell the lord of the land; but Mr. Wiggin naïvely consoles himself by reflecting that the Italian has a family, and he has "faith to believe that his children will be an improvement on their father," *i. e.*, *less* industrious and frugal, since that is the only charge he has against them.—Your obedient servant,

EDWARD CUNNINGHAM.

MILTON, MASS., January 26, 1884.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If you will allow me I would like to comment on an anti-Chinese letter published in the last number of the *Nation*. I will pass over the references to the Chinese as paupers and as coolies, and to the opinion expressed that they are not frugal, nor industrious, nor cleanly. I will take the writer at his word—that the conclusive argument against the Chinaman is that he does not come here to stay; that he *must* return to China, alive or dead. After learning from the writer of the many revolting characteristics of the Chinaman, one is disposed to think that the one redeeming feature of his immigration is, that he *does not* come here to stay. Now I do not like to see the good people of the Pacific coast grieve over the loss of their detested, yet beloved, John. I think I can show them where they may look for consolation, and find it. I think when John migrates here (if he has a chance) a little longer, that he will come here to stay. I think that his desire to return is one that is common to humanity, and one that, after a while, would be gotten over.

As evidence of this I will mention the Chinese immigration to Java, to Malacca, and to Burmah, which has been going on for a much longer time than the immigration to America. To these places John goes; in them he raises his family, dies, and is buried. This shows that there is no *necessity* about his returning to China, and that probably with a little study of the Chinese character, and a little tact, he could be induced to stay in this country. Allow me to suggest that this little tact does not consist in annoying him, insulting him, nor even in mobbing him. The good people of the coast seem to have assumed that as he is so opposite to us in most things, a decidedly opposite way of treating him would be most likely to give them the result they are so anxious for, viz.: that John should make his permanent home with them. But this is a mistake, surprising as it may seem, and I would recommend our friends to study the Chinese immigration to other countries to find out both how to get him and how to keep him.

C. R. C.

CHICAGO, January 28, 1884.

"UNEARNED INCREMENT" AND SHRINKAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On page 45 of the current volume of the *Nation*, you justly say:

"No discussion of our land problem will be complete which does not show how the shrinkage"—*i. e.*, the shrinkage in values—"as well as the increment, is to be dealt with."

It is due to the author of the phrase "unearned increment," or of its equivalent, "unearned increase"—the late Mr. John Stuart Mill—to say that he did not overlook this point. Section 4 of the "Programme" put forward in 1870 by the English Land Tenure Reform Association, of which Mr. Mill was President, proposes—

"To claim for the benefit of the state the interception by taxation of the future unearned increase of the rent of land (so far as the same can be ascertained), or a great part of that increase, which is continually taking place without any effort or outlay by the proprietors, merely through the growth of population and wealth; *reserving to owners the option of relinquishing their property to the state at the market value which it may have acquired at the time when this principle may be adopted by the Legislature.*"

In a paper explaining this "Programme"—*vide* pp. 225 *et seq.* of the fifth volume of 'Dissertations and Discussions,' published in 1875 by Henry Holt & Co.—Mr. Mill supplements the words which I have italicized by saying that owners who may not turn their lands over to the state when the proposed system of taxation shall be put in force, "should be allowed at any future period to alter their minds and give up their lands for the price first offered, or more, if they can show that they have made, during the intervening period, substantial improvements at their own cost." He adds: "The option thus allowed would be a permanent security to the land-owners against any unjust or excessive exercise of the right of taxation by the state." That it would guarantee the land-owner against the risk of loss through shrinkage, as an offset to depriving him of the chance of gain through unearned increase of value, is, of course, apparent.

It is, perhaps, hardly necessary to remark that the phrase "unearned increase of value" just used is substantially equivalent to the phrase "unearned increase of rent," since the selling value and the rental value alike depend on the amount of income that can be derived from the land. As the word rent is used by Mr. Mill in its scientific sense, "unearned increase in the rent of land" would, of course, include unearned increase of rental value where the land is occupied by the owner, as well as unearned increase of actual rent—in the popular sense of the word—in cases where the land is occupied by a tenant.

It may be worth while to note the fact that, whatever may have been the case with building land in the cities and towns of Great Britain and Ireland, a considerable part of the farming land of the kingdom has fallen in value since the time when the "Programme" above referred to was put forth; and that, under the operation of the plan then advocated by Mr. Mill, the state would probably have had a good deal of land thrown on its hands at more than its present market value. How far the losses to which, for a time at least, it would thus have been subjected would, during the same time, have been overbalanced by the revenues from unearned increase, I shall not attempt to estimate; but the net gain to the public treasury, and through it to the people, would doubtless have been considerably less than Mr. Mill anticipated.

The truth is, that it is in a new and rapidly-growing country, like the United States, that the plan advocated by Mr. Mill would produce its largest results. The depreciation of farming land in Great Britain—so far as such depreciation has actually taken place—was due in considerable part to the cheapening of transporta-

tion between the Atlantic ports of the United States and the grain fields of the Northwest, which increased the activity of American competition in British markets; but this is a cause from which the American land-owner gained in about the same degree as the British land-owner lost. A certain amount of unearned increase of value was simply transferred from British land to American land.

There are, of course, many instances of "shrinkage" of value, even in this country. This is especially the case in periods of great business depression, such as that which followed the panic of 1873; but even in times of prosperity, miscalculations are often made as to the destiny of particular tracts of land, and speculation carries prices to a pitch that cannot be maintained, making more or less shrinkage inevitable. In the main, however, the course of land values is rapidly upward, and is destined to be so for a long time to come, unless events as unlooked for as another glacial period, or as a collision with a comet, shall occur to prevent it.

But while it is in new countries, rapidly increasing in population and wealth, like the United States and some of the British colonies, that "unearned increase in the rent of land"—I use the word "rent" in its technical scientific sense—is most strikingly manifested, and is most rapidly enriching one part of the population at the expense of another part; and while it is in such countries that a system of taxation like that advocated by Mr. Mill would be most effective, it is precisely in such countries that there is the least inclination to adopt any measure of radical land reform, for their statesmen seem to be imbued with the conviction that it will be all in good time to lock the stable-door when the horse shall have been stolen.

EDWARD T. PETERS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 29, 1884.

GREEK OR BARBARIAN?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have very properly remarked that students who do not succeed in Greek at our colleges are not likely to succeed any better in French or German. I think the remark an important one, and the only one that can be in fairness taken against the well-known argument of Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr. There is, however, something more to be said on the subject, which, as far as I know, has not been alluded to by any of the numerous writers who have taken up the defence of Greek against the threatening inroads of the barbarians. If it be true that a poor scholar in Greek would very likely have been just as poor in French and German, it is true for the reason that a modern language *thoroughly studied* is about as difficult as an ancient one, and that, hence, as much or nearly as much time should be allowed for the study of the one as of the other. Dr. Peabody, in an article in the *Atlantic*, greatly errs in thinking it possible that a student who gives most of his time and attention to Latin and Greek may learn German and French in odd hours, by a purely conversational or similar method.

I have taught German and French for over twenty years to collegiate classes, and have been a devoted and fairly successful student of ancient and modern languages for well-nigh forty years, but during all this time I have never met a case like the one considered possible by Dr. Peabody. To learn German well requires fully as much time as to learn Latin well. It takes far less time to learn to *read* French, but to gain a fair mastery in writing and speaking French would require more time, in my opinion, than is devoted to Greek in our best colleges.

It will doubtless be said that it is not the object of the college to teach anything thoroughly—except the ancient languages! I have no quarrel with those who believe this, but I insist on their stating the fact. Four years are a brief time to obtain something more than a smattering of three or four languages. The testimony of the most competent judges—for instance, President Barnard, also the late Edward Lasker, and many presidents of German gymnasia—seems to have established the fact that even Latin and Greek are not well learned during the time now devoted to their study; and who has ever heard of any one really gaining more than a superficial knowledge of a modern language, in addition to his Latin and Greek, during that time? The knowledge of French possessed by a German Gymnasium graduate is more than modest, and not much better than the knowledge of a modern language possessed by our own graduates of the A.B. course. Would it not, under these circumstances, be wise to adopt two courses of study in our colleges, one emphasizing the modern, the other the ancient, languages? The State Universities of Michigan, Iowa, and others have done so, and Cornell at Ithaca also. I feel quite sure, from actual experience, that such an arrangement would prove satisfactory, because it would leave the classical side a chance to prove their superiority as educators of the "whole man," and enable the other side to give a thorough training in the modern branches. The Latin, all or most of it, might be retained in the latter course, as it actually is in the institutions named.

Those who think that the Berlin test, as applied to the Realschule students, was decisive, and who on this account oppose the plan here suggested, should bear in mind that the Prussian Realschule has to contend with a peculiar difficulty, viz.: that of not being considered the equal of the Gymnasium. If, indeed, this prejudice were well founded, it would not prove anything against the training in modern languages, but against an insufficient amount of such training. The Prussian Realschule requires 84 hours (the weekly average for the course) of languages, while the Gymnasium requires 126 hours. Of its 84 hours, the former gives one-half to Latin, and divides the other half between French and English. The remainder—42 hours—is devoted by the Realschule to additional mathematics (50 per cent. more than the Gymnasium allows) and to several sciences.* It follows that the Berlin test rather condemns the deficiency of language in general, or else the preponderance of mathematics and science, but not the training in modern languages, if made just as long and complete as the training in the ancient languages furnished by the Gymnasium.

One word in regard to the educational value of modern languages. Prof. Max F. Müller, of Oxford, claims that this value is fully equal to that of the ancient tongues, leaving literature out of consideration. Professor Whitney, of Yale, emphasizes the importance of the study of languages next of kin to the English, as a natural basis for comparative philology. Both gentlemen rank high as philologists, are sincere friends of classical culture, and speak from a vast experience. Doctor Peabody, to whom I have referred, claims superiority for the Greek as a training for literary purposes, and asserts that he can tell from the style of an article whether the writer has had Greek training or not. I have some doubts about this. The fact is, most writers of some standing necessarily have had a classical education, for the simple reason that most of them are graduates of colleges, which until recently have recognized no other. Nevertheless, we may find a few good writers who built their high culture on a different foundation, and gained their fine diction in another school. If there were a Shakspere among us, would Doctor Peabody miss the Greek stamp on his writings? Or would he think less of Dante, Schiller, Burns, because these great poets were innocent of Greek? Would he, as an editor, refuse contributions from a Herbert Spencer, a John Bright, a Professor Tyndall? Until proof is furnished that these men would have been still better writers if their early education had included Greek, Doctor Peabody must not expect us to attach very much value to his assertions.

C. A. EGGERT.

IOWA CITY, January 20, 1884.

*Some time ago I was corrected by one of your contributors for having claimed equality in the amount of Latin required by the Realschule and Gymnasium. The writer gave the requirements of the Saxon Realschule, which is lower than that of the Prussian. I was nevertheless in error in claiming equality; the real proportion is as above stated. (See Wiese, 'Das hoehere preussische Schulwesen.')

THE DECLINE OF LAISSEZ-FAIRE IN ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: During the reading of the acute and interesting observations of Mr. Dicey in the *Nation* of January 10 and 17, upon the present tendency in England to make more and more use of the agency of the Government in effecting social reform, as contrasted with the strong laissez-faire notions of thirty years ago, it has occurred to me that a strong and interesting evidence of this alteration is presented by the change wrought since that time in English public opinion upon the history of England in the seventeenth century. This is shown not only in the case of the royalist party in general, but especially in the case of Wentworth. A revulsion of feeling has occurred in favor of the party, and especially of the statesman, who wished to gather power into the hands of the Government, to be used for the accomplishment of great internal reforms. It cannot be supposed that this is owing chiefly to Mr. Gardiner's researches, but rather that the change in the current of public opinion as to governmental action in the present has, to borrow a metaphor from electricity, induced a current in public opinion upon the action of Government in the past.

It seems to me, too, that the increase which Mr. Dicey notices, between 1850 and 1880, in the prominence given to sympathy in English social and political thought, is similarly reflected in the contrast between the characteristic nineteenth-century histories of the two periods—between Macaulay's narrowness of sympathy and the broad and impartial appreciativeness which, aside from its scholarship, is the distinctive merit of Mr. Gardiner's great work.

J. F. JAMESON.

BALTIMORE, January 27, 1884.

AN INDEX WANTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a matter of surprise and regret to students of English literature that no volume of the series of English Men of Letters has yet been indexed. Facts relating to one of a group of contemporary writers have to be traced through several volumes of the series. To find all that is said on Burke, one must read the volumes on Johnson, Goldsmith, and Gibbon. This work is easy and pleasant enough for awhile; but one's energy sometimes flags after searching for

a single fact through the 6,000 pages of the series. Every careful student will partially index his books for himself, but every such student would regard a complete index of this series as a valuable addition to his library.

W. E. MEAD.

ANSONIA, CONN., February 1, 1884.

DR. CLEVENGER AND THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Holding Professor Olson's communication before a mirror, or inverting it, neither adds to nor detracts from its lucidity. His well-known familiarity with the classics affords him a scope of expression often quite felicitous, and enables him upon occasion to be diplomatic—abilities the genial Professor, whom everybody likes, would value less were his acquisitions less classic and more scientific.

I felt pained to think he should have thought it necessary to imply so much in saying so little. It is of little consequence that the club held its meetings in the University, and that its proper title is University Club of Chicago and not Chicago University Club. For that matter, according to the Douglas heirs, there is no Chicago University or University of Chicago. They claim that the Senator deeded the land upon which the University was built, with the stipulation that the University should be called by his name.

The chair in question, according to the catalogues, was not vacant; but as Professor Dexter has not delivered a lecture at the University for some years, and as the suggestion of my appointment was made after that gentleman had brought suit against the University, it is safe to assume that the chair in reality was unfilled, except so far as Professor Bastin could spare time from teaching zoölogy, botany, chemistry, physics, mineralogy, and geology, to fill it.

Professor Olson was President of the University Club at the time the Darwinistic lecture in question was delivered, and, as he may remember, interested himself with Professors Bastin and Garrison in consulting the President of the University concerning my appointment; and that activity in that direction was suddenly ended immediately after the lecture was delivered, even though before this the President had made an appointment to call upon me concerning the chair. Another member of the Faculty told me that, as my evolutionary views clashed with those taught in other departments of the University, the President reconsidered the matter of appointing me. I understood that Professor Bastin resigned owing to similar intimations concerning the effects of his teachings. The well-known Baptist affiliations of the University are incompatible with evolution, but not with involution.

As to the martyrdom alluded to, probably the necessity for bringing suit to recover professorial salaries would make the incumbency of, and not the failure to obtain, the chair a sacrifice.

This ends *my* share in the controversy, no matter what may be published hereafter.—Respectfully, S. V. CLEVENGER.

CHICAGO, February 1, 1884.

THE THEORIES OF ORE DEPOSITS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to endeavor to correct, as far as possible in the space allowed, some of the statements contained in the review of 'The Geology of Wisconsin,' in the *Nation* for January 24. I refer to the nearly two columns devoted to the ore deposits, in which it seems to me your critic has done injustice to a number of scientific men.

The view that the copper of the Lake Superior region was originally finely disseminated through the igneous rocks has been advocated by Müller (1856), Bauerman (1866), Marvine (1873), Wadsworth (1880), and others. That it was locally concentrated through the agency of permeating atmospheric waters has been held by Foster and Whitney (1850), Rottermund (1856), Müller (1856), J. W. Dawson (1857), Hunt (1863), Bauerman (1866), Pumpelly (1871), Marvine (1873), Wadsworth (1880), and others. That the copper was originally a portion of the material from which the lavas were formed has been advocated, if not by others, at least by Wadsworth, who, after summarizing the views of others, gave in 1880 a theory in all essential points identical with Chamberlin's.

It was held by Whitney, in 1854, that the lead and zinc deposits were from aqueous solutions, and that the gases originating from the decomposing organic matter in the beds influenced the precipitation. In 1860, after giving sufficient evidence to show that the ores were extracted from the ocean during the Trenton Period, Whitney stated his belief that the cause of that extraction was the decomposition of the immense amount of organic matter in the beds and the hydrogen sulphide yielded by them; and that the finely divided ores thus scattered through the formation were later concentrated by the percolating waters. Pumpelly and Hunt later advocated the same view, and added to it the theory that organic bodies, in the process of growth, stored up metals in their tissues, while later, through their decomposition, these metals were deposited in the forming strata. Pumpelly accounted for the localization by ocean currents and *sargasso seas*, and held that the metals were leached into the sea from older formations. Shaler, in 1877, summarized these views, and thus presented a theory almost identical with Chamberlin's.

I claim, then, that your critic is unjust to others in stating that all theories previous to Chamberlin's are unsatisfactory while his is satisfactory, when others had previously advanced the same views. Your critic is mistaken in his statement that Whitney regarded the Archæan rocks as the distant source of the metals; and in attributing to Chamberlin the original idea of the theory of ore deposits given in your columns. The mode of presentation and certain details of local application alone seem to be original with Chamberlin, and although he was not as careful as he should have been to give credit to others, the injustice done in the review seems to be the fault of your critic, whoever he may be, rather than of any one else.

I have written this not to endorse any theory, but simply to see justice done.—Yours very respectfully, M. E. WADSWORTH.

MUSEUM OF COMPARATIVE ZOÖLOGY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 4, 1884.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS announce for their spring publications 'The History of the Discoveries of America to the Year 1525,' by Arthur James Weise; 'Prehistoric America,' by the Marquis de Nadaillac, translated by "N. D'Anvers," and furnished with a preface by Prof. F. W. Putnam; Anton Gindely's 'History of the Thirty Years' War,' translated by Prof. Andrew Ten Broeck; 'The Book of the Beginnings,' a familiar study of Genesis, by the Rev. R. Heber Newton; 'Bible Characters,' by the late Rev. Alexander D. Mercer, D.D., with a memoir; 'The Words of Christ, considered as Principles of Personal and Social Growth,' by President John Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin; 'By-Ways of Nature and Life,' by Clarence Deming; 'The Early Spanish Masters,' by Emily W. Washburn; 'The True Theory of the Sun,' by Thomas Bassnett; 'The Unity of Nature,' by the Duke of Argyll; 'Politics,' an introduction to the study of comparative constitutional law, by Wm. W. Crane and Bernard Moses; 'The Elements of Political Economy,' by Prof. Émile de Laveleye, translated by Alfred W. Pollard; a new edition of the 'World's Progress'; and a new (the "Stuyvesant") edition of Irving's Works, in seven volumes, large 12mo, at a cheap price.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press, or in preparation, 'Peter the Great,' by Eugene Schuyler, of which the magazine-reading public have already had a foretaste, and which will be illustrated by a very large number of engravings and a special map of Europe in Peter's time; 'Creation; or, the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of Modern Science,' by Prof. Arnold Guyot; 'The Creoles of Louisiana,' by Geo. W. Cable, illustrated; 'The Question of Ships,' by Lieut. J. D. J. Kelley, U. S. N.; and 'Dr. Johns' and 'Bound Together—A Sheaf of Papers,' in the uniform edition of the works of Donald G. Mitchell. The same house will be the American publishers of the 'Life of Frederick Denison Maurice,' by his son.

'Darwinism Stated by Darwin Himself' is the title of a volume of selections from the writings of the great naturalist, by Professor Nathan Sheppard, to be published by D. Appleton & Co. They will also add to their Parchment Paper Series 'Pictures of English Society,' by George Du Maurier, taken from *Punch*.

Following Part I. of the first volume of the Philological Society's great 'Dictionary of the English Language' (*A* to *Ant*), Macmillan & Co. will issue 'The Cup and the Falcon,' a new drama, by Lord Tennyson, and this poet's works in a new popular edition, in one volume.

F. W. Christern has received the prospectus of a great undertaking on the part of the Paris house of Victor Palmé. This is nothing less than a reproduction in facsimile of the 'Conciliorum Collectio' of Joannes Dominicus Mansi, which was published at Florence and Venice in the period 1759-1798, and is now practically unobtainable at any price, though it is the standard work of reference for the leading historians of the day. The reprint will be sold only by subscription, and only as a whole, embracing thirty-one volumes. These will appear at the rate of one every two months, and will be provided with a general index.

"Le Gendre de M. Poirier" of MM. Émile Augier and Jules Sandeau has been published out of turn in Mr. Wm. R. Jenkins's "Théâtre Contemporain," owing to the circumstance of this comedy's having been selected for a text-book at Columbia College.

It is not a little difficult to find anything new and true to say about Cavendish's 'Laws and Principles of Whist,' the fourteenth edition of which has just been published (London: De La Rue; New York: Scribner & Welford). He who gives his days and nights to the study of Cavendish will surely avoid that desolate old age which Talleyrand seemed to dread more than any punishment in the world to come. A word of praise is due to the care with which are printed in red and black the "hands" of the various illustrative games and *coups*.

The appearance of 'A Latter-Day Saint,' the first volume in the "American Novel Series" of Henry Holt & Co., seems to mark a distinct stage in the change and evolution of American publishing consequent on the starting of the cheap "libraries" and the break-up of the courtesies of the trade. The new series is sub-

stantially uniform with the admirable "Leisure Hour Series," perhaps the best collection of foreign fiction ever issued by any American publisher. Devoted at first wholly to reprints, it was a long while before an American novel was admitted into the "Leisure Hour Series," and the first intruder, 'Democracy,' did not have many followers nor any as successful. But as English fiction is driven almost entirely out of American magazines, so is it dropping out of the lists of the regular publishers, who cannot (or care not to) compete with the Pirates' Own Library. Running down a catalogue of the "Leisure Hour Series," we noticed that it has contained eighty-eight volumes by British authors, thirty-two by Germans, sixteen by Americans, ten by Frenchmen, seven by a Russian (Turgeneff), and one by a Scandinavian (Bjornson).

Mr. Geo. Cary Eggleston's summary review of "Our Twenty-one Presidents," in the February number of the *Magazine of American History*, deserved portrait illustrations somewhat more *recherché* than have been allowed it. Dr. Cyrus Thomas's brief paper on the "Houses of the Mound Builders" is a very clear and convincing presentation of the evidence justifying the belief that these houses were very perishable structures of reeds or timber and clay. Prof. Edward E. Salisbury begins a valuable genealogical account of the Griswold Family of Connecticut. In the current instalment of the well-edited original secret record of private daily intelligence for Sir Henry Clinton, some fresh and interesting testimony is adduced affecting the loyalty of Gen. Sullivan.

The *Platonist*, "an exponent of the Philosophic Truth," edited by Thomas M. Johnson, and published at Orange, N. J., has just entered upon its second volume, despite its ungainly form and the popular prejudice against Greek.

The "Portraits of American Fishes," twenty in number, recently issued by the *American Angler*, a journal doing efficient work in the cause of fish protection, are praiseworthy as giving a good idea of the outlines of our most common salt and fresh-water fishes. Beyond this we can say little in their favor, though great accuracy is claimed in the delineation of the exact number of the fin rays, and even the scales on the gill covers of subjects. The engraving and printing are so poor that the plates are unattractive, and the impression they make at first sight unfavorable.

Prang & Co. are early in the field of St. Valentine with a series of luxurious *billets doux et beaux*, silk-fringed and verse-tipped. The subjects of the illustrations are rather in traditional accord with the Old World than the New, and the love-making of two English sparrows, which is the theme of the most successful of them, is not apropos of our 14th of February. Another, with a girl gathering apple-blossoms, is too remote for anything but dreams; but love, flowers, and birds go together there.

We receive from Mr. J. A. S. Monks a charming etching—sheep in a rolling pasture, a work full of good qualities and promise of even better. It is simple and large in composition, with a fine sense of the picturesque in choice of subject, and firm and direct in execution.

Up to the present time three numbers of the Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research in England have been published. An extensive collection of all literature in any way connected with the debatable phenomena designated by such terms as "mesmeric," "psychical," and "spiritualistic," is being made. The fullest reports yet rendered are on thought transference, and the phenomena they describe certainly seem most extraordinary. A girl of seventeen is placed outside a locked door with a member of the committee to observe her closely. Within are her two younger sisters and other members of the committee. The latter select at random a card from a pack, and show it to the younger girls, who keep their minds intently fixed on it, when the name of it is called out, quite often correctly, by the girl without—in one case correctly fourteen times consecutively, where the chances against being right were 4,782,969. In another series of experiments simple figures, not easy to describe in words, are chosen, and a gentleman called in from another room who fixes the given outline intently in his mind. He is then led into a chamber and stationed behind, and within a few feet of, but *not* touching, a "sensitive" young man. After a few minutes of intense concentration on the part of the former, the latter takes up a pencil and draws a rough sketch of the figure. Many of the originals and copies are given. All who have seen these experiments, we are told, are fully convinced.

Hachette & Co. publish a second edition of the 'Manuel de Philologie Classique,' by Solomon Reinach, one of the most brilliant and scholarly of that corps of archæologists trained by France in the school at Athens, and whose graduates have traversed the whole field of classical archæology with a scientific enthusiasm which no hardship or even the fear of death (which has occasionally occurred among them) has ever checked. This volume is encyclopedic in its comprehension of all that is necessary to elementary knowledge of philology and archæology; an indispensable handbook for the student of the latter. It treats not only of philology pure and simple, but bibliography, epigraphy, palæography, the history of ancient art, numismatics (with careful indication of the method of recognizing false coins), comparative grammar of the Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, political and literary history of antiquity, music, measure in poetry, and the antique customs as revealed by literature and art, with a résumé of mythology. It forms a closely printed volume of 414 pages, including thirty-four pages of index—a marvel of condensation.

—"W. B. B." writes us:

"Your correspondent 'J.' suggests an index to *Niles' Register*. I beg leave to say that *Niles' Register* is included in the list of periodicals indexed by Poole in his 'Index to Periodical Literature,' which can be seen at any of the public libraries in New York city."

True; but this is not the kind of indexing our correspondent had in mind. Poole's does not supply the place of any special index, though in default of any it is of course invaluable.

—The series of lectures which Dr. Brehm, the distinguished German naturalist and traveller, is delivering in this city, does not receive on the part of our daily press the attention which the position of Dr. Brehm, as well as the intrinsic merit of the lectures themselves, deserves, and which, we are glad to notice, they meet with at the hands of our German public. Dr. Brehm, to whose 'Thierleben' we have often had occasion to refer in these columns, is in his own country second in popularity to no contemporary scientific writer, and as a lecturer it would be difficult to find his superior anywhere. No one who heard his discourses on "A Journey in Siberia" and "The Fauna of the Primeval Forest," could fail to be impressed with his eloquent delivery, abounding in exquisite bits of word-painting, such as his description of the awaking of spring in the Khirgiz steppe; the crossing of the river Pishma, in Southwestern Siberia, on floating ice perforated by the natives and held together by stout rope; an epidemic among reindeer herds in the dreary country of the Ostiaks, or the aspect of the forest scenery of Abyssinia. Dr. Brehm will deliver three more lectures at Steinway Hall, on "The Fauna of the Tundra" and "The Pagan Ostiaks," "Character Sketches of the Ape Family," and "Colonists and Exiles in Siberia."

—Sir Lepel Griffin's rather priggish article on "Philistia," in the January *Fortnightly*, has been received with great good humor on this side of the Atlantic, which proves that Americans have made some advance toward a state of mental equipoise since the time of Mrs. Trollope. We say priggish, because a writer who begins with the expression of a grave doubt whether Christopher Columbus conferred a blessing or a curse upon the civilized portion of the human race by discovering America, must be set down as a literary prig, however meritorious may have been his services in other departments of activity. Very droll, too, is Sir Lepel's self-examination upon the question whether he is really justified in delivering the opinions which a two months' sojourn in the United States have enabled him to form. The fly on the ox's horn took an equally serious view of his responsibilities. Having settled this matter in favor of entire frankness, he sets forth with a long quotation from the New York *World*, in the style of Mr. Jefferson Brick, illustrating in a rough way, perhaps, but nevertheless truly, the ideas entertained by "the most amiable and intelligent Americans" in respect of their own grandiose future, and the humiliation in store for the bloated aristocracies of the Old World. That this is the real spirit of America is made all the more certain to him by his perusal of "one of the latest and most pleasing American books, entitled 'An American Four-in-hand in Britain,' by Mr. Andrew Carnegie." While Americans hold the most unfavorable views of the destiny of Europe generally, they entertain a perfectly brimstone feeling toward England. Their dislike of Englishmen is, however, easily accounted for, because, according to Sir Lepel, the English are "almost the most disagreeable race extant." With this fine touch of impartiality he goes on to show that it is one of the reigning fallacies of the day to suppose that American women are good-looking. They are, on the contrary, extremely plain and ill-favored, except when one approaches the Canadian line, where an intermixture with the fine blood of the north has brought in a streak of comeliness. This is especially noticeable at Detroit, which is famed among American cities for its beautiful women. Lord Coleridge's compliment to American women for their beauty and intelligence transcended, in Sir Lepel's opinion, the ordinary bounds of after-dinner gush. Indeed, the Chief Justice's opinions of America and Americans generally have had a depressing effect upon Sir Lepel, causing him to doubt the independence of the Judiciary. "A Chief Justice," he says, "should speak only from the bench." Sir Lepel attended one of Mr. Matthew Arnold's lectures, and went to the theatre to see how Mr. Irving and Miss Terry were appreciated by New York audiences. He found Mr. Arnold a total failure as a lecturer, because nobody could hear him, and nobody could have understood him if they had been able to hear. Mr. Irving made a mistake in producing the play of "Charles I." in New York, because the Americans, "although ignorant of history, still vaguely associate Cromwell with liberty and the Stuarts with persecution." Sir Lepel had been led to suppose that he should find the works of Matthew Arnold in the hands of the railway porters of America, so widely were the blessings of education extended throughout the country. But he did not see one railway porter thus employed. In fact, he did not see one whose literary diversions took any higher form than the *Police Gazette*. This is far from reassuring, because it

proves that Mr. Arnold's present endeavor to diffuse sweetness and light among fifty millions of people is a much heavier task than was generally supposed. Sir Lepel promises us another article on the working of our political institutions. It is safe to say that he will not be taken too seriously.

—Some twenty-five years ago Henrik Ibsen began publishing the remarkable series of works (now numbering thirteen dramas and a volume of lyrical poems) which has gained for him the position of the foremost Scandinavian poet, and has called forth from his great but generous rival, Björnson, the admission that he possesses the "greatest dramatic power of the age." No Scandinavian poet is so widely read, owing not only to the burning earnestness and not infrequently biting satire of his writings, but partly, also, to the fact that, by adopting a peculiar orthography, his works are read with almost equal facility in Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. Each new work of Ibsen's has been received with harsh comments by the critical press of Scandinavia; but of late years, when the high praise of foreign critics has compelled his home assailants to at least tacitly admit the unqualified excellence of his literary style, criticism has been directed to the subject-matter of his works, and his last two dramas, "Et Dukkehjem" ("A Doll Home," of which a translation by Miss Lord, entitled "Nora," was published in London in 1882) and "Gengangere" ("Ghosts"), in which he sharply satirizes the relations of sex in married life, have given rise, in addition to the usual press notices, to a whirlwind of pamphlets, pro and con. The eminent Danish critic, Georg Brandes, has closely followed Ibsen's literary career for nearly twenty years, and during that time has not spared criticism, though the harsh tone of some of his earlier notices has latterly been softened. To the November number of *Nord und Süd* he has contributed a thorough and appreciative paper, containing a masterly analysis of the poet's life and works. He points out how the hard daily struggle of Ibsen's youth must have acted on his reserved, satirical nature as a challenge, and resulted in a certain suspiciousness in his dealings with mankind. The ground tone in Ibsen's works is one of deep dejection. A born idealist, who from the first thirsted after the beautiful in its highest form—ideal, spiritual beauty; a born rigorist, influenced also by his orthodox surroundings—determined to admire or acknowledge no other than moral beauty—he needed but a few repulses to cause him to draw back within himself with a distrust of the surrounding world in his heart. His first deep impression as a spiritual individuality was that of the rareness, or "never-ness"—as he in a bitter moment has added—of moral worth. It became an impulse with him to put to the proof whatever seemed real, and convince himself of its falsity. It became a passion with him to knock with his fingers upon what seemed like metal, and it afforded him a sort of painful satisfaction to hear the clang of its hollowness. Ibsen is a pessimist, but his pessimism is not of the kind which finds life itself an evil. He finds the world bad, but does not concern himself with the question as to whether life is a good. However sceptical he generally is, he does not really doubt the possibility of happiness. His pessimism is of a moral nature, grounded in the conviction that the ideal may become the real. It is, in brief, the pessimism of indignation; and his want of sympathy with much that is painful is due to his conviction of the educational power of suffering.

—Brandes emphasizes the fact that Ibsen's works represent with peculiar exactness his actual beliefs, and quotes statements made by Ibsen in conversation, and extracts from his letters, as proofs. For example, in December, 1870, Ibsen wrote: "Liberty, equality, fraternity are no longer the same things that they were in the days of the blessed guillotine. This is what the politicians will not understand, and therefore I hate them. These men want only revolutions in the outer, in the political world. But all such are mere trifles; it is a revolution in men's spirits that is needed." "The strife for freedom," Ibsen writes, in 1871, "is nothing else than the constant, living appropriation of the idea of freedom. He who possesses freedom otherwise than as the thing struggled for, possesses it dead and spiritless." Ibsen knows himself only as an individual, and the only thing he really believes in and respects is personality. He stretches his belief in the sacredness of personality to the furthest. He thinks that an individual in order to develop the fruitful possibility within his being, first and foremost must stand free, stand alone; and he has therefore a wakeful eye to the dangers which association, friendship, and even marriage, in this regard, carry with them. Ibsen is convinced that in each man slumbers a warrior soul, an unconquerable might. Man shall become himself not through the will of higher powers, but through his own. In the third part of his article Brandes has carried his psychological analysis so far, as he puts it, "that the standpoint of Ibsen's mind can be seen in the light of the literary consciousness of the time." It is impossible to follow Brandes in this interesting part of his article and do justice (in a few words) to his keen analysis of the different groups of Ibsen's plays, as they deal with one or other of these four divisions of the ideas which Brandes thinks are especially active in the present—namely, such as deal with religion; such as have to do with the differences between two ages; such as relate to classes of society and their struggles; lastly, such as deal with the relations between sex. Naturally, Brandes, in closing, makes some remarks comparing Ibsen and his contemporary, Björnson. Ibsen, he claims, is a universal spirit, while Björnson, despite the cosmopolitanism of his poetical description, is national. The two have no other likeness than that which arises from having the same country, the same lifetime, and similarity in the use and development of poetic material. The article is accompanied by an etched portrait of Ibsen, which displays a face of noble and impressive appearance, but of almost repelling sternness, though this is somewhat modified by Brandes's word picture of the poet.

— It was recently announced in the German papers that all doubt concerning the authenticity of the much-discussed memoirs of Heine in M. Julia's possession would soon be set at rest by their publication in *Vom Fels zum Meer*. Instead of solving this question, however, the February number of that periodical contributes its share toward the complication by an article from Herr Gustav Karpeles, who, if anybody, ought to be able to speak with positiveness, but who, instead, is exasperatingly cautious and judicial. That there once existed at least three manuscript volumes of Heine's memoirs he considers as established beyond doubt; but whether, as would appear from the poet's utterances at various times, they were begun as early as 1823, partly recast later, in deference to his relatives, or consigned by him to the flames in a fit of dissatisfaction, and entirely rewritten in the last years of his life, when he lay in the "mattress tomb"—all these questions Herr Karpeles declares himself unable to answer. That Heine in his last illness was occupied with what he spoke of as his memoirs we know from his letters to the *Mouche* and from Alfred Meissner, who himself saw the manuscript; but Karl Hillebrand, then Heine's secretary, seems to have been unaware of their existence, or at least is silent on the subject. On the whole, Herr Karpeles thinks it "probable" that whatever unpublished manuscripts Mathilde Heine sold to the poet's relatives had previously been copied, and that such a copy is at present in the hands of M. Julia. Neither Herr Karpeles nor any of the numerous writers who for many months have been busy with the memoirs has done more than whet public curiosity concerning a work which Heine himself, in a letter to his publisher, Campe, spoke of as "a great book, covering the entire history of our time, . . . with its most remarkable persons, . . . the result of my most precious and most painful studies," and in which, as Herr Karpeles temptingly points out, we should find depicted Goethe and Schlegel, Humboldt and Hegel, Meyerbeer and Mendelssohn, Rossini and Wagner, Lassalle and Marx, Thiers and Victor Hugo, George Sand and Musset.

— In every other respect the latest number of *Vom Fels zum Meer* will not disappoint its readers, who, if they do not receive the solid instruction which, for instance, the *Rundschau* offers, are better served in point of variety than those of any other monthly known to us, either in Germany or in this country. None contains so miscellaneous a "miscellany," and but few surpass it in illustrations. In looking over the list of writers in this number we meet with but one widely-known name, that of Anzengruber, the inimitable writer of peasant dramas; but the English reader who knows that great names in periodicals are not always a guarantee against disappointment will be inclined to admit that the economical habits of German publishers have their advantages, if not for writers at least for readers. We believe the practice of offering large sums for a mere name, regardless of the nature and quality of the contribution, is unknown among publishers of German periodicals, and hence none of the articles which appear in the best monthlies ever have the appearance of having been expressly "written up." Indeed, the *Rundschau*, to the obvious advantage of all concerned, not infrequently publishes articles which, strictly speaking, are not new, such as recently delivered scientific addresses. We observe that *Vom Fels zum Meer* in its latest number incidentally returns to a subject which, some months ago, it exhaustively discussed in an able article on "White Lies" (*Die Nothlüge*), and which has been still more fully treated in a recent work by Max Nordau on "The Conventional Lies of Civilized Man" (*Die Conventionellen Lügen der Culturmenschheit*). Can it be that another era of German introspective philosophy is dawning? And has the ingenuousness of Bismarck really paved the way for another "Tugendbund"—for a return to the days of Fichte, the most uncompromising theoretical opponent of "white lies" among German moralists?

—The high-level meteorological observatory on the summit of the Ben Nevis, formally inaugurated in October last, was visited at Christmas-time by two members of the Governing Body of the institution, Professor G. Chrystal and Mr. John Murray, and a few particulars of the visit of inspection are given by Professor Chrystal in *Nature*. The routine of the observatory at present consists in hourly observations of the barometer, protected thermometers, dry and wet-bulb and maximum and minimum; wind-direction and pressure; rain, snow, sleet, or hail; mist, fog, or haze; clouds lower and upper; amount, species, and direction; sunshine-recorder, miscellaneous, thunder, lightning, ha-

los, aurora, meteors, etc. The thermometric instruments are attached to a ladder fixed in the snow, as the level of which rises and falls, they are moved from step to step, so as to keep them as nearly as possible at the regulation distance of four feet from the surface. A measurement from the top of the ladder to the surface gives the depth of the snow, which then varied from six to ten feet at different parts of the summit of the mountain. The observers have had for some time back to conduct a constant warfare with the rapidly accumulating snow. Not infrequently all hands had to be turned out to clear the doors and windows of the observatory, when it sometimes happened that the snow drifted in so rapidly that it was almost impossible to shut the door again. The device of the snow staircase overcomes the difficulty to a large extent. Professor Chrystal does not dwell at length on all the interesting casual observations recorded in the log kept by Mr. Omond, the chief observer. He alludes, however, to the frequently occurring phenomenon which Mr. Omond calls "glories." The shadow of the head or hands of the observer is frequently seen on the clouds in the valley to the northeast surrounded by a halo of color. The phenomenon appears to be akin to, or identical with, the mist phantom so well known under the name of the "Brocken Spectre." The directors passed one night on the summit with the observers, and rose the next morning to see the sun rise—an extraordinary spectacle. Mr. Omond was congratulated on the weather he enjoyed on Ben Nevis, but it appeared that the treat was as great for him as for his guests. Since the beginning of his seclusion on November 11, there had been only three fine days: all the rest of the time the most he had seen was an occasional glimpse of a snow-covered mountain-peak through a hole in the mist.

KADESH-BARNEA.

Kadesh-barnea: its Importance and Probable Site, with the Story of a Hunt for it; including Studies of the Route of the Exodus and the Southern Boundary of the Holy Land. By H. Clay Trumbull, D.D., Editor of the *Sunday School Times*. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

WHETHER one shares the opinion of the author or not, that "Kadesh-barnea was a site of importance forty centuries ago"—an allusion to the march of Chedorlaomer; that "it was more than once the scene of events on which, for the time, the history of the world was pivoting"; that a study of it in its varied associations involves a study of Jewish history from the days of Abraham "to the still vague and shadowy days of unfulfilled prophecy"—it is not difficult to agree with him that that famous locality, the pivotal point of the Jewish wanderings through the wilderness, as related in the Pentateuch, is not too small a subject for a large book, considering that its location has been for centuries, and to this day continues to be, a matter of almost passionately earnest discussion among eminent scholars.

Where was Kadesh-barnea, or Kadesh (the Holy, or the Sanctuary), also designated as Enmishpat ("Fountain of Judgment"), Meribah (Strife), and perhaps also Rithmah (Broomgrass-spot)—around which the Israelites dwelled or wandered for thirty-seven or thirty-eight years; where Moses struck the rock and Miriam died; whence the Hebrews, on the return of the spies, started in their rash attempt to invade the Land of Promise from the south, and whence their leader sent messengers to the King of Edom, before moving toward the land east of the Jordan? What is certain is, that it was south of the southern border of Palestine; that it adjoined the western extremity of Edom; that it lay in a wilderness of its own name, forming a part of the Wilderness of Zin, in the still more comprehensive Wilderness of Paran. But, how far south did Palestine extend? how far west, Edom? and how far north, Paran? Which known site would answer all the requirements of the numerous texts in which Kadesh-barnea is mentioned? We must restrict our review of identifications to those suggested by actual travellers.

Dr. Thomas Shaw, an English scholar, who travelled in the East in 1722, was inclined to locate Kadesh as far south as Kalaat Nakhl, in the centre of the Pilgrim's way leading from the north end of the Gulf of Suez to the north end of the Gulf of Akabah, about 100 miles north of Mt. Sinai. The learned Pococke, who began his Eastern journey some fifteen years later, was induced by vague reports to presume that Moses's rock of Meribah, in the Wilderness of Zin, was even much nearer to the Mount of the Law. Nearly seventy years passed before another European scholar trod the ground of the Hebrew wanderings. In 1807 Seetzen, the famous German explorer, came on a "flat, dry wady," on the northwest edge of the Azazimeh mountain tract, which was designated to him as Wady el-Kdeis. Seetzen attempted no identification of the place with Kadesh, in spite of the resemblance of the names and of the proximity of the locality, about fifty miles south of the site of Beer-sheba, to the border of Palestine. The Swiss traveller, Burckhardt, who, following Seetzen, explored the Arabah, the great depression—a continuation of the Jordanic Ghor—extending from near the Dead Sea to the Gulf of Akabah, and in 1812 discovered the ruins of the ancient rock-city, Petra, thought Kadesh-barnea, in its wider sense, was perhaps the Biblical name of that gorge. Léon de Laborde, who artistically supplemented Burckhardt's description of Petra, accepted the Swiss traveller's suggestion, and located the fountain of Kadesh near Jebel Jerafeh, west of Petra. Karl von Raumer located Kadesh in the northern portion of the Arabah, and not far from that tract it was sought by the American traveller, Stephens, in 1836, and immediately after by Lord Lindsay and G. H. von Schubert. Dr. Robinson, whose explorations of Scriptural lands so rapidly eclipsed those of almost all other travellers through the same regions, believed he discovered the waters of Meribah-Kadesh in "'Ain el-Weibeh, one of the most important watering places in all the great valley" of the Arabah, near its north end. "There are here, indeed, three fountains, issuing from the chalky rock of which the slope is composed. . . . The southernmost source consists of three small rills of limpid and good water, flowing out at the bottom of a small excavation in the rock. The soft chalky stone has crumbled away. . . ." There was nothing striking in the topographical reasons which could be adduced in favor of all these identifications, and, on the other hand, there are many points in the respective Biblical accounts which militate against them—and they are very forcibly urged by our author.

About a year after the appearance, in 1841, of Robinson's 'Biblical Researches,' John Rowlands, an English clergyman, who had repeatedly travelled through the Sinaitic Peninsula and the adjoining parts, made a trip from Hebron southward, in company with his friend Canon Williams, and under the guidance of a Bedouin sheikh, Selim. The travellers had reached, on the wall-rampart of the Smooth Mountain, about fifty miles south of Hebron, a point, as they considered on natural as well as Biblical grounds, of the south frontier of Canaan. While they stood there, Sheikh Selim told them that at some distance beyond there was a place known as Kadis. It was exactly where they would have expected to find the site of Kadesh, but they were then unable to proceed to the place. Not long afterward Rowlands made another trip south—this time in company with Mr. Johns, the British Vice-Consul at Jerusalem—travelling by way of Gaza. Here he found two sheikhs of the Terabin Arabs—a tribe accustomed to roam through the eastern branches of the Wady el-Arish—who, after much inquiry, promised to guide him to Ayn Kadeis, in the Azazimeh Mountains. The journey thither was fruitful in identifications calculated to strengthen the expectation of reaching the site of Kadesh. And finally he stood, as he afterward described it in a letter to Canon Williams, "before the rock smitten by Moses, and gazed upon the lovely stream which still issues forth at the base of this rock." His excitement was indescribable as he

"paced backward and forward, examining the rock and the source of the stream; looking at the pretty little cascades which it forms as it descends into the channel of a rain torrent beneath. . . . The rock is a large single mass, or a small hill, of solid rock, a spur of the mountain to the north of it rising immediately above it. It is the only visible naked rock in the whole district. The stream, when it reaches the channel, turns westward, and, after running about three or four hundred yards, loses itself in the sand."

Rowlands had "not seen such a lovely sight anywhere else in the whole desert—such a copious and lovely stream." Everything seemed to answer perfectly to the description inferable from Scripture—the name, the location, the approaches, the roads, the wild surroundings, the rock, the water, and "the grand space for encampment which lies to the southwest of it—a large rectangular plain about nine by five or ten by six miles, and this opening to the west into the still more extensive plain of Paran."

The first scholar of eminence who supported Rowlands's view was Professor Tuch, of Leipzig, in 1847. Winer, in his Biblical 'Realwörterbuch,' and Dr. Wilson, in 'The Lands of the Bible,' also adopted it. In 1849, however, Dr. Robinson came out in defence of his own identification of Kadesh, ridiculing the discovery of Ain Kadis and "the amusingly credulous character of the whole narrative" about it. In America and England, Robinson's *dictum* was sufficient to prejudice most Bible students against Rowlands and his discovery; but in Germany, such high authorities as Fries and Kurtz came forward with able dissertations in opposition to the views of the American traveller, and a host of other critics accepted or favored their conclusions—among them Karl Ritter and Knobel. In England, too, the same view, favorable to Rowlands's Ain Kadis, was eventually taken by Wilton, Palmer, Tristram, and others, and in this country by President Bartlett and Professor Lowrie. What prevented Rowlands's striking identification from being universally adopted, in preference to the rather arbitrary locations of Kadesh in the Arabah, was mainly the doubt expressed by Robinson and his supporters, which was strengthened by the repeated failure of travellers to find the locality described by the enthusiastic English divine. Dr. Stewart, Dr. Thomson, Abeken, Palmer, Bartlett, and others came near Seetzen's Wady el-Kdeis and Rowlands's Ain Kadis, but each of them was led away from, or otherwise missed, the rock and the stream the sight of which so enchanted the latter explorer. The reason of these failures is thus stated by our author:

"All by themselves, in the mountains bearing

their name, north of the region of the Teeyâhah and the Haywât, are the Azâzimeh Bed'ween, 'one of the poorest and most degraded of Arab tribes'—the most Ishmaelitish of Ishmaelites. According to Palmer's testimony, 'they are superstitious, violent, and jealous of intrusion upon their domain, suspecting all strangers of sinister designs upon their lives and property.' . . .

"'Ayn Qadees, the site of Kadesh-barnea, is in the heart of the Azâzimeh territory. The Azâzimeh themselves will not guide travellers to it; nor will they give consent to the Teeyâha to do so. Hence, although it is but a little distance east of the direct route from Sinai to Hebron, it has, for generations, been practically inaccessible to travellers. The ordinary Teeyâha guides could not escort travellers thither; the superstitious Azâzimeh would not. And, in this state of things, the Teeyâha have doubtless been reluctant to admit to travellers that they knew of a place so near their route, while they were unable to go to it. Therefore it is that there came to be doubts of its very existence. . . .

"Rowlands, indeed, was peculiarly favored in having Terâbeen guides from Gaza, as he went in search of the long-sought site. The Terâbeen are the only Arabs who seem on good terms with all the other tribes alike. Their immediate territory stretches from below Suez to Gaza. They . . . are on excellent terms with the jealous, superstitious, and quarrelsome Azâzimeh. . . . It was through their guidance that Rowlands was enabled to reach the jealously-guarded fountain of Kadees within the territory of the Azâzimeh. But when he came out from that sacred enclosure, it seemed as if its entrance were not only immediately closed behind him, but actually lost to sight and knowledge."

It would take more space than we have to tell, after our author, by what use of wit and Yankee shrewdness, with what help from a noted dragoman, and in spite of what dangers, he, in the beginning of the spring of 1881, "on a casual tour, was enabled to overcome all these obstacles, and find his way to a sight shielded so jealously, and lied about so vigorously and variously, by successive generations of the typical Ishmaelites who surrounded it." For the particulars we must refer the reader to the part of the book which treats of the "Hunt." Mr. Trumbull entered the tract of the Azâzimeh through Wady Kadis, "an extensive, hill-encircled, irregular-surfaced plain, several miles wide, and . . . certainly large enough to have furnished a camping ground for Kedorla'omer's army, or for all the host of Israel"—which means a great deal in the sense of the writer, whose faith in the verbal text of the Pentateuch (of course including its often assailed figures) is such as to make him exclaim with St. Paul, in regard to doubt and doubters: "'God forbid: yea let God be found true, but every man a liar.'" Along the middle of the wady is an extensive water bed. Rich fields of wheat and barley covered a large portion of it. There were artificial ridges to retain and utilize the rainfall. Along the foot-hills of the ranges northward were found "cairns and circles of stone, which could hardly be other than remains of dwellings of a prehistoric age," and "signs on every hand of a large population there in former times." Our traveller then traversed a rough, stone-covered plain, still called Wady Kadis. It was distressingly waterless, with dazzling chalk hills in front—just such as the Wilderness of Kadesh must have been when the Israelites expected to die there with their cattle from thirst. But after nearly three hours of moving in the wady, on a sudden, sharp turn to the right, the eagerly-sought wells of Kadis were before his eyes.

"It was a marvellous sight! Out from the barren and desolate stretch of the burning desert-waste, we had come with magical suddenness into an oasis of verdure and beauty, unlooked for and hardly conceivable in such a region. A carpet of grass covered the ground. Fig trees, laden with fruit nearly ripe enough for eating, were along the shelter of the southern hillside. Shrubs and flowers showed themselves in variety and profusion. Running water gurgled under the waving grass. We had seen nothing like it since leaving Wady Fayrân. . . .

"Standing out from the earth-covered limestone hills at the northeastern sweep of this picturesque recess, was to be seen the 'large single mass, or a small hill, of solid rock,' which Rowlands looked at as the cliff (*Sel'a*) smitten by Moses. . . .

"A circular well, stoned up from the bottom with time-worn limestone blocks, was the first receptacle of the water. . . . A basin or pool of water larger than either of the wells, but not stoned up like them, was seemingly the principal watering place. It was a short distance southwesterly from the second well, and it looked as if it and the two wells might be supplied from the same subterranean source—the springs under the rock. . . . Another and yet larger pool, lower down the slope, was supplied with water by a stream which rippled and cascaded along its narrow bed from the upper pool; and yet beyond this, westward, the water gurgled away under the grass, as we had met it when we came in, and finally lost itself in the parching wady from which this oasis opened. The water itself was remarkably pure and sweet, unequalled by any we had found after leaving the Nile. . . .

"One thing was sure: all that Rowlands had said of this oasis was abundantly justified by the facts. . . . The sneers which other travellers had indulged in, over the creation of his heated fancies, were the result of their own lack of knowledge—and charity. . . ."

Is the problem now solved? Is it now as certain where Kadesh-barnea was as it is, say, where Duluth is? In answer to this question, we cannot go any further than to say that, agreeing, on examination, with Tuch, Fries, Kurtz, Knobel, and other authorities down to Mühlau and Volck in their just issued ninth edition of Gesenius's Dictionary, we deem Rowlands's identification of Kadesh, which Mr. Trumbull so weightily supports by his testimony and research, the strongest of all identifications known to us, and that the latter is quite modest when in the preface he expresses his "confident expectation that more good will come from the new discussions which this volume provokes than from the immediate conclusions of its own discussion of the main points at issue." Confirmations by new explorers, to whom the route has now been clearly pointed out, may soon dispel all objections based on the suspicion of "heated fancies," and secure to the American traveller lasting fame as one of the discoverers with Seetzen and Rowlands, or the rediscoverer, of the most interesting spot, next to Sinai, in the hoary traditions of the Hebrew migration from Egypt. Mr. Trumbull, who sees in those traditions not merely venerable legends but authentic sacred history, and believes, in spite of tremendous difficulties, in the unity and harmony of the "Mosaic" accounts, has devoted years of untiring research to the elucidation of all doubtful points connected with his main topic, ransacking libraries and piling up a prodigious amount of learned testimony, useful to scholars, though a portion of it be rubbish.

References to Bible texts, commentators, critics, and other authorities—some of them often repeated, and others quite superfluous—have, with the addition of copious indexes, swelled the volume to large proportions, but diminished its attractiveness for the common reader. On page 151 we find in the text, in support of a conjecture which supports itself, twenty-six "critical commentators and other Bible students" cited "for example"—the first seven being Adrichomius, Raleigh, Fürer, Quaresmius, Ainsworth, Drusius, and Pool!—and, in foot-notes, twenty-six references to books. The reference to Rabbi Solomon ben Isaac ("Rashi"), on the same page, shows that Mr. Trumbull has not always adhered to his determination "to cite directly from the authority quoted"; for Rashi does not express, at the place cited, the view adopted by the twenty-six, though his remark there well accords with it. Nor does Rashi, as referred to on page 189, say the words quoted—which express his meaning, however. Part of the contents of the first note on page 167 is not taken directly from the sources indicated, but from Neubauer's 'Géographie du Talmud' (p. 11), as appears from the spellings "*Ek*eb," "Yal*k*oot," "Si*ph*ré" and "Tosi*f*tha," and "*Sch*ebiith"—after Neubauer, and against Mr. Trumbull's strict rules of transliteration—who would write '*Eqeb*, for instance—and from the erroneous extension of the term Babylonian Talmud to the Yalkut, caused by a misapprehension of the headings in the corresponding table of the 'Géographie.' The reference to "Thevenot's *Reisen*" (p. 203) is evidently borrowed from a German book, which translated the Frenchman's title, 'Voyages.' Reland is erroneously introduced (p. 201) as a geographer "of Germany." The few other slips which we hit upon in reading this interesting volume are more or less pardonable misprints. The worst of these, because again and again repeated, is "Hor hagid*ad*" for Hor-hagidgad. The map attached to the book is very handsomely executed.

Addison. By W. J. Courthope. Harper & Bros. 1884.

ADDISON lies under more obligations to happy fortune than any other literary Englishman of high rank. Halifax saved him from the Church and the probable oblivion of a seat on the bench of bishops, and sent him to cultivate his genius by foreign travel. When, on his return, he seemed sinking into poverty, the same warm patron introduced him to Godolphin's notice and procured for him the inspiration of "The Campaign" in the shape of a promise of office. Throughout life, as thus in its opening, friends, admirers, employments, themes, and applause were found for him; and if in his death he had not the crowning favor of a good biographer, the defect was more than made up in later years by the luck of having Macaulay for his eulogist. It is not so long since those eloquent pages of the great essay declaimed of Addison's elevation and purity, his genius, his inestimable influence on English morals, and his superiority to Steele—"poor Dick," as Addison called him, well knowing his heart to be the warmest and most forgiving that beat with fidelity to his own. At the time, Macaulay's rhetoric, force, and fame bore down the feeble protests that strove here and there against the injustice and untruthfulness of the funeral oration he had pronounced over his predecessor in the Great-Mogulship of the middle classes. He had not, however, erased the name of "Atticus"—ah, if Addison had only escaped Pope's satire as nobly as Swift's jests! "Atticus" is a perpetual interrogation mark affixed to Addison's repute; it cannot be passed by, it tempts curiosity, it leads on to investigation, and the inquiry issues at last in a book like Mr. Courthope's.

With all his sincere regard for his hero, and his regrets that there is nothing new to say, Mr. Courthope is a very candid biographer and frank critic. He strews the confessions of Addison's limitations along his pages instead of massing them, but they are all mentioned and defined. The early works, the translations, the "Account of the English Poets," the Latin verses, etc., are tenderly handled; the dust is hardly brushed off them. The opera, "Rosamond," is dismissed with the quotation from Dr. Burney that nothing more need be said of Addison's musical talent than that he was insensible to Handel and had a predilection for Clayton. The tragedy, "Cato," is bowed out on its merits, as owing its success solely to long-extinct party passions—a play in

which "all the actors seem to be oppressed with an uneasy consciousness that they have a character to sustain, and are not confident of coming up to what is expected of them." The comedy, "The Drummer," is declared "a standing proof of Addison's deficiency in dramatic genius." Even as a poet, though a rally is made in favor of "The Campaign," Addison is suspected by Mr. Courthope of an "uneasy consciousness that he was really inferior to such men as John Philips and Tickell."

There is nothing left for Addison (of course he made no mark in Parliament or in his administrative offices) but to be found preëminent as an essayist; and yet Mr. Courthope, while acknowledging this necessity, can do plain justice to Steele:

"There is scarcely a department of essay-writing developed in the *Spectator* which does not trace its origin to Steele. It is Steele who first ventures to raise his voice against the prevailing dramatic taste of the age on behalf of the superior morality and art of Shakespeare's plays. . . . Steele, too, it was who attacked, with all the vigor of which he was capable, the fashionable vice of gambling. . . . The practice of duelling, also, which had hitherto passed unreproved, was censured by Steele. . . . The sketches of character studied from life, and the letters from fictitious correspondents, . . . appear roughly, but yet distinctly, drafted in the *Tatler*. Even the papers of literary criticism, afterward so fully elaborated by Addison, are anticipated by his friend, who may fairly claim the honor to have been the first to speak with adequate respect of the genius of Milton. In a word, whatever was perfected by Addison was begun by Steele."

After Macaulay's studied depreciation of the originator and manager of the periodical that determined the principal literary form of the eighteenth-century essayists, this is a very refreshing passage, nor does it overstate Addison's debt to the fag who idolized him from school-days. It is true that Addison was master of a literary manner usually finer than Steele's, though he had less heart, less earnestness, less tenderness, less sympathetic humanity and practical philanthropy. But the obligation to Steele should not be understood to imply too much. Undoubtedly Addison was far more effective in creating modern social public opinion by teaching wit to be decent and virtue to be amiable; by finding the true English mean between the Court and the Puritans; by making good taste, good sense, and good manners the characteristic ideal of the commercial and professional middle class. When all is said, that is the service he was really most instrumental in accomplishing; but it is by its nature a passing one. Sir Walter Scott did a very similar thing when he displaced the novels of the last age by his own; but the value of this revolution is felt only by the historical student. For posterity, Sir Walter's fame, like Addison's, rests on the actual worth of his work to the new age as it comes and goes. In Addison's case, while it is acknowledged that men ought not to cease to be mindful of the humble beginnings by which they rise, nor forget to be grateful to the pioneers of innocent literary amusement and cultivated criticism, nevertheless it cannot be blinked that the larger part of Addison's work is at present essentially commonplace. A new Dr. Johnson might hesitate to advise our youth to give their days and nights to Addison; in fact, our youth do not read, nor perhaps do they need to read, any of his sketches except the "Roger de Coverley" papers and the "Tory Foxhunter." The rest may be left, some to those who are still interested in sedan chairs and link-boys, some to those who are curious about Boileau's standard and the proprieties, some to those who do not yawn over homilies on cheerfulness, etc., etc.

Some shadow of the modern tedium induced by the standard essayists has fallen even on Mr. Courthope, who has hardly taken decent pains to clothe the dry bones of facts and criticism with a garment of the life they once sustained. The biography is, in fact, dull. So it would seem that, despite his keen, cold observation, second only to Swift's among contemporaries, despite his refined taste, his merciful humor, his adroitness and charm of style, his reconciling and humanizing influence over his age, Addison (not to speak it profanely), odorous of all his virtues, mounts *ad astra*—to the upper shelves. There he finds all his little senate "gone before," and with them can take his ease in his inn. A highly honorable, highly respectable, highly comfortable place he has, as in his earthly days at Button's. To posterity, as even to those friends who sunned themselves in his presence when his frigidity was thawed by wine, he seems a distant, chilly, isolated man, a spectator standing outside and observing the surfaces of life in the crowd; slightly grandiose, perhaps, but irreproachable in all forms, whether of courtesy or composition; the most affable if not the most accessible of friends; the favorite of fortune, and sometimes her dupe (as in the noisy Cato business); in his heart more stoic than Christian, with that pride in his dignity which tempted him to summon a rakish youth to his bedside to see how he "could die." What a pity it is that one cannot remember so fine a figure without recollecting also that there was the crooked papist who wrote "Atticus," and the honest Dick whose life, he humbly said, was "at best but pardonable." Such is the portrait, at least as Mr. Courthope brings out its lines, and it is the same picture painted by contemporaries.

Maria Edgeworth. By Helen Zimmern. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

MRS. OLIVER'S recent 'Life of Maria Edgeworth' (see *Nation*, No. 928) makes this volume of the "Famous Women Series" not so fresh and striking as its predecessors, but it is not unlikely that many persons will gain from it a more distinct idea of Maria Edgeworth. Mrs. Oliver had accumulated an abundance of anecdote and detail, which only a most skilful hand could have combined without confusing the outlines of the central figure. If her book left something to be desired in the absence of critical appreciation, the present volume only partly supplies the lack. Miss Edgeworth was not an author about whom a critic nowadays could say brilliant things; but that there is something more to be said of her than is to be found in either of these biographies, is proved by those gracious pages in the 'Book of Sibyls' that have embodied, as never before, the charm both of her books and of herself.

To Miss Edgeworth's father Helen Zimmern is unjust. He is measured by the standards of to-day, with a very scanty knowledge of his time and his surroundings. It is the difficulty of biographies made to order, that the writer rarely has the time, even when the desire is strongest, to study the subject from all sides, as one does who chooses to write a life only from personal motives. It is often said, "If Miss Edgeworth's father had let her alone," with an implied inference that free work would have been better work. On the contrary, it seems to us doubtful if she would have succeeded without her father's suggestion and training. Her work, even with all its great excellence, was not of the sort that compels its own doing.

But, all this aside, the book is heartily welcome, if only for the sake of the long extracts from the volume of letters and journals privately printed by the last Mrs. Edgeworth. The most significant, the most impressive, at this moment, are from the letters of fifty-three years ago, of which one might think the ink scarcely dry. The first explains why 'Helen' is not an Irish story:

"It is impossible to draw Ireland as she now is in a book of fiction; realities are too strong, party passions too violent, to bear to see or care to look at their faces in the looking-glass. The people would only break the glass and curse the fool who held the mirror up to nature—distorted nature, in a fever. We are in too perilous a case to laugh; humor would be out of season—worse than bad taste."

In the second the italics are hers:

"It is scarcely possible that this country can now be tranquillized without military force to reëstablish law; the people *must* be made to obey the laws, or they cannot be ruled after any concessions. Nor would the mob be able to rule if they got all they desire; they would only tear each other to pieces, and die *drunk* or *famish* sober. The misfortune of this country has been that England has always yielded to *clamor* what should have been granted to justice."

Samuel Sharpe, Egyptologist and Translator of the Bible. By P. W. Clayden. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1883. Pp. iv.-320.

SAMUEL SHARPE'S long life of more than eighty-two years (1799–1881) was an uncommonly active and useful one. He is one of the most pleasing examples of that tolerably large class of Englishmen who, while mainly engaged in commerce or politics, devote their leisure hours to questions of science and literature. These men do not usually rise above the grade of amateurs—they rarely make important additions to the world's literary and scientific stores—but they make their own lives healthier and happier, and, by popularizing knowledge, cultivate the general community, and render the scholar's work easier. Mr. Sharpe was in a banking house from his sixteenth to his sixty-second year, yet he found time to study the Egyptian language, religion, and history, the languages of the Bible, and the current political, economical, and religious questions of his day, and to write well on all these subjects. He was descended on the mother's side from a long line of Dissenters, who naturally espoused the side of the Whigs. When the "heroic age of Liberalism" in politics began, he was just entering on his early manhood: there was the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts in 1827, Catholic Emancipation in 1828, the Reform Bill in 1832, the abolition of slavery in the West Indies in 1834, the reform of the Corporations in 1835, and the Dissenters' Marriage Act in 1836. He threw himself into these reforms with the zeal of a man who had an immediate personal interest in them; thus, as only baptisms and not births were registered by the parish, and as he, being a Nonconformist, objected to having his children baptized at church, the four first of them were entered only in the informal non-parochial registers which the Dissenters kept for themselves, and which were finally legalized and collected under the new Registration Act of 1836. To the end of his life he continued to enter with keen zest into all political questions, and so late as 1872 republished an older magazine article in which he showed that the London Mansion House was built from fines unjustly levied on Dissenters. Born at a time when the terrors of the French Revolution and the menaces of Napoleon had been made the occasion of repressing all liberal movements in England, he lived to see almost all the restrictions of his youth removed, and Nonconformists invested with reasonable freedom in religion as well as in civil life. He did not confine himself to political subjects proper, but wrote articles for the *Inquirer* newspaper in favor of free trade, during the excitement and disorders of Sir Robert Peel's administration in 1841 and

1842, in favor of large Government grants for education, and in advocacy of the disestablishment of the national Church. He seems to have taken very sensible views of all these questions.

He showed equal interest in religious matters. Before his marriage he had been led, by the study of the New Testament, to sever his connection with the Established Church, and attach himself to a Unitarian chapel. "It was," says he, "upon consideration of the odium and legal disabilities that yet remained attached to a denial of the Trinity, that I made up my mind that it was a duty to bear my share of the burden." After this he spent much time and money in support of Unitarianism and of unsectarian education. He wrote books and gave them away, contributed articles to periodical papers, lectured on Biblical subjects, established chapels, and gave a good deal of money (in all about £20,000) to University College. It was while he was a member of the Council of this College, in 1866, that James Martineau, who had been recommended by the Senate of Professors as the most suitable man for the vacant chair of Mental Philosophy and Logic, was rejected by the Council on account of his theological opinions, and Professor De Morgan resigned his professorship "because the College had thus ignored and contradicted its fundamental principle of absolute neutrality in matters of theological belief." Sharpe's religion was of a positive and practical kind; he wrote vigorously against agnostic views, and did what he could to promote religious warmth and zeal among Unitarians, and to maintain a decided Christian character in the teaching of the ministers and the lives of the laity. His own religious life was a beautifully rounded one, vigorous and precise and earnest, but without narrowness or bitterness.

His Egyptian studies were truly remarkable. That a man who had left school at sixteen, and was occupied all day with business affairs, should, when he was over thirty, take up so difficult a subject as Egyptology, master its literature, and make useful contributions to the infant science in the shape of a number of books, is a sufficiently rare phenomenon to excite our wonder. At that time (about 1830) Young and Champollion had not been long dead, Lepsius had only begun his work, and Wilkinson had just published his first books on the hieroglyphics. Sharpe, who had an essentially practical, productive mind, studied Young, Champollion, Wilkinson, and Salt, learned Coptic by means of Tattam's lexicon, got the fragments of Manetho from Cory and other sources, and then wrote his 'Early History of Egypt,' which was published in 1836, and was the means of introducing him to Cullamore, Cory, Bonomi, and Lepsius. The next year he published a lithographed volume of 'Egyptian Inscriptions' and the 'Rudiments of a Vocabulary of Egyptian Hieroglyphics,' which were soon followed by 'Egypt under the Ptolemies.' This last has proved to be a work of permanent value. His hieroglyphic studies, which embraced not only history, but philological, astronomical, chronological, and theological questions, were no doubt useful in their day, but have long since been left behind by the advancing science; his book on the Ptolemies, giving a clear, well-written narrative of events, is still about the best in English on the subject. He made a fair reputation for himself among Egyptologists, and, with his strong common sense and independence of thought, would no doubt, if he had had better early training and more time at his disposal, have made an eminent scholar. His patience and industry were immense; he shrank from no labor necessary to gain his ends, and he had the habit of going, wherever it was possible, to primary sources of information.

He was not satisfied with studying Egyptian, but turned his attention to the Bible, and made a new version of the New Testament, after Griesbach's text, in 1840, and one of the Old Testament in 1865, learning Hebrew for this purpose. He was a pioneer in the work of revising the translation of the Bible; he began his New Testament before any decided popular interest had been manifested in the subject, and, according to his statement, it was he who suggested (in 1855) to Mr. James Heywood the motion in the House of Commons which resulted in the Revised Version of the Old and New Testaments. Sharpe's translations seem to have been widely circulated among Dissenters, and to have helped to prepare the way for the new official revision. In addition to this, he wrote a volume of 'Historic Notes,' consisting of critical remarks on the Biblical books, and a 'History of the Hebrew Nation and Literature,' besides a study of the Sinaitic inscriptions, and 'The Journeys and Epistles of the Apostle Paul'—all (except, perhaps, the Sinaitic inscriptions) respectable works.

Add to this array of books the numerous affairs which occupied him outside of his banking business, and we have the picture of a life well filled up with wholesome, useful work—a proof of what can be done by a business man, and an encouragement to men to do what they can. A large class of men of this stamp would give a healthier tone to society. Mr. Clayden has made an uncommonly interesting biography. Sharpe was concerned in important affairs, and was brought into connection with some noteworthy persons. There was his uncle, Samuel Rogers, the banker-poet; Bonomi, Crabb Robinson, Bishop Colenso, Chunder Sen, Miss Lucy Aikin, Alexander Dyce, Samuel Birch, besides others less known, about whom there is a good deal of pleasant talk. Samuel Sharpe's brothers were men of distinction: Sutton was Queen's Counsel, and highly esteemed enough to be placed on the Commission of three appointed to prepare new rules and regulations for the Chancellor's Court; Henry devoted himself heart and soul, for thirty years, to the education and improvement of the young workingmen of the town of Hampstead; William was a solicitor and Liberal politician; Daniel's geological and palæontological papers earned him a high place in that department of science in England. And not the least striking person in the household is the oldest sister, Catharine, who gave her whole life to rearing her younger brothers and sisters. It was a sturdy, capable family, worthy of its descent from Philip and Matthew Henry, and Mr. Clayden has given an excellent picture of the family and of the times.

Dictionary of Quotations from English and American Poets. Based upon Bohn's edition. Revised, corrected, and enlarged. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

THE anonymous editor of this issue does not indicate what (if any) additions he has made to the English portion besides the 1,200 quotations from American poets. The list of these poets is fairly representative, but, judged by the minor names included in it, does not betray a nice critical sense in the compiler. Longfellow furnishes one in seven (177) of the 1,200; Bryant, just half as many (89); Whittier, one in twenty-four (52); Emerson, one in thirty-three (37). It would not, perhaps, occur spontaneously to most people that the name next in order after these four should be that of Mr. Richard H. Stoddard, but so it is. No fewer than 34 passages have been derived from him; from Lowell, only 29. This seems all the more disproportionate when we find Keats credited with but 21, Coleridge and Wordsworth with but 15 each, Browning with 45, and Tennyson with 61. There would, in short, be no accounting for tastes in this instance if Mr. Stoddard had not supplied the preface to the present edition, and given it as his honest opinion that the maker of the Dictionary (presumably the last maker) has "triumphed over the multitude of difficulties which must have beset the making of it."

The English poets whose writings have been most freely used are, in the order named, Shakspere, Byron, Pope, and, pretty equally, Butler, Cowper, Milton, and Young. So voluminous a writer as Swinburne is wholly disregarded, as is also his superior in every way for the purposes of this collection, Clough. One feels this last omission particularly under the headings "Sea" and "Ocean," where, by the way, Mr. Stoddard does duty five times, four of the quotations being from one piece. But Wordsworth, too, should have been quoted here—if not otherwise, from the opening stanzas of his "Peele Castle":

> "Thy form was sleeping on a glassy sea.
> . . . . .
> It trembled, but it never passed away."

And we could have spared one of Mr. Stoddard's gems for the familiar lines from the "Ancient Mariner"—

> "As idle as a painted ship
> Upon a painted ocean."

What is, indeed, striking in this anthology is the failure to quote from poems which leap to the thought as soon as the catchword is uttered. "Good-night," for example, suggests instantly Shelley and Mrs. Barbauld, but we find here neither

> "Good-night? ah, no! the hour is ill,"

nor

> "Say not Good-night; but in some brighter clime."

"Warrior" as instantly recalls Wordsworth's "Happy Warrior," or Tennyson's

> "Home they brought her warrior dead";

but the compiler ignores both. So, under "Duty," we look in vain for a sample of the great ode which bears that title; under "Love," for

> "All thoughts, all passions, all delights,"

which is also plainly labelled; under "Mother," for something from Cowper's lines on his mother's picture; under "Shipping," for

> "With ships the sea was sprinkled far and nigh";

under "Fortune," for

> "Turn, Fortune, turn thy wheel."

Less distinctly, yet not obscurely indicated, is Milton's first sonnet to Cyriac Skinner, for the heading "Recreation," or for "Mirth" (where Milton is otherwise borrowed from). Under "War" or "Peace," Longfellow's "Arsenal at Springfield" might have been expected to prove serviceable; under "Parting," Coleridge's

> "They parted—ne'er to meet again,"

with its fine imagery (from "Christabel").

The index measurably supplies the defects of the classification of these quotations; but it is surely symptomatic that one must look under the prosaic "Flags" for either "banner" or "standard," which do not occur even as cross-references. Some inconsistencies, like the headings "Father" and "Mother" without "Brother" or "Sister," seem singular because of fine opportunities thrown away. Thus, there is "Pain" but no "Suffering," though Gray's "Eton College" stood ready with

> "To each his sufferings: all are men";

and there is "Misery" but no "Distress," though the latter would have made available the priceless line of Wordsworth's—

> "A deep distress hath humanized my soul."

Statique des Civilisations. Par Paul Mougeolle, ancien élève de l'Ecole Polytechnique. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1883. 8vo, pp. 438.

THIS book consists chiefly of a very complacent and naïve attempt to bring the laws of the progress of civilization under the domain of one or two simple mathematical formulas. The author is impressed with the tendency of civilization to move away from the equator; and his peculiar logic—not so peculiar but that one finds something very like it in favor nowadays among men who are much more prominent in the semi-scientific world—enables him to arrive, after a considerable amount of pleasant and interesting writing, but very little hard thinking, at a formula which leaves nothing to be desired on the score of compactness and simplicity. There is a large and perhaps somewhat influential class of writers who use the terms of modern science—conservation of force, evolution, adaptation, and so forth—as though they were conjuring words, by the use of which the most intricate problems of nature and man could be instantaneously solved. It is in this spirit that a writer of some note in a learned English journal quietly assumes as the basis of a long article on idiosyncrasy, that it is impossible, nay, "unthinkable," that the mental equipment of a child should be superior to that of his parents. Writers of this sort, and their readers, might do well to see how amusingly easy it is, by an exaggerated use of such methods, and with the aid of a little mathematical jargon, to solve the darkest problems. M. Mougeolle has only to adduce one or two elementary laws of mechanics and to take a little liberty with his mathematics, in order to find the great formula of his science, viz.: that the intensity of civilization at any time is proportional to the square of the cosine of the latitude multiplied by a power of its sine. The power to which the sine appears increases directly as the time, and thus it is that the highest civilization is found further and further from the equator with the advancing ages. It is hardly necessary to add that the deductions from this formula accord precisely with the facts of history, as M. Mougeolle elaborately shows.

While this is the climax of the author's work, it occupies but a comparatively small part of the book, which is filled with a great variety of matters, some interesting, many amusing, but all easy. Perhaps the most striking example of this last all-pervading quality is the facility with which one can accurately compare the merits of two civilizations—contemporaneous or ages apart, contiguous or wide as the poles asunder. The magnitude of the greatest city is an infallible test; and fortunate it is for M. Mougeolle that such is the case, when he comes to compare France and Germany: "La comparaison des agglomérations urbaines dans les deux pays montre péremptoirement que la civilisation allemande est moins avancée que la nôtre: la population de Paris est presque double de celle de Berlin." There are plenty of things in the book almost as refreshing as this, especially some of the "science"; but one is struck by the excellence of the style, which would probably seldom accompany such matter in any book not written by a Frenchman.

The Amphitheatres of Ancient Rome. By Clara S. Wells. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

THIS well-intentioned book contains a very complete résumé of the historical record and accumulated tradition concerning the Coliseum, with a chapter giving some information as to the similar buildings of ancient Rome. The authoress deserves credit for diligence in collecting her data, but one so fond of drawing morals from statements of fact as she is, should have drawn one from the architecture of the Romans, viz.: that no matter what the character of the building-stone they used, the cement always proved the strongest part of their walls, while the cementing in her work is the weakest. This is said without prejudice to any criticism on the plan of her structure, which is very disorderly.

The following is a good example of the filling in, and one of which the authoress is probably proud:

"May we not learn an important lesson from the durability of the materials used in not only this construction but in most of the Roman work? It shows us the almost indestructibility of thorough labor, which need not necessarily be slow, since in fourteen years the great building was erected, but which always demands devotion, energy, strength, and perseverance.

"And as, with these qualities, buildings may be put together defying the destructiveness of time, and which, though changed in form and place, still rest firm and unbroken, so spiritual and intellectual labor, performed under similar conditions of earnestness and activity, may also enter, unlabelled and unperceived, into the foundation and framework of social and religious beliefs, for century after century, even passing from one nation to another! Firm as are still the blocks of the Coliseum, the more intellectual ones, hewn by the poets and writers of the same period, have served to form by themselves a classical edifice, studied and extolled in all nations, and also, as stolen fragments, have entered into the compositions of vast multitudes of later literary men. And as the great amphitheatre was cemented with the tears of slaves and captive Jews, under the direction, if it be true, of a Christian architect, so, from the labor of the most despised classes, often greatest results are achieved. Time, the great Reverser of social classes, has brought to highest honor the then hated Christian sect, has preserved, in marvellous intactness and increase, the captive Jewish Race, but their then masters, the proud Romans, have disappeared, as a grand, unique class, dispersed among and intermingled with other nations, most of whom have been in turn their conquerors."

The authoress has the organ of utilitarianism fully developed, and her notion of the use to which the Coliseum may be put is, if not practical, at least humorous, though not intended to be so:

"I would suggest that the spirit of this century, being especially one of humanity and science as compared with preceding epochs, might be well expressed if the Coliseum—thoroughly drained and its splendid water-power utilized in the form of fountains, etc.—should be taken possession of by the Roman Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and, under their direction, the whole be made, with the adjoining grounds, into zoölogical and aquarial gardens.

"The neighboring Botanical Garden forming a similar attraction, from this part of the city might emanate the most æsthetic and progressive ideas concerning the animal and vegetable world, for the community's best good. Nor would it be unfitting that walls which had resounded with the howling and cries of suffering beasts, as well as with the groans of human beings, should witness the happier existence of animals, and even a higher development of their capacities, by means of judicious training, until, in the Coliseum at last might be shadowed forth that promised 'Golden Age,' when the 'lion shall lie down with the lamb, and a little child shall lead them.'"

The publisher has done his duty by the essay.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Latter-Day Saint. American Novel Series. No. 1. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Arthur, W. On the Difference between Physical and Moral Law. Fernley Lecture of 1883. Harper & Brothers.
Bascom, J. The Words of Christ as Principles of Personal and Social Growth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Renton, W. Bishopspool: a Romance of the Last Generation. London: Chapman & Hall.
Βιζυήνος, Γ. Μ. Ανθίδες Αδραι; Συλλογὴ ποιημάτων. London: Trübner.
Courthope, W. J. Joseph Addison. English Men of Letters Series. Harper & Brothers. 75 cents.
Davis, G. L. Samuel Davis, of Oxford, Mass., and Joseph Davis, of Dudley, Mass., and their Descendants. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $4.
Deming, C. By-Ways of Nature and Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Diane Coryval. No-Name Series. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Drake, S. A. A Book of New England Legends and Folk-Lore. Boston: Roberts Brothers.
Du Boisgobey, F. Was it a Murder? or, Who is the Heir? Translated from the French. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Estadistica Comercial de la República de Chile, correspondiente al año de 1882. Valparaiso: G. Helfmann.
Fenno, F. H. One Hundred Choice Pieces for Reading and Speaking. John E. Potter & Co. 25 cents.
Fenzi, S. Translations into English Verse from Some of the Italian Poets. Florence.
Fletcher, Susan W. Twelve Months in an English Prison. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Gerhard, W. P. Hints on the Drainage and Sewerage of Dwellings. W. T. Comstock.
Gladden, Rev. W. Things New and Old in Discourses of Christian Truth and Life. Columbus, O.: A. H. Smythe.
Habberton, J. George Washington. Lives of American Worthies. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Harrison, G. L. Legislation on Insanity: a Collection of all the Lunacy Laws of the States and Territories of the United States. Philadelphia: Privately printed.
Hawthorne, J. Beatrix Randolph. A Story. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Heard, F. F. Precedents of Equity Pleadings. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1884.

The Week.

THE course of trade during the past week has been seriously affected by the disastrous floods in the Middle States. The slight improvement in the iron trade which was noticed at Pittsburgh and Wheeling a week ago has been more than neutralized by the inundation of the Ohio River, but, as this is only a temporary evil, it may be reasonably hoped that the improved condition of the chief local industries will show itself in a more unmistakable manner when the waters subside. Increasing attention is drawn to the development of the iron resources of North Alabama, and it is confidently affirmed that the centre of gravity, as regards the production of pig-iron in the United States, will be found in that region within the next few years. The price of pig-iron has advanced slightly—according to *Bradstreet's*, 50 cents per ton. The same authority gives the number of business failures during the week at 257, being 108 less than in the preceding week, and one more than in the corresponding week of last year. General merchandise traffic in the West, according to the Chicago *Tribune*, shows no improvement. Here in New York the improvement if any is very slight. The *Dry Goods Bulletin* says that travelling agents, who are on the road in large numbers, report that it is exceedingly difficult to secure orders, and that buyers from the interior, who are here in plenty, show no disposition to purchase beyond immediate needs, except in cases where the inducements are very tempting. Many classes of goods are selling below cost, but the stoppage of many mills in New England has stiffened the market somewhat. Business on the Stock Exchange is still confined to the large speculators and their following of room traders; nevertheless there has been a marked advance during the week, especially among the coal carriers. Sterling exchange has moved up to within one-quarter of a cent of the specie-exporting point, yet the opinion prevails that we shall not lose any gold of consequence.

Senator McPherson's bill to suspend the coinage of silver dollars until the 1st of January, 1886, is coupled with a proviso much worse than the law which it proposes to suspend—worse, indeed, than the original Bland bill, for which the existing Silver Bill was substituted. The Bland bill, as introduced, proposed to put silver and gold on the same footing at the mint, the coinage of either to be without limit. Nevertheless the coinage of silver would have been limited by the capacity of the mint to produce such dollars, and would not have been much if at all in excess of two millions per month. The McPherson bill (if correctly reported) proposes to make gold and silver *bullion* legal tender without limitations when bearing the mint stamp attesting their weight and fineness. This is more than the silver-men ever asked or dreamed of, and is so absurd that we can hardly believe that it is seriously meant. That part of the bill which proposes to make gold bullion legal tender is, of course, nugatory, because gold bullion passes everywhere at its full value without any mint stamp, and is preferred to coin for purposes of international exchange. It would be a measure of economy, if Mr. McPherson's views are to prevail, to place Government assayers at all the silver-smelting works in the country to stamp the pig metal legal tender as it comes from the furnace, because the expense of carting it to and from the mint would thus be saved.

There is a good deal of doubt as to whether the inquiry into the transportation question in Congress will result in any legislation at the present session. The constitutionality of any attempt to fix rates on railroads chartered by the States is by no means clear, and the only other course open to Congress is to provide for a Commission, with full powers of inquiry, to consider the whole subject and report upon it. This seems to Mr. Reagan and other earnest men a most unsatisfactory and half-hearted way of dealing with the railroads. Yet it is the only way to obtain trustworthy information on which to base legislation. Secresy is the curse of the railroad system of this country, and one reason why so many railroad men seem to have a craze for secresy is, that they dread the barbarous and communistic attacks on the property they manage which are continually threatened or attempted in State Legislatures and at Washington.

The Senate "outrage" investigating committee has decided to conduct its inquiry into the Copiah County case, in New Orleans, rather than in the county itself. The reasons given for this course are, first, that hotel accommodations are better in New Orleans, and second, that by sitting 150 miles away from the scene of the trouble the members of the Committee will be in no personal peril, and the witnesses will be more free from local pressure. About 100 witnesses are to be examined, and either before or after their examination the Committee will go to Mississippi and inspect the scene of the murder. This decision is probably a wise one in many ways. It will increase the cost of the inquiry somewhat, but there will undoubtedly be much less furious partisan feeling excited in Mississippi than there would be if the inquiry were to be conducted there. Whether the ultimate result will furnish as stirring a campaign document as would be the case if the "rebel spirit" were to be thoroughly aroused by an inquiry on the spot, is another question. We doubt very much, however, if, under the most favorable conditions, a strong campaign issue can be developed from the investigation.

It has been discovered in Washington that the bill regulating the Presidential succession has a bearing on the "first lady in the land" question—*i. e.*, the question as to who is the official female head of society. The bill provides for the performance of the duties of the office of President or Vice-President, in case of their absence, death, or inability, by a Cabinet officer, beginning with the Secretary of State. The bill, which has passed the Senate, thus puts the Cabinet next the President in dignity, and leaves the Speaker and his wife, who, according to some authorities, ought to come next to the President, out in the cold. Should the bill pass, the wife of the Secretary of State will thus be first lady in the land, beyond cavil or dispute. Apparently this is used as an argument against the bill, the idea of its opponents being that Mrs. Carlisle will never allow her husband to permit any bill to pass which threatens to diminish her social prestige. But the matter has got to be settled, one way or the other, sooner or later; and if conjugal lobbying is to begin, the wives of all the Cabinet officers will, no doubt, use whatever influence they possess to get it through, and their social power is very great. Mr. Carlisle might quietly "block" the bill, but this would be an abuse of his power which there is nothing in his character or career to warrant us in thinking probable; and even if political considerations counted for nothing with regard to it, we should say that the fashionable pressure of the Cabinet would be enough to get it through. It must be remembered that the social dignity of the Speaker is a matter in which his fellow-members' wives take little interest, most of them having the same relation to fashionable society in Washington that most Albany legislators have to fashionable society in New York.

The House Judiciary Committee has favorably reported an important bill relating to United States Circuit courts, and to the transfer of causes from State to Federal courts. The first change proposed is to increase the minimum jurisdiction from $500 to $2,000. The reasons given in the report are the growth of business in the country; the increase of population from 4,000,000, when the limit of $500 was fixed, to 50,000,000; and the fact that the Circuit courts are in most States "overloaded with business." The last is of course the real reason, the other two being merely explanations of the accumulation of business in these courts. The mere fact of an increase in population is no better reason for increasing the limit than the discovery of the telephone would be. The important question is, What is to become of the business crowded out of the Circuit courts by an increase of the limit? The Committee say it would go to the State courts. But in most cases when the Circuit courts are crowded the State courts are also, and it seems rather hard for Congress to clog the State tribunals merely for the purpose of clearing its own.

Other changes recommended are of much less doubtful utility. The bill restricts to the defendant the right to remove a cause from

a State to a Federal court. As the law stands, either party may remove, and the plaintiff now sometimes brings a suit in a State court with a deliberate intention of removing in order to worry the defendant and increase his expenses. To prevent this the bill requires the plaintiff ordinarily to abide by the forum which he selects in the first instance. His right to remove is preserved, however, in the only case in which there is any necessity for it—*i. e.*, when he shows that he cannot expect a fair trial in the State court. Other provisions are designed to restrict the abuse which has grown up of removing corporation suits into or bringing them in the Federal courts merely on the ground that the corporation is a "citizen" of another State. The clauses of the bill which relate to this topic will need careful examination by experts in this abstruse branch of practice. It is one which only a few lawyers in the United States know anything about, and a sweeping or careless change in the law may produce unexpected and undesirable effects.

It is evident that, so far as New York and Pennsylvania are concerned, all efforts to "pack" the delegations to the National Republican Convention this year will meet with strenuous opposition. In Pennsylvania the voters of the various Congressional districts are arranging for themselves, without assistance from the State Committee, plans of agreement by which they may select their delegates in advance of the meeting of the State Convention. In this State nothing definite has been done yet, but an early meeting of the State Committee is promised at which the matter will be considered. In Brooklyn the Independent Republicans are preparing to organize against any possible efforts on the part of Machine politicians to elect a delegation in their personal interest. There are evidences in both States of a powerful Republican sentiment in favor of independent and representative delegations, showing that the masses of the party realize, if the leaders do not, that the main hope of a Republican victory next November lies in the choice of a ticket which, both by its methods of selection and the character of its candidate, will command the support of all classes of Republican voters.

The suggestion of a South Carolinian paper that pistols should be taxed, and heavily taxed, is an excellent one. The wonder is that people who try to make the tax collector a champion of morality and order have not proposed this long ago. The pistol is, almost as much as whiskey, the curse of American society. It is a weapon with which probably nine-tenths of the crimes of violence are committed, and which more than anything else makes drunkards dangerous. The possession of it, too, suggests crime to thousands, if not tens of thousands, of men every year, who, without the pistol, would never have thought of it, or been tempted into it. In fact, it may be said of the revolver, with hardly any exaggeration, that it has proved to be, more than anything else, an aid to the criminal classes in their warfare against society. For military purposes its value is very small. It is only cavalry which is armed with it; and cavalry which relies on its pistols at close quarters is notoriously inefficient. For the protection of life and property it does little or nothing. The cases are rare indeed in which honest men "get the drop on" thieves, or burglars, or foot-pads. The cases are awfully numerous in which they are shot down by ruffians before they have time to draw a weapon at all. Moreover, the laws against carrying concealed weapons are, in all the States, notoriously inoperative. The evidence of violation of them is hardly ever obtainable except through the occurrence of some more serious crime. By far the surest way of diminishing pistol-carrying would be to make pistols dear by high taxation. A tax on them, too, could be easily levied, because it could be levied at the factory.

Mr. Austin Corbin, President of the Long Island Railroad, is rebuked by the *Sun*, we are glad to see, for suggesting lynch law to the Long Island farmers. We are loth to believe that he really said: "Their vigilance committees will make the way of the transgressor hard in future." The *Sun* calls attention to the fact that Mr. Corbin is a lawyer, or at any rate a Bachelor of Laws, having a degree from Harvard, granted in 1849. But a far more significant fact about him is that he is President of a railroad which is engaged in "developing" Long Island, and which needs for its prosperity a general belief that life and property are protected there, not by "the farmers" or vigilance committees, but by the law, by sheriffs, policemen, judges, district-attorneys, hangmen, and jailers. If these can no longer be relied on in Long Island, the Long Island Railroad is doomed to a precarious existence, and Mr. Corbin's various enterprises are exposed to the greatest possible risk. Lawyers do all sorts of queer things, but it would be strange indeed if railroad presidents were to begin to show signs of a belief in "the farmers" as a substitute for law in places to which they wish to attract population.

An important circular has recently been sent out by Keely to the faithful band of disciples who are enabling him to carry on his great work. It is pleasant to learn from this that he is able to "state positively (as regards the mechanical) that the first of the coming month will find all thoroughly completed, and there will be nothing left but setting up the transitive process, when all labors will terminate, preparative to operating and showing up the specific qualities of the perfect vibratory engine." The only point as to which there is any doubt is as to the time necessary for "the line of graduation." This, he frankly says, may only be a matter of a few days, or it may take weeks; but at any rate he feels that "the final issue is nigh at hand." He suggests that arrangements be made for an exhibition; but would any exhibition without the line of graduation be worth while? No stockholder who believes in Keely at all can fairly insist on his exhibiting such an invention as he describes before he completes it. It is only sceptics who do this.

The Boston *Herald* publishes a despatch of a very curious sort with regard to the estate of the late W. F. Weld, of that city. He died not long ago, leaving a property of $20,000,000. The despatch is dated Philadelphia, and states that the first account of the executors has just been filed in that city. The reason is that Mr. Weld, shortly before his death, changed his residence from Boston to Philadelphia. As the Pennsylvania tax system is the most enlightened in the country, and the Massachusetts system one of the most barbarous, is it not fair to infer that Mr. Weld went off quietly to die in Philadelphia in order that his estate might not be too severely bled at home? The case suggests, at any rate, a new kind of tax-dodging for rich men anticipating death. Tax-dodging within the State may be made difficult, but a bona-fide change of residence for the purpose of dying beyond the jurisdiction of the local law is hard to deal with. An executor cannot be extradited for administering the estate in Philadelphia, and, in fact, it looks as if the villain in such a case would escape justice altogether.

The death of Wendell Phillips has drawn a good deal of attention in Boston to the decline of old-fashioned American oratory. In going over the ground to find what survivors of the old school are left, the only important name that occurs to any one is that of Mr. Robert C. Winthrop. Various causes have been suggested for the gradual disappearance of the old school—among others the rise in importance of political discussions in the press. But this, though it would naturally have an effect on oratory, ought not to kill it altogether. There is a chance for the orator, even with an active press to discuss the same subjects which he discusses, in a perfectly cold and critical way. One reason why we have less finished political speaking than we once had, is that in Congress and our legislative bodies generally, there is no such thing as a real debate, in which the action of the body is determined by what takes place on the floor. To have good debates, you must have a debating body.

The *Paper World*, the trade organ, makes some dismal but appropriate comments on the two-cent movement among the morning papers, as "wholly unnecessary and unwise," and as "having inflicted the greatest injury on the journals themselves which took part in it, or upon such of them as have seemed to think it necessary to lower their standard with their prices." "To meet an increasing mass of people," it justly remarks, "with an apparently decreasing respect for their tastes, was an insult felt by former friends and admirers, that is frequently complained of." The illustrated papers, too, have very effectively joined in the protest against this decreasing respect for the popular tastes shown by some who have figured in the movement. It is not simply the collection of filth and triviality that is complained of, but the inordinate expansion and conspicuousness given to it. Any dirty little incident that can be "worked up" is spread out so as to occupy space enough for the story of a revolution or the biography of a deceased hero. This is, of course, not tell-

ing the news, but providing low literature. That it is going to prove a great business mistake is the general belief and hope, which is not weakened by the ruffianly way in which all criticism of it is resented by the performers in it.

A new kind of coöperative housekeeping, described in the *Sun* of Sunday, is said to prevail in apartment houses suited to persons of moderate means :

"There is a common kitchen for many families, and out of what they all contribute a superior or an artistic cook can be employed. They can thus get, with certain slight limitations inseparable from cooking on a large scale, as good meals as the richest enjoy—or, at least, meals which are beyond reasonable criticism. Maids are also supplied in such houses, and the domestic machinery accordingly moves with little friction. There is also much less repugnance to such service than to service in a single family."

Apartment life with meals beyond reasonable criticism, and servants "supplied," would meet a "long-felt want" in New York. But who engages and discharges the cook and the "maids"? Is a vote taken at the close of every day? If so, how, in case of disagreement among the families, is the matter settled? The details of the administration of such a coöperative system are far more important than the mere fact that the experiment has been tried; and we think it wrong in our contemporary to withhold the facts, which it says promise to dispose of the whole servant question.

Governor Cleveland has selected Professor Theodore W. Dwight and Messrs. George B. Sloan, D. W. Ogden, Norman W. Allen, and Walter M. Thayer as Commissioners on Prison Labor, and the Senate has promptly confirmed them. The selections are very good. Professor Dwight is the President of the State Prison Association. His associates are all competent men, and are all capable of giving us, if they have time, a thorough and non-partisan investigation of the question. The bill authorizing the Commission originated in the Prison Association, and was in no sense a partisan measure. The purpose of its authors was to get at the real merits and defects of the present system of convict labor, and propose such remedies as would give the State the system which would be most desirable and at the same time most beneficial to all parties. An attempt was made in the Senate, by the Hon. "Tim" Campbell and other like statesmen, to give the bill a partisan aspect, but the Governor was not influenced at all by this manœuvre. He has appointed a Commission which will work in entire harmony with the spirit of the bill under which they are to act, but the shortness of the period allowed for the report—three weeks—makes it unlikely that they will be able to do justice to the subject.

Mr. Clarence Cook writes to the *Times* explaining why he did not appear on the witness stand during the late Feuardent-Cesnola trial. The reason, as we suspected, is "to be found in the fact that he had no evidence to give as to facts within his own knowledge." This, however, makes another explanation necessary. If he knew nothing of his personal knowledge as to the facts in the case, why did he make such a dreadful uproar about it for two years in letters and pamphlets? Is it really true that he knew nothing about "the fraudulent patchwork of unrelated parts"? It would seem so, and we suspected as much. When the fraudulent patchwork was put out on the floor of the Museum two years ago for public inspection, Mr. Cook's post of honor was at its side, but he was not there. He ought to have been there each day through the whole week from 9 to 5 (with occasional intervals, of course, for rest and refreshment), pamphlet in hand, showing how the fraud was committed and covered up. Mr. Cook now says that his activity was all along of his love for Mr. Feuardent and his hatred of Mr. di Cesnola. But nobody has done more for Mr. di Cesnola than Mr. Cook. Nothing has helped that gentleman so effectively as the failure of his opponents to follow up their noise with proof. No writer who respects himself ought to take part in a controversy of this kind with the deliberate intention of confining himself to "hollering."

General Gordon has got to Berber, about 150 miles below Khartum, and without an escort. This is rather remarkable, but the worst is not over, as the rest of the way to Khartum will probably be more dangerous. As the London *Times* says, "the dromedary which carries him probably also carries the fortunes of the Ministry." If he should be killed or captured, it would undoubtedly be a heavy blow for the Government, but there is not much chance of its proving fatal. The majority of the voters are hardly ready to give the solution of the Egyptian problem to the Tories, in their present condition, and with the memory of Lord Salisbury's foreign policy still strong. The appearance of Professor Tyndall on the scene to clamor for a more vigorous policy, recalls a dithyrambic glorification of the bombardment of Alexandria which he issued last year from Switzerland. He then said that this operation satisfied him "that he had a country," Arabi Bey's doings in Egypt apparently having caused him some doubt on that point. Mr. Tyndall is evidently more at home among the clouds and the glaciers than in politics, either home or foreign.

The "remedy" of General Stone, that the British Government should send 100,000 men into the Sudan to reconquer that country—50,000 to be Indian troops, the rest British—will probably be received by the British taxpayers as one of those Yankee jokes from which they have of late derived so much amusement. Those who know Egypt or care about the fate of the country can hardly do better work just now than explaining why the Egyptians ever went into the Sudan at all, or what good they did while there. It may be that there is, as General Stone suggests, something wrong in giving Egyptian money just now to the English bondholders, but if the alternative is, as he proposes, the use of it to make war in the Sudan, it is decidedly better to let the bondholders have it, even if they use it in luxurious indulgence. In their hands it will at least not help to swell the sum of human misery, by sending thousands of men to perish in trying to subjugate people who have done Egypt no harm, and to whom Egypt can do no good.

The Queen's book, if the telegraphic summary of it be fair, will, we fear, be pleasant reading to the extreme Radicals all over the world. Its contents are, of course, perfectly harmless, and in places doubtless pathetic and interesting; and if it were written by a widowed mother who liked taking the world into her confidence about the joys and sorrows of her domestic life, would hardly be open to any but approving criticism. But it is the work of a very highly paid sovereign, whose interest in and knowledge of the politics of the great Empire over which she reigns have been lately represented as very great. Of these things the book seems to contain hardly a trace. She talks of the world as if it were made simply for royal personages to be happy or suffer in. Tell el-Kebir was important to her apparently because the Duke of Connaught was in the field, and all political events are seen from the same domestic point of view. The exaltation of John Brown, too, a common Highland gillie, who occasionally got drunk, which has so much tried the patience of the English public, is persisted in. His menial devotion to his mistress is rated so highly as to lead her to disregard the *convenances* of ordinary English life, not to say of royal life, for the purpose of doing honor to his memory. He is treated in the Queen's book as if he were a great soldier and a great statesman; and the only English statesman who receives any favorable notice is the one of recent times who has been most distinguished as an obsequious flatterer and courtier. In fact, the work is one which no real friend of royalty in our day ought to be able to read without a tremor.

Bradlaugh has resigned his seat, and has doubtless gone back to Northampton for re-election, which he will secure. That is to say, the one body of persons in the kingdom to whom his qualifications as a legislator are a real concern think they are very good. Moreover, the majority of the House has put him in a position which makes him the champion of the old principle for which Wilkes fought a century ago—that the constituency is the supreme judge of the representative's fitness, as long as he rests under no legal disability. The result is that the Northampton people cannot throw him overboard if they would. He will certainly sit in the next Parliament with all the honors of a martyr, and with some of the honors of a defender of the constitutional rights of electors; and the Parliamentary oath and the cause of religion and morality will be no better off than before.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 6, to TUESDAY, February 12, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

MR. MORRILL (Rep , Vt.) addressed the Senate at length on the subject of the new library building on Thursday, showing the insufficiency of the present and the amplitude of the proposed accommodations. The total ultimate cost of the building, he said, would be $3,362,000, and as the edifice would last for centuries, this sum was not too great. The plan would accommodate 3,000,000 books. A bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday appropriating $500,000 to begin the work.

The Senate Committee on Commerce on Thursday authorized Senator Frye to report to the Senate for passage a new bill for the relief of American shipping. A drawback of 90 per cent. is allowed on imported materials used in the construction of vessels built in this country for foreign account, whether such vessels are built wholly or only in part of foreign materials. The Postmaster-General shall be authorized to contract with American vessels for carrying United States mails to and from foreign ports for a sum not exceeding $1 per nautical mile for the round trip, the contracts to be made after advertisement with the lowest bidders.

The Senate Shipping Bill, as reported accordingly by Senator Frye from the Committee on Commerce, was taken up by the House Shipping Committee on Monday, and Representative Hunt was authorized to report to the House a bill covering such features of the Senate bill as are not embodied in the Dingley bill. These, in substance, authorize the Postmaster-General to contract with American steamers for carrying mails at prices which shall not exceed the net proceeds of postage collected on foreign mail matter for the preceding year, nor one dollar a mile.

The Senate debated the Greely Relief Bill again hotly on Friday. Mr. Ingalls criticised Secretary Chandler for buying foreign ships for the relief expedition, and for dictating to the House conferees their course.

Senator Riddleberger on Monday made a speech on his resolution to investigate alleged violations of the Civil-Service Act. He said that half of the persons in the departments put down as coming from Virginia came from other States ; that twenty wounded soldiers have been discharged from the House, and that the reason given them by those who discharged them was that they had not voted right.

The House of Representatives debated its rules on Thursday. The proposed Committee on Woman Suffrage was defeated, as was Mr. Skinner's plan to establish an executive committee of fifteen members, on the eight-to-seven plan, to consider all bills reported favorably from other committees, and rank them in order of merit on an executive calendar.

Mr. Morrison hoped to have his tariff bill rushed through the Committee of Ways and Means and reported to the House by Tuesday, but at a meeting on Thursday two things were determined—first, that the majority of the Committee would insist that hearings be given to persons interested; second, that if it was necessary that members of the Committee should have schedules to know what the effect of the bill was to be, it was very important that those whose business is to be affected by the proposed legislation should have the same information. This will cause delay.

The House Committee on Appropriations, at a meeting on Monday, agreed to report a bill for the immediate appropriation of $300,000 for the sufferers by the floods along the Ohio River and its tributaries. The bill was passed by the House and by the Senate.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures on Monday agreed to report a bill for the exchange of the trade dollar for standard dollars, or for their receipt for Government dues within two years. The Committee on Banking and Currency were, on Tuesday, discharged by the House from further consideration of the subject.

Mr. Potter (Dem., N. Y.) introduced in the House on Tuesday a new funding bill. It authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to convert the present 3 per cent., 4 per cent., and 4½ per cent. bonds into new 2½ per cent. bonds, each new bond to be payable at the same time and on the same conditions as the bond for which it is substituted. In making the exchange of the new bond for 4s and 4½s the Secretary is authorized to pay such sum in each case as shall be equal to the amount saved in interest to the country. The bill reduces the tax on circulation of national banks one-half.

The State Senate on Tuesday passed the bill prohibiting the renewal of any of the prison contracts now in force or the execution of any new ones. In the Assembly there was a lively debate on a bill to spend $30,000 in enlarging a lock on the Erie Canal. The proposal is an experiment which, if successful, would result in a general and gradual enlargement of the Erie Canal. This brought on a discussion of the whole question. The bill was finally ordered to a third reading without objection.

In the Senate at Albany, on Thursday, the Assembly Prison-Labor Commission Bill was passed by a strict partisan vote of 17 (Rep.) to 11 (Dem.).

The bill to limit the hours of work of horse-car drivers and conductors in New York and Brooklyn was passed by the Assembly, on Wednesday, by a vote of 80 to 32. The opposition was Republican, with one exception. A resolution in favor of biennial sessions was offered in the Assembly on that day.

John J. O'Brien has been elected Chairman of the New York Republican County Committee. This is a substantial victory for the old Machine.

The Virginia House of Delegates on Thursday passed a bill, which has been adopted by the Senate, taking the election machinery of the State out of the hands of the Mahonites.

High water and dangerous floods to an unprecedented extent prevailed in the large rivers east of the Mississippi during the week. Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Wheeling were the greatest sufferers, thousands of people being made homeless. The damage to property will reach several million dollars. Appeals for relief have been sent from Cincinnati and other towns.

Henry S. Church, Chamberlain of the city of Troy, is missing, and it has been discovered that he is a defaulter to the amount of about $80,000.

Arnold Henry Guyot, Professor of Geology and Physical Geography at Princeton College, died on Friday at the age of seventy-six. He was a native of Switzerland, a fellow-student and friend of Agassiz, and a laborer with him in the study of the Alps. Professor Guyot was the first to discover the laminated structure of glaciers, and he made a thorough study of the distribution of erratic boulders in the Alps to determine the mode of their transportation. He came to this country in 1848, following Agassiz, and delivered a series of lectures in Boston, which gave him a great reputation. They were published in a book called 'Earth and Man,' which has run through many editions. He was the author of a valuable series of geographies, and of a book on 'Creation,' soon to be published, the last proof sheets of which he read a few days before his death. For thirty years he was a successful and respected professor at Princeton.

The Rev. Simeon North, D.D., LL.D., ex-President of Hamilton College, died on Saturday night at Clinton, N. Y., aged eighty-two. He was graduated from Yale College in 1825, and was President of Hamilton College from 1839 to 1857. His published works consist principally of sermons and special discourses.

Mr. Thomas Kinsella, editor of the Brooklyn *Eagle* since 1861, died on Monday afternoon. He was a member of Congress in 1870–2. He was one of the earliest and most zealous advocates of the Liberal movement in 1872. Since then he has been a member of many Democratic conventions and of the State Committee of his party. As an editorial writer he was forcible and direct, and as a manager he carefully superintended all departments of his paper.

The will of the late President H. E. Packer, of the Lehigh Valley Road, leaves the bulk of his property to his wife. At her death twenty twenty-thirds of it goes to the Lehigh University at Bethlehem, and three twenty-thirds to St. Luke's Hospital, Bethlehem, both of which were built and liberally endowed by his father. The estate is estimated at over $4,000,000.

Wendell Phillips's funeral in Boston on Wednesday was conducted without any ostentation. Services were held in the Hollis Street Church in the forenoon. The coffin was borne up the central aisle, Samuel E. Sewall, Dr. O. W. Holmes, Theodore D. Weld, John M. Forbes, Wendell Phillips Garrison, Lewis Hayden, Wm. I. Bowditch, Charles K. Whipple, Richard P. Hallowell, and E. M. Davis serving as pall-bearers. The plate was inscribed "Wendell Phillips, died Feb. 2, 1884, aged 72 years." The Rev. Samuel Longfellow and the Rev. Samuel May conducted the services. There was no address. A company of the Sixth Regiment, accompanied by the Robert G. Shaw Veteran Association, colored, when the coffin was borne out from the meeting-house and placed in the hearse, acted as an escort. The procession moved to Faneuil Hall, where the body lay in state for several hours and was viewed by thousands of people. In the afternoon, about 4:30 o'clock, the procession was reformed and the body was taken to the family tomb in the Granary Burying Ground, in the heart of Old Boston. There were no services at the tomb.

A great audience in Plymouth Church, on Sunday morning, listened to a sermon by Mr. Beecher upon Wendell Phillips. Mr. Beecher spoke first of the anti-slavery days, and then of the career of Mr. Phillips, of whom he said in closing: "When pigmies are all dead, the noble countenance of Wendell Phillips will still look forth, radiant as a rising sun—a sun that will never set. He has become to us a lesson, his death an example, his whole history an encouragement to mankind and to heroic manhood." Felix Adler eulogized the great orator in Chickering Hall, and several other similar discourses were held.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday there was an exciting scene. Mr. Gladstone said that the Government did not feel called upon to adopt fresh measures because of Baker Pasha's disaster. Lord Randolph Churchill, Conservative member for Woodstock, gave notice that he should introduce an amendment to the address, asking the removal of the present Ministers and the substitution of others who were fitter. Forty Conservatives supported the amendment, which the Speaker ruled out of order. Lord Randolph Churchill thereupon moved that the House adjourn for the purpose of calling attention to urgent public business. All the Conservatives, including the leaders, rose to their feet in support of the motion. Great excitement prevailed. After a warm debate the motion was negatived without a division.

Following close on Baker Pasha's disastrous defeat came the announcement from Suakim on Wednesday that the rebels had surrounded and destroyed Tewfik Bey and

400 followers between Sinkat and the coast. The report was premature.

Further excitement was created on Thursday by a rumor that General Gordon had been captured, but it proved to be unfounded. On the same day a letter which Gordon had written was made public, in which he said that England acted wisely in abandoning the Sudan. "For," he said, "unless England shall secure the Sudan in the possession of a good government, it ought not to conquer the country itself nor allow others to do so."

General Gordon arrived safely at Berber on Monday. He asked for robes of honor and swords to distribute to local dignitaries. Sir Samuel Baker believes that General Gordon will arrive at Khartum in safety, but will be powerless when he gets there.

The Sudan crisis was still further intensified on Tuesday by the news brought to Suakim by a friendly Arab chief that Sinkat had been captured by the rebels. Tewfik Bey, preferring death to surrender, blew up the fortifications, spiked the guns, and made a sortie. His 600 men were all massacred. There was also an alarming rumor that Tokar had also fallen. A Cabinet Council was immediately summoned to discuss Egyptian affairs. Seven men-of-war belonging to the Channel Squadron were ordered to Egyptian waters.

In the House of Lords the Marquis of Salisbury made the motion that in the opinion of the House the recent lamentable events in the Sudan were largely due to the vacillating policy of the Government. After a speech by the Marquis of Salisbury on the motion, Earl Granville replied, saying that it was necessary now for the Government to be careful, so as not to clash with the larger views of General Gordon. The Government, however, had ascertained that it would not interfere with Gordon's plans if a force were sent to act around Suakim, with a view to the relief of Tokar. Since the defeat of Baker Pasha it had been altogether impossible to relieve Sinkat. The Government had no intention of annexing Egypt. The Marquis of Salisbury's resolution was carried by 181 to 81.

In the House of Commons a similar motion was made by Sir Stafford Northcote, who in his speech declared that the conduct of the Government would greatly complicate the present issues; that it would probably close the great trade route from the equatorial lakes to the Red Sea, give impetus to the slave trade, and greatly diminish English prestige. Mr. Gladstone was greeted with cheers when he rose to reply. He pointed out that the present situation in Egypt had not been created by the Government, but had been left to them by the previous Ministry. Seven thousand men, he said, had been ordered to Suakim. General Gordon had a plan of his own for restoring the Sudan to a peaceful condition by giving back to the former rulers their ancestral powers usurped by Egypt. He denounced as a gross error the Dual Control which had been left him as a legacy. In conclusion he asked for the Government the acquittal to which it was entitled. After several more speeches the debate was adjourned.

The Dublin *Irish Times* asserts that there is a strong difference of opinion among the Parnellites in regard to their votes on Sir Stafford Northcote's motion of censure apropos of the Government's Egyptian policy.

Admiral Hewett has been invested with the civil and military command of Suakim, and that place is believed to be perfectly safe.

The Paris *Figaro* on Monday asserted that El Mahdi's troops had taken Sankeit, near Kassala, and Ravina, a small seaport north of Suakim. It said an English gunboat had been despatched to shell Ravina.

Prof. Tyndall, who is a Liberal, has written a letter strongly condemning the Government's Egyptian policy. For more than three years, he says, it has been leading England from disaster to disaster. The latest shame and scandal which their cowardice has inflicted, bring the country by no means to the end of its humiliations.

In a leading article on Saturday morning the *Pall Mall Gazette* said that England, although opposed to the annexation of Egypt, would be under the necessity of exercising absolute authority over that country for the next five or ten years. The exigencies of the present crisis demanded immediate action, and further delay on the part of England to assume control would be nothing less than criminal

Mr. Bradlaugh on Monday appeared at the table in the House of Commons and administered the oath to himself. He was ordered to withdraw until the House had considered his case. Mr. Gladstone made no motion, whereupon Sir Stafford Northcote moved that Mr. Bradlaugh be not permitted to take the oath. This motion was carried by a vote of 280 to 167. Another motion, made by Sir Stafford Northcote, that Mr. Bradlaugh be excluded from the precincts of the House, was carried by a vote of 228 to 120. Mr. Bradlaugh voted on both motions. The law officers of the Government were instructed to prosecute Mr. Bradlaugh immediately for voting in the House. He is liable to an aggregate penalty of £1,500. On Tuesday he applied for and was granted the Chiltern Hundreds, which is equivalent to a resignation. On motion of Mr. Labouchere, the House granted a new writ for an election to fill the vacancy, and Mr. Bradlaugh immediately started for his constituency at Northampton.

A Conservative moved in the House of Commons on Thursday evening that a measure to prevent the importation of animals suffering from foot and mouth disease be introduced without delay. Mr. Gladstone would not give it precedence over the great measures mentioned in the speech from the throne. The motion was rejected, 251 to 200. Mr. Parnell on Friday moved an amendment condemning the Government policy in Ireland. Mr. Trevelyan replied, and the debate was adjourned.

The trial of the fifty-two members of the Park Club, London, charged with gambling in playing baccarat at the rooms of the club, was concluded on Thursday. The proprietor of the Club and the members of the Committee were fined £500 each and the players £100 each. An appeal from this decision was lodged.

Sir Edward Mortimer Archibald died in London on Friday at the age of seventy-three. For many years he was British Consul-General with headquarters in New York city.

Thomas Chenery, editor of the London *Times* since 1877, died on Monday, at the age of fifty-eight. He was a distinguished Oriental scholar and the author of various literary and political works.

Queen Victoria's new book, which is a disconnected diary of events from August 21, 1862, to September, 1882, was distributed to the press in London on Monday. A number of extracts from it were immediately telegraphed to this country. The entire book is devoted to domestic and family affairs, political allusions being only incidental. There are many feeling allusions to the faithfulness of her late personal attendant, John Brown.

The Parisian newspapers are indulging in much sarcasm at the failure of England's Egyptian policy. An Irish paper congratulates the False Prophet on his success.

Official despatches from Tonquin, received in Paris on Friday, announced that the rebels in the provinces of Namdinh and Sontay had been dispersed with heavy losses. The rebel leader Dedoc was wounded, and more than 400 of his followers were slain.

Admiral Courbet has written to Admiral Peyron, French Minister of Marine, bitterly complaining of being superseded by General Millot in the command of the French forces in Tonquin, just as he is about to attack Bacninh.

A despatch from the French Bishop in Tonquin was published in Paris on Monday to the effect that one priest, twenty-two catechists, and 215 Christians had been massacred, and that 108 mission-houses had been destroyed. The affair turns out to have been an old one.

The negotiations of Admiral Galiber, the French commander, with the Malagassys have been resumed, and there is a prospect that they will be concluded successfully. Meantime the Admiral has been recalled.

A letter from Gaboon, dated December 7, asserts that the expedition of M. de Brazza in Africa is a complete failure, his stores have been ruined, a hostile chief is in his way, and Brazzaville no longer exists. Stanley is triumphant. Later French advices deny the story.

The funeral of M. Rouher, the distinguished Bonapartist, in Paris on Thursday was very quiet. Many policemen were present, but no demonstration was made.

The Pope has addressed an encyclical letter to the French bishops. His Holiness deplores the moral and intellectual condition of the various European nations, including France. He exhorts the bishops to do their utmost to remedy the evil.

The Pope and the Cardinals have decided to address a note to the Powers, pointing out the consequences to the Church which will result from the conversion of the real property of the Propaganda into Italian rentes, as ordered by the courts.

It is denied that coolness has arisen between the Vatican and Prussia. Negotiations are still continuing.

The select Committee of the Austrian Reichsrath appointed recently to consider the extraordinary measures adopted by the Government for Vienna and other places in view of recent Socialist disturbances, approves of these measures provided they shall be limited in their application to Anarchists. If the Reichsrath refuses to reënact the Anti-Socialist law a dissolution is probable.

United States Minister Foster and the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs on Sunday signed the protocol maintaining the commercial treaty concluded with the preceding Spanish Cabinet, with the exception of the consular dues, which are reserved for ratification by the Cortes.

The Spanish Government prohibited the meeting of the Republicans which had been announced to take place on February 11. This was to be in commemoration of the proclamation of the republic, which occurred on February 11, 1873.

A revolt has broken out in Crete in consequence of the Turkish attack on the privileges of the Greek Patriarch. The Porte has sent orders to despatch 500 soldiers to Crete.

Mount Ætna is now in a state of eruption.

The death of Cetewayo, the famous Zulu Chief, was reported on Saturday from South Africa.

Advices from Cape Coast Castle, West Africa, of January 14, state that the King of Kinjabo had assembled troops to resist the Anglo French Commission for marking the boundaries of the west coast. The English Commissioner had sent for assistance, and French men-of-war were landing troops.

The bodies of De Long and other *Jeannette* victims were shipped from Hamburg on Wednesday for America.

THE TELEGRAPH AND THE GOVERNMENT.

Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard made on Friday a very strong presentation of the case for the postal telegraph before the Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads. He told again the now familiar story of the way in which the Western Union has been built up by the absorption of competing lines, and drew from it the inference that the telegraph can never be anything but a monopoly; that the greatest company is sure to swallow up as many small ones as may be started. His plan is to have the Government assume the telegraphic business as a part of the postal service, and he would not agree to make any compensation to the Western Union for the destruction of its monopoly, in spite of the Act of 1866, under which the companies, in return for certain privileges, conceded the right of the Government to purchase their lines. Mr. Hubbard's doctrine is not that "innocent stockholders" are not entitled to compensation when the Government takes away their business, but that the stockholders of the Western Union are not entitled to compensation because none of them are "innocent," and because the lines of the company have not been built by the contributions of the stockholders. All the additions made to the 75,000 miles of wire which the company had in 1866 have, he says, been paid for by the public. Those who purchased stock, he says, since this, have associated themselves with the "guilty," and are guilty themselves, and ought not to have any compensation.

We believe, for our own part, that every argument which has ever been used in favor of the carriage of letters by the Government can be used now in favor of Government telegraphy, besides some additional ones, suggested by the management of the Western Union. But both the discussion of the matter and the legislation about it ought to be governed by purely business considerations. Nothing can be more dangerous than attempts to deal with such questions on moral grounds. We do not think any stockholder of the Western Union would have a right to complain if the Government started a rival telegraphic line tomorrow. Every stockholder bought his stock subject to the risk of competition from any quarter, public or private, and must have known that he so bought it. The extent to which the Government shall undertake to serve the public, either in the transmission of messages or in any other way, is something which must always be determined by the interest or convenience of the whole people, and not of any portion of the people. If, in assuming any work or function, its rivalry causes loss to anybody, it owes him no compensation unless it takes his property. If it took the Western Union lines, it would have to pay the stockholders a just compensation; but if it simply started competing lines, it would owe them nothing, and ought not to give them anything whatever.

This distinction is plain enough, and it is the only distinction the case admits of. There are not in the eye of the law, and ought not to be in the eye of Congress, any "guilty" stockholders of the Western Union. There is nobody connected with it who ought either to receive or be deprived of any pay, or reward, or indemnity from the State because he is either good or bad, or because he acquired his property or uses it in a manner which moralists disapprove, or which some people think less favorable to the public interest than it ought to be. No man in America is for legislative or judicial purposes "guilty" whom the law has not found guilty King John established this principle clearly when, six centuries ago, he agreed not to go or send upon anybody, or molest him in any manner whatsoever, except through the law of the land and the legal judgment of his peers.

The matter is worth attention because there is a growing tendency to settle or attempt to settle purely business questions on vague moral grounds. During the strike of the telegraphic operators last summer, a great many people and some journals produced the extraordinary doctrine that an employer whom the public considered unscrupulous or grasping ought to pay higher wages than other people, and that his books ought to be overhauled by a committee to see whether his profits would not enable him to do so. There is now a bill before the United States Senate which gravely proposes to seize the whole property of the Mormon Church, and lodge it in the hands of Government trustees, because the country disapproves of the views of the Mormons about the sexual relation. Nay, the same bill proposes to abolish a Mormon Missionary Society and confiscate its property, because some of the converts on their arrival here are likely to commit adultery. As long as the stockholders of the Western Union, from Gould down, have not violated the law of the land, we have no right to discriminate against them as regards their property rights, in any legislation whatever, no matter how much we may disapprove of their methods. If any telegraphic company would be entitled to compensation for Government competition, they are; if no telegraphic company would be entitled to it, they are not. Their mode of getting their stock ought not to affect the question in any way. It would be a dark day for many good men if people's title to their property became dependent on their popularity, or on the view taken by the newspapers of their moral condition.

THE PUBLISHERS AND COPYRIGHT.

The *Evening Post* publishes Mr. Dorsheimer's international copyright bill as amended and reported to the House, together with a letter to Mr. Dorsheimer from Mr. George Haven Putnam, of this city, setting forth the views of his house on the subject. We wish very much that his example were likely to be generally followed, for it is now nearly certain that the measure will be defeated, if at all, by the publishing interest. The House Judiciary Committee are unanimous in its favor, the views of the President have been presumably expressed by the recent letter of Mr. Frelinghuysen, there have been no symptoms of any public disapproval in the press; but all this, it is well known, does not settle the matter. We learn privately from Washington that "pressure" is already making itself felt in the House, and that more is threatened later in the Senate, in order to kill the bill by hampering it with restrictions designed to protect American book manufacturers; requirements that the book shall be totally remanufactured in this country, or assigned to an American citizen, etc., etc. This is, of course, nothing but the old plan of mixing up the two questions of property and protection for the benefit of the American publisher, and it cannot be done except by means which more or less directly encourage piracy. They all make copyright dependent upon the favor of a publisher, and by this we mean that they do not protect the author till he can get some publisher to come between him and the pirates. In the case of books by well-known authors, books sure to sell themselves, there would be no difficulty in getting this protection. English publishers would rival each other in offering it to the American author, and *vice versa*. But in the case of all the new books by unknown men—the great mass of books—forcing the author to select a foreign publisher is requiring him to get from a third person the protection which the Government itself ought to afford. Combined, as this requirement was in the old Harper treaty, with another, making it necessary for him to obtain the protection of the publisher within a limited time, it seemed to many people to put a positive premium on piracy. However this may have been, copyright means the right of the author to sell copies of his book, no matter who prints or manufactures it; and to say that he shall enjoy his property if he can get an American or an English publisher to print it, is nearly as gross a piece of favoritism to publishers and legislation for their benefit as if the publishers who might reprint were named in the bill. Everybody would perceive this at once if an attempt were made to protect the copyright in particular books in this way. If Congress, for instance, were to pass a law that Tennyson might have an American copyright provided his books were put into the hands of either the Harpers or the Appletons in this city within six months, or if the English Parliament were to pass an act granting copyright to Mr. Longfellow's heirs, on similar terms, the measure would be seen to be a private bill for the benefit of the publishers. But the fact that the books and the firms are not named in the act makes no substantial difference.

Under these circumstances it seems to be a positive duty for all the great publishers to come out and say distinctly whether they are in favor of simple author's copyright or not. On this point we cannot agree with Mr. Putnam's suggestion that "it may be necessary, in order to head off some of the opposisition to copyright," to make some concessions to "the protectionists." The "protectionists," it should be remembered, are either publishers who believe substantially in the scheme embodied in the Harper treaty, of making remanufacture here a condition of copyright, or else they are mere pirates, who, finding that the cry of "cheap books" no longer serves their turn, are now making a cry for protection to American industry a cover for their business.

There are two fatal objections to this plan. It has been tried once and broken down, and, besides this, the moment any attempt is made to "head off" some of the opposition to the bill by concessions, it gives a plausible reason for every book publisher, binder, printer, and pirate to run on to Washington and demonstrate to Congress that what his branch of business needs is this or that little device—a little change in the period of time here, a slight alteration in the tariff there, and so on until the bill is reduced to the condition of the Harper treaty, as explained by Mr. Frelinghuysen, in which absolutely nothing can be done with it. The moment, too, that the American publishers are let in, English and Canadian publishers must be heard, for their business and their copyright law are affected; and so the result of attempting to "head off" opposition will be to get the whole subject into precisely the confusion from which the present amendment is designed to rescue it. We trust that the Copyright League will not allow themselves to be misled into trying to harmonize their views with the "protectionists." We fear that they will find themselves, if they do, in the position of dupes, and that their league will be covered with ridicule. Let "the protectionists" keep hard at work at the tariff, where they have a great field and plenty of favor. The right to own a book has nothing to do with protection or free trade.

ONE CAUSE OF EXCESSIVE LEGISLATION.

A COLLECTION of opinions as to biennial Legislatures brought out in an argument before a Massachusetts committee, has just been published. They come from impartial witnesses, and most of them from Governors of States, who have in the course of every session to pass the crop of statutes produced by their Legislatures under critical review, and who in this matter are real experts. They all go to show the same thing—and the point is one upon which there seems to be, outside of Legislatures immediately affected, no difference of opinion—that a session of a Legislature once every two years is all that any State needs. In those States which have adopted this system there is a considerable saving of money; but the most remarkable point in the evidence is that in all the reports in which the subject is specifically referred to, it appears that the actual volume of legislation has been enormously reduced by the introduction of biennial sessions, proving conclusively that the annual meeting of the Legislature is itself a marked cause of unnecessary additions to the laws. That legislation on subjects of general interest is needed in every State from time to time is, of course, not to be disputed; but the question is, How much more do we get than we actually need?—and the results of the change from biennial to annual sessions throw new light upon it. It appears, in fact, that if the Legislature meets every other year, instead of the two years' harvest of statutes being twice as large a crop as the old annual yield, it is a very much smaller one. The Secretary of State of Delaware, for instance, declares that "the amount of legislation is very much less"; in Kansas the Governor says that the change has had the effect of "greatly reducing the amount of legislation"; in Florida "the amount of legislation has been reduced fully sixty per cent."; in Alabama "the reduction of legislation is about one-half," each biennial session "doing about as much as had been done at each annual session"; in Nevada there is "a saving of at least one-half in volume of legislation."

This evidence has an important bearing on the biennial amendment now pending at Albany. It shows that it will not do for any one who opposes biennial sessions to urge that they may do well enough for small, thinly settled, half-rural States, but would never answer in great commercial communities like New York or Massachusetts, where the volume of business which legislation affects is so much larger; for it is clear that one great cause of excessive legislation is the mere fact of convening the Legislature. All our State Legislatures are made out of very much the same material; and if the Florida or the Kansas Legislature makes half the business for itself when it meets once in two years that it does if it meets every year, we may feel very confident that a biennial session at Albany would show a similar decrease.

It must have occurred to many people who have looked into the question at all closely, to ask, Why need our State Legislatures meet even once in two years? Is not once in three years often enough, or even once in four? The Governor of Texas goes so far as to predict that twenty-five years from now a session once in four years will be found quite enough. He says:

"The great advantage of the system, apart from the saving of the expense, is, that it gives time for laws to be tried before they are repealed, and also tends to prevent excessive legislation. In fact, when we get to be twenty-five years older, my opinion is that a session once in four years would be even better, as it would increase the care with which changes would be made in a system of State laws when once well established, and prevent hasty and inconsiderate legislation."

It would be rash to say how far reform ought to go in this direction. Legislatures, in any popular government, must meet at certain intervals, but the chief reasons for the original introduction of frequent sessions—jealousy and dread of the Executive and confidence in the representative body as a guardian of popular rights against it—have long ceased to exist. Nobody, for instance, in New York, dreads the Governor; everybody dreads the Legislature. In fact, so far from relying upon Major Haggerty and Mr. Husted and their like to protect us against Governor Cleveland, we rely on his veto to protect us against their work, and we elect him with a view to this, and give him a good salary and a fine house and a long term, in order that he may save us from as many of their laws as possible. Even the Legislature's power over taxes in our States, once relied upon to save the public from encroachments of the Executive, now often becomes an instrument of oppression and corruption, and nobody wants to see it in operation any oftener than possible. So that really we may say without exaggeration that most people would look forward to a total cessation of law-making at Albany for a period of four years as a sort of Utopia. Nor can there be much doubt that, with less frequent sessions, more attention would be paid to the character of the members chosen when the election came off, so that we should not only get less but better legislation. Meanwhile the immediate problem before us is how to get less; and that this will be effected by the simple device of calling the Legislature together less often, does not admit of a doubt.

EGYPT IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

THE news of Baker Pasha's defeat evidently greatly increases the Tory exasperation over the collapse of the debate on the address. This debate on the address to the Queen, in answer to her message at the opening of Parliament, is one of those annual parades which have become a settled tradition of the House of Commons, although they hardly ever serve any purpose beyond enabling one or two new members to make maiden speeches, and giving the Opposition an opportunity of freeing their minds on the state of the country generally, in the style of the Saturday debates on the state of the Union in the House of Representatives in Washington. One of the odd illustrations of the strength of such traditions in England is to be found in the fact that, although a debate on the address is always set on foot by the Opposition, and, in fact, is raised by an Opposition amendment, the Opposition considers it the duty of the Ministry to see to its being carried on for a reasonable length of time, or, in other words, to provide speakers to keep the ball rolling, even if the enemy has nothing, or appears to have nothing, to say. The collapse of the debate on Tuesday week was due to the refusal or neglect of the Ministers to discharge this somewhat ridiculous duty any longer. They apparently, in fact, declined to treat it as serious business, or to give any special attention to it, and the Conservatives, being utterly unprepared for this change of policy, had no speakers ready either; those who should have been on hand to draw attention to the rapidly approaching ruin of the country under its present rulers, being probably at dinner parties or the opera.

If the debate, however, had only been protracted for another day, Baker Pasha's defeat would have come in to give it life and animation, by supplying a very attractive Tory illustration of the wickedness and folly of the Gladstonian policy in Egypt. It would appear, however, that the Ministers are not in the smallest degree affected by what has occurred, as regards what is to be done in the Sudan. The reason of this is that the military movements in that region which they have either sanctioned or permitted, have not for their object, as many people both here and in England have supposed, the reconquest of the country, or the overthrow of the Mahdi, but the withdrawal of the garrisons along the Blue and White Nile, or, in other words, the evacuation of the whole country except a small region around Khartum. The horror of the situation in the Sudan consists in the fact that there are scattered at various points in it garrisons of

Egyptian troops, separated from Egypt proper, or from the Red Sea, by deserts over two hundred miles wide, which cannot, under the most favorable circumstances, be traversed by troops without great difficulty and the aid of a large number of camels. These garrisons the rebels have cooped up and refuse to allow to withdraw peacefully, and make no secret of their intention to massacre them if they surrender.

What Baker Pasha has been trying to do is to organize a force capable of relieving at least one of them, and striking enough terror to enable him to make terms for the rest. It is for this purpose, too, that General Gordon has been trying to get to Khartum. Neither of them is seeking to reconquer the revolted provinces, or, indeed, wants to do any fighting at all if it can be helped. The experiment which Baker was trying was whether the Egyptians could be got to face the rebels under a new and plucky commander, with a large allowance of European officers. But he has totally failed. The Egyptians will not, it appears, fight the Arabs on any terms, and will not fight even for their lives against a very inferior force—a degree of pusillanimity which we believe no race in the world has hitherto shown. Even when they know they will be killed if they surrender, they throw down their arms and submit to be butchered on their knees. One of the garrisons which Baker was trying to relieve was that of Sinkat, in which Tewfik Bey has been maintaining a hopeless resistance for some weeks. He recently tried to cut his way out to the coast, but has been surrounded and has perished with his whole force. The effect of these successes on the tribes has been so great that General Gordon will have done wonders if he reach Khartum.

All this in one way simplifies the situation for the Ministry; in another way it complicates it. It closes the mouths of those who have been denouncing them for obliging Egypt to give up the Sudan, by showing beyond peradventure that Egypt is utterly unable either to hold or reconquer it, as she has no men capable of doing either. Those who still clamor for the retention of those provinces must be prepared to impose the job on either the Indian or the British armies. As yet only a very few Jingoes have been found bold enough to propose anything of the kind. In fact, the use of European troops in that climate is out of the question.

On the other hand, the disaster will probably compel the Ministry to take some more decided attitude with regard to the government of Egypt proper. The breakdown in the Sudan has destroyed at home and abroad all hope of converting the Khedive into a respectable and strong ruler. Even the northern country papers in England are beginning to ask for a more organized and settled interference in Egyptian affairs. What shape that should take has now to be decided, and it is not easy to decide. Should the Khedive be kept up at all, even as a sham ruler? Should the Government still be a native Government under English supervision, as in some of the native States of India; or should it be direct English administration, as in the annexed provinces?—are questions which must be answered this spring, and they are very difficult.

THE FEATHER-DUSTER.

All the great modern historians teach us that one of the most important keys to a comprehension of the development of any society is a knowledge of the changes gradually introduced in its ordinary social and domestic existence. If the true history, for instance, of indoor life could be written, from its beginning in the damp, ill-furnished, and badly lighted cave of early times, down to the modern parlor, with its dry floor, abundant windows, easy chairs, and all its other appliances for comfort and convenience, we should have an epitome of human progress. The old way of writing history—that of making it a monotonous succession of kings and queens, or a dreary record of battles, murders, and sudden deaths—has been abandoned for the new method of giving a panorama of the national life. This method is now perceived to be peculiarly adapted to America, because we have no kings and queens, very rare wars, and few great commanders, and our Presidents are apt to be quite as commonplace as if they sat on a throne and wore an old-gold crown; besides which they hold office for a fixed term, while kings' and queens' reigns have always one interest, arising from the fact that no one knows certainly in advance when they will go out of office.

In the United States we may accordingly expect that the new system of writing history will meet with great favor, and that in future historians will devote themselves to giving us a picture of the life of the people, instead of confining themselves, as they used to do, to the biographies of politicians. Every newspaper tries to do this more or less from day to day, and we feel that we are only discharging a public duty in calling attention to one feature of our national life which calm and thoughtful observers have hitherto entirely overlooked. We refer to dust. The moment we pause to think of it, we see, of course, that dust is a matter of peculiar interest to Americans. The country may fairly claim to contain more dust in proportion to its population and superficial area than any in the European world. It is the only country in which during several months in the year the traveller (and all Americans are travellers) is met on his arrival at a hotel by a whisk-broom, and has difficulty in entering his name on the register, owing to the vigor with which he is dusted from head to foot, or in which the broom is again applied to him as he leaves. The curious slang use of the word in this country as an equivalent for the verb to go, to leave, to depart suddenly, as in the well-known line,

"I got up and I immediately dusted,"

cannot be overlooked. For this is not mere negro-minstrel language. It was only the other day that a cow-boy, who had occasion to adjourn a convention of cattle kings in Texas, did it by covering them with a pair of revolvers, and quietly saying, "You just get up and dust," which they immediately did. "I'll dust your clothes for you," used threateningly, is a phrase the meaning of which no one to whom it has been addressed has ever been known to mistake. That English travellers have never noticed this is all the more remarkable because England is a notoriously damp country, in which dust has had little effect on the national customs or speech. Shakspere speaks of "dusty death," as if to any Englishman the idea of dust would make death additionally disagreeable; and Ruskin's 'Ethics of the Dust' was never a popular work in England, no doubt partly because of the unfamiliarity of the topic.

The United States is, in fact, the home of dust, and we should naturally expect that it would also be the home of all sorts of inventions and appliances for protection against and removal of dust. The linen duster and the whisk-broom do undoubtedly play a most important part in hotel and railroad life. If we all lived in corridors, sleeping-cars, and hotels, there would be little cause for complaint; but, strangely enough, in the simple, familiar domestic function of dusting, we have introduced an implement which we teach or allow our servants to use in a manner that, in a dusty country, may fairly be called inexplicable.

Where the feather-duster came from originally, unless it was Africa, we do not know. The negro is fond of feathers, and in his native country applies them to their true purpose—that of display or ornamentation and parade—precisely the same use that is made of them with us by women at balls, weddings, and the opera. Stuck jauntily in the hair, they arouse among the Africans, just as they do at the Metropolitan Opera-house, the rage and envy of one, and the fancy and favor of the other race. For purposes of state they magnify the office and simple costume of the native chief. They serve in all hot countries, also, a useful purpose. By waving them gently, flies and other insects are kept from disturbing the sleep of the nabob, the boss, and the monopolist.

But neither in Africa, nor in India, nor anywhere in the world but the United States, are feathers generally used for purposes of dusting, and this is no doubt the reason why the negro, when engaged in waving the feather-duster before furniture or over bric-à-brac, is apt to show so many unmistakable signs of inward enjoyment; the thought that his white master should be so ignorant as to use feathers for such a purpose repaying the humorous fellow for centuries of servitude and wrong imposed upon others of his race. But the feather-duster in the hands of the African is not so strange a thing as the same implement in the hands of the Irish house-servant. Before the invention of the feather-duster, every American housekeeper knows that the object of the important function of dusting was considered to be the removal of dust. For this purpose, what the artists call the smooth "surfaces" were carefully wiped with a cloth, brushing being used only for such as could not be wiped. Waving was never resorted to at all. It was, too, the great object of the old-fashioned housekeeper to have as few surfaces not easily wiped as possible, and she waged for many years a brave, though losing, battle against plush, velvet, covers for mantelpieces, and inaccessible lambrequins,

solely on the ground that they could not easily be dusted. When the tide became too strong for her, and all these innovations became common, however, what we should have expected was that the art of dusting would be brought to a higher pitch of perfection. On the contrary, it was just about this time that the feather-duster gained its hold upon us as a nation, and the practice of wiping and removing the dust disappeared altogether. With a feather-duster the dust is, of course, not removed. Waving feathers at the objects on the mantelpiece or over the chairs, as the inventor, of course, knew, raises the dust, which then settles again without any diminution in quantity. Yet it is this habit of waving that we are cultivating among our servants, with the natural results among persons who neither understand nor care for the historical connection between waving and dusting. We complain of them because in waving they frequently strike and break the objects intrusted to their care. But how can we complain if servants misunderstand the use of such an implement when we cannot ourselves explain it to them? The duster, consequently, is doing a silent but awful work in unnecessarily demoralizing a class whom we pretend to feel the need of improving in every way. We can all remember a time when our houses were well dusted: it was when we had no feather-duster. Cannot its use be stopped by a heavy tax, or a statute making its employment a misdemeanor? What has it done for us to entitle it to honor or respect?

ENGLISH OPINION ON EGYPT.

LONDON, January 15.

FOREIGN troubles and entanglements are never wanting to England, even when she is ruled by a Minister more anxious than any of his predecessors to keep out of them; and among these there is none which has spread more general disquietude than the position of the British Government in Egypt, and its relations to that country. Those among the Liberals who most dislike our interference attribute it to the conduct of Lord Beaconsfield's Government when they joined in the deposition of the late Khedive Ismaïl, and, in conjunction with France, established that system of financial supervision which went by the name of the Dual Control. But the truth is that interference in Egyptian affairs is an old established part of English policy, in which every ministry has borne more or less part since the days when we drove the French out of Egypt after Napoleon's departure. For many years after that time we always had a "policy" in every part of the Turkish and Arab East; and the lower valley of the Nile became a still more important district in our eyes after the opening of the overland route to India across the Delta to Suez and thence down the Red Sea. The making of the Suez Canal increased the interest of our people there, because it now became not merely a route for passengers, but a great highway for commerce, and one used by English ships more than by those of all other nations put together. Lord Beaconsfield's Government were therefore following in the old lines when they set up the Dual Control, novel and objectionable as that arrangement was in many of its details. When Mr Gladstone came into power, and began to extricate the country from complications in other quarters, he did not attempt to retire from Egypt, and when the crisis of 1882 came upon that country in the form of the military movement headed by Arabi, the expedition which destroyed the forts at Alexandria and scattered the Egyptian army at Tell el-Kebir was the natural, almost the necessary consequence of the protecting and controlling position which England had taken up. Thirty years ago there would probably have been no compunction at, and little opposition to, such an expedition among the English people. But men's minds have greatly changed in England as regards foreign interventions. The aggressive character of the Disraeli foreign policy disgusted the mass of the people with military enterprises and annexations. England is more democratic than she then was, and both in the middle and the humbler classes there is a greater aversion to war, to annexations, to whatever bears the appearance of checking the free growth and self-guided development of any nationality. Mr. Gladstone himself is deeply penetrated by these sentiments, and it must have cost him a considerable struggle to agree to the despatch of Sir Garnet Wolseley's force.

The expedition of 1882 was due to three causes. The first was the anxiety of the mercantile interests on the subject of the Suez Canal, whose stoppage seemed to them likely to result from the success of Arabi and the anarchy which they feared would follow. The second was the existence of various treaties and engagements which bound us to Egypt, and in particular to the maintenance of the Khedive Tewfik, whom we had joined in setting up in place of his father Ismaïl. The third was the idea that the welfare of the Christians of the East generally was involved in the exertion of English influence and authority, and that our retirement from Egypt would be understood by the Mohammedan world as an abandonment of our co-religionists. Owing to these three currents of opinion, the second of which was that which mainly determined the conduct of the Executive, Egypt was occupied and Tewfik reinstated on his throne. There was, however, a significant opposition to the expedition in England itself—an opposition more important in the country than in the House of Commons, where only a small section of the more advanced Liberals voted against the grant of money for the military and naval expenses. Partly to appease this opposition, partly to disarm the jealousy of foreign Powers, and doubtless also to satisfy their own consciences, the leading members of the Ministry declared in the most emphatic manner that England went to Egypt with no purposes of selfish aggrandizement, and least of all with any views of annexation. Our mission was merely to quell a military revolt, reëstablish order, reinstate Tewfik, promote the well-being of the cruelly-oppressed Egyptian peasantry. It was announced that our troops would remain no longer than these objects required, and that our chief aim would be to create self-governing institutions under which the social and intellectual, as well as material, development of the country might peaceably advance. Nobody in England doubts that these declarations were sincere. They expressed Mr. Gladstone's long-settled views and wishes. The main object of his foreign policy has been to limit our responsibilities and the sphere of our political action, and there is no charge so often or so warmly brought against him as that of being indifferent to the glory of Great Britain and the greatness of her empire. But, however sincere in his mouth, these declarations were but coldly received. The imperialist party at home have made no secret of their desire to see Egypt annexed by us, or at least controlled under the form of a protectorate. They were therefore displeased by the announcement that after conquering the country we were going to withdraw from it, and complained that the results of Tell el-Kebir were being thrown away. The Radical party, or rather the anti-imperialist section of it, were not appeased. They doubted if it would be possible to retire, insisting that we had taught Tewfik and his ministers to lean upon us, and that the fabric we were trying to erect would crumble as soon as our military support was withdrawn. In France, Germany, and Italy our professions of disinterestedness were received with incredulity or ridicule. England is still *perfide Albion* to the ordinary French politician, whose ignorance of the forces that move English politics is inconceivable; and it was believed that we meant to hold Egypt, and were only trying to lull the suspicions of our neighbors by hypocritical words and acts, bringing back some of our troops, but keeping enough at Cairo to make our grip secure.

In the winter of 1882 Lord Dufferin, our Ambassador at Constantinople, was sent to Egypt to report on the condition of things. He drew up a plan for the establishment of a system of constitutional government, with representative institutions and local councils. It was hoped that by these means the abuses of power might be checked, and the people trained to self-government. That these hopes have been as yet little realized need excite no surprise, for such processes of training must be slow. But the inherent difficulties of our position in Egypt, as really responsible for its administration and policy, while externally and nominally nothing more than friendly advisers of its sovereign, have been brought to a head by the troubles in the Sudan. Shortly before and during the reign of Ismaïl, the authority of Egypt was extended over a vast tract along the upper waters of the Nile, a tract inhabited by black races, many of which have been converted to Mohammedanism, and in which the slave trade has long flourished. That authority was always precarious, being supported by an army small in proportion to the size of the territory, and of the worst quality. It has now, as everybody knows, been overset by the victories of one of those prophets claiming a divine commission who frequently appear in Mohammedan countries. The Khedive's Ministers, when they heard of his exploits, sent against him the force lately destroyed at El Obeid, and, after that catastrophe, proposed to make fresh efforts to reconquer the country. Here, however, their British advisers, who had not approved of the preceding expedition, stepped in and warned them not to attempt to regain the Sudan. Their resignation was followed by the installation of the present ministry of Nubar Pasha, who is understood to be acting in accord with the representative of England. We have thus been forced to assume the direction of Egyptian policy in a very important matter, just at the time when it was expected, some months ago, that our troops would be leaving the country.

Nor is this all. The defeat of the Egyptian army at El Obeid having left the country at the mercy of the Mahdi or such armed bands as ravage it on their own account, the Egyptian officials and traders, and the Europeans of all races and conditions who had quartered themselves in the Sudan, have taken refuge in Khartum, the centre of Egyptian rule, at the confluence of the Blue with the White Nile. In the presence of superior hostile forces, and separated by wide deserts from Upper Egypt and from the Red Sea, the garrison cannot long maintain itself in this position. As soon as the news of the Mahdi's victories reached Cairo, vigorous steps should have been taken either to reinforce it and win back the surrounding country, or else, if the evacuation of the whole Sudan had

been resolved on, to send such succors as would enable the garrison to reach the Red Sea coast with the non-combatants under its escort. However, the Egyptian ministry was too feeble and irresolute to do anything effective, while the English Government has hung back from committing itself either to a supersession of Egyptian authority or to warlike operations of its own. To despatch an English expedition into the heart of Africa would not only involve serious expense, but would seem like the beginning of a new policy of conquest in that quarter. If we spend men and money in reconquering territory for Egypt, or even in rescuing her troops, we shall be all the more pressed to remain on the Nile, and indemnify ourselves by retaining authority there. If our first expedition meets with a check, we shall be told that the honor of the British flag requires us to despatch larger forces and inflict a crushing defeat. And any action whatever will be contrary to the professions with which we started, that we were going to leave the Egyptians to manage their own affairs. These considerations have kept Mr. Gladstone's Ministry quiescent. But the country has grown impatient, and several of the leading organs of public opinion have kept urging them to take the matter into their own hands. They have at last so far yielded as to despatch General Gordon, well known for his exploits in China during the Tae-Ping war, and since then for his administration of the Sudan itself as the representative of the Khedive; and as he refused to go out under Egyptian orders, they have sent him as their own servant. Much anxiety is felt as to the fate of Khartum. If the fugitives there make good their escape to the coast, the present clouds may blow over. But if the people in Khartum should be cut off, that disaster would be charged on the Cabinet, not only by its enemies, but by some who are now its friends, and would damage it in the eyes both of Europe generally and of the English public. And in any case, the difficulty of either staying in Egypt or abandoning it remains. If we stay, we seem to belie our professions, we assume a considerable responsibility, we make ultimate retirement more and more difficult. If we withdraw, we leave everything to anarchy, and should be told it would have been better never to go at all. Of that part of our politicians (probably a majority) who wish to leave, there are few who think we could do so now, and not many who think we shall during the present generation. Meanwhile the Opposition are well pleased, because they not only count on seeing the Ministry discredited by the disappointment of its hopes for retiring from Egypt, but they reserve to themselves, when they next come into power, the pleasure of taking the more decided course of assuming a permanent protectorate, which will easily slide into annexation. Y.

VATEL AND THE PLEIAD.

PARIS, January 17, 1884.

THERE are two societies of bibliophilists in Paris. One, the old and renowned Société des Bibliophiles Français, is composed of the greatest amateurs—such men as the Duc d'Aumale, M. de Lignerolles (who has one of the finest collections of books known), Baron Pichon, the President of the Society, who has spent a life in making collections of all kinds, M. de la Béraudière, Baron de Lacarelle, the Duc de la Trémoille, etc. There is a younger society, called the Société des Amis des Livres, which has only been in existence for a few years, much more modest in its aspirations and particularly devoted to modern literature. The Amis des Livres leave to the Bibliophiles the old Aldine editions, the incunabula, the monuments of the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries, even the serious works of the seventeenth century. Most of its members have only collected the charming editions of the eighteenth century, illustrated by Eisen, Cochin, Moreau le Jeune, Gravelot; and they are now collecting the original editions of the "Romantics" of the nineteenth century. They have issued some editions of the Romantics, which are already very much sought after. The 'Chronicle of the Time of Charles IX.,' by Prosper Mérimée, Mürger's 'Vie de Bohême,' 'Fortunio,' by Théophile Gautier, Victor Hugo's 'Orientales,' Balzac's 'Eugénie Grandet.' These editions are illustrated by the best artists of the present time; the Amis des Livres are and profess to remain very modern.

The Bibliophiles also make publications from time to time, but these have quite a different character. I have before me 'La Suite des Œuvres poétiques de Vatel,' reproduced in facsimile from the original manuscript under the auspices of the Society of French Bibliophiles. The work is truly magnificent; but who is this Vatel, and what is the history of this precious manuscript? We read in the Catalogue of the Library of the Duc de la Vallière (1784), one of the largest and finest libraries formed in France during the last century: "No. 3283. La Suite des Œuvres poétiques de Vatel," 8vo, etc., a manuscript enriched with drawings and ornaments painted with the greatest care in *encre de Chine*, and dedicated to M. de Villeroy, Secretary of State. This manuscript was sold for eighty francs at the La Vallière sale, and we find it afterward in the catalogue of the famous bookseller, Renouard, in 1819. The book was bought by M. Cigogne, a stockbroker, a man of consummate taste and knowledge, who, it can be truly said, never bought an indifferent book in his life. He wrote on the margin of his catalogue: "The drawings are in very good taste; they are attributed to Étienne Delaulne." All amateurs of art know Delaulne and his wonderful little albums of ornaments: he is considered one of the most admirable in this line.

Let us now see who is Vatel. The Duc d'Aumale has written a notice of him as an introduction to the facsimile of the manuscript, which is now in his possession, as he was fortunate enough, at the death of M. Cigogne, to buy his complete library from his heirs. Vatel lived at the time of what we call the Pleiad; he was one of the smallest luminaries of the poetical constellation of the sixteenth century. The fortune of the writers of the Pleiad is somewhat singular: they are alternatively praised or forgotten. At times it would seem as if they were the only fountains of French poetry, and as if all inspiration had died with them: they alone possess imagination, they alone have the divine afflatus; their language is the true French language. After a while comes a reaction, and these same poets are pronounced monotonous, dry, affected: their language is obscure, their horizon is limited; and, with the exception of a few pieces, nothing in their immense work is worth remembering. During these reactions, everybody is ready to say with Boileau, "Enfin, Malherbe vint." Victor Hugo and the Romantics made a violent attack on Boileau and the Classics, and whoever reads Ronsard will easily see how much Hugo has borrowed from him in his poetical work. During the reign of Louis Philippe there was a classic reaction, headed by Ponsard, the author of a tragedy called "Lucrèce," and by Émile Augier, who is still alive. This reaction was not quite vain, as it was helped by such men as Nisard, Villemain, Cousin.

A few years ago, the forgotten poets of the Pleiad came up again, under the influence of the school which we call the Parnassians, or the stylists—poets who care more for fine words than for ideas—Leconte de Lisle, Théodore de Banville, and a few others. There is hardly a month when Lemerre, the enthusiastic publisher of the new Parnassus, does not publish a volume of poems written for the happy few who delight in *rich* rhymes, and in curious rhythms, and in the mere play of words. The dramatic and lyrical sterility of the new school contrasts curiously with its extreme ability in the mere process of versification. The fact is, that they profess to disdain emotions, passions, as something low, vulgar; they live in the azure, among the stars; they have taken for their models the poets of the Pleiad of the sixteenth century, who were literary jewellers, if I may so express myself.

Vatel is not mentioned in Desportes, nor in Ronsard; only in Baïf do we find a mention of him. Baïf was one of the most charming of the poets of his time; some of his poems can take rank with the best of Ronsard's and Marot's. He thought well enough of Vatel to address him a piece, which is an invective against a person who had dared to insult a "holy poet." He first calls for Du Bellay, Desportes, Ronsard, and then says:

"O Vatel, ce n'est pas l'injure
Qu'on dit de bouche et qui ne dure
Qu'autant que l'homme est survivant.
. . . . .
Mais, amy, veux-tu bien qu'il meure
Sans éprouver la playe seure
De tes iambes enflammez,
Qui, poussez de voix furieuse
Contre la beste injurieuse,
Vengeront tes amis blasmez?"

Vatel, as we see here, was a writer of iambics, a satirist, a "redresseur de torts." He was also a royalist, like Ronsard, like Baïf—an ardent royalist, like all the poets of the Pleiad. They had no strong religious passions, but they took sides with the King against the Huguenots. The denunciations of the Huguenots by Ronsard are well known. Vatel also deplores the civil wars; he would like to live quietly at Blois, his native town, on his beloved Loire. We learn his history in his poems. His father was a lawyer. He received a good classical education, but he seems to regret not having walked quietly in the footsteps of his father. He was robbed of the paternal acres by some wicked relations, and he tried in vain to get them out of their hands. "The children of Apollo," he says, "are always unhappy." All goes wrong with him. All women are cruel; he is constantly crossed in love. He sends his verses, with the hope of a pension, to the King; to the Duc d'Anjou, the King's brother; even to the secretaries of the King, to his valets, to the financiers of Paris or of the provinces. His efforts were vain. His best friend seems to have been a Swede called Holster, a scientific man and a philosopher, who had, for some reason unknown, fixed his residence in France. Vatel addresses some of his verses to this unknown protector. He addresses, also, some sonnets to a M. de Pesloë, who must have been a person of some importance, as there is a geography of the time dedicated to him.

All the events of which we find traces in the poetical work of Vatel which is now published, are placed between 1569 and the end of 1573. There are allusions to a young Count of Brissac, who was killed during that period; to the death of Claude l'Aubespine; to the marriage of Charles IX. and of Elizabeth of Austria; to the massacre of Saint Bartholomew; to the taking of Santerre. Vatel, like most poets, was a mere echo of the dominant passions of his time, and we find nothing characteristic in his work. His hero was Sebastian of Luxembourg, Viscount of Martigues and Duke of Penthièvre, Colonel-General of the French infantry, and one of the best soldiers of his time, who fought

at the siege of Leith, in Scotland (1560), at the famous battle of Dreux, and in a hundred other places. Vatel addressed to him his best poem. One sonnet is dedicated to "Monsieur le Gast," the great friend of Brantôme, who calls him Du Gua, a great courtier and favorite of the ladies—almost a *mignon;* a brave soldier, who could also write poetry; a friend of Baïf and Ronsard. Du Gua was murdered in his bed on the 1st of November, 1575, by the Baron de Vitteaux, also a friend of Brantôme. We find, also, among the persons to whom Vatel addresses his poems, young Timoléon de Cossé, Count of Brissac, who commanded at the age of seventeen the "bandes" of Piedmont. His father, old Marshal Brissac, who had so long had command of the French troops in Italy, had given to his son the name of a hero of Plutarch, and chosen for his preceptor a Scotchman, the well-known Buchanan. There was nothing puritanic in young Timoléon. He was handsome, fond of masquerades and dances; he once danced before the King, to the sound of the lute of Strozzi. Fancy the two old soldiers, Strozzi and Brissac, and this young man, "ayant le menton à peine jauni d'une soie dorée," Vatel. We find, also, a mention in the poems of a relation of Brissac, Artus de Cossé, well known in French history under the name of Gonnor, which is constantly found in the voluminous correspondence of Catherine de Médicis. Gonnor was one of the confidential advisers of the Queen; he was among those who were called the "politiques."

The manuscript itself, ornamented by Delaulne, written with much care, is addressed to the famous Villeroy, who was Minister of four French Kings, and Councillor of Catherine de Médicis as well as of Henri IV. His name belongs to French history. He was a diplomat of the highest eminence, and during the most troubled days of the wars of religion he never lost sight of the permanent interests of his country. He had probably rendered some service to poor Vatel, or Vatel expected to find in him a Mæcenas; for, even in the sixteenth century, it must have been an expense to make and bind magnificently a large manuscript, and to have it adorned with beautiful miniatures. The facsimile, now published, will some day be looked upon as a great curiosity, as but a few copies have been printed. Delaulne's miniatures have been marvellously imitated; the introduction by the Duc d'Aumale is a facsimile of his own hand-writing.

Correspondence.

THE PRICE OF BOARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am always interested in the articles on the "State of Trade," finances, prices, etc., though, being a woman, perhaps I do not understand them all. Is it too much to ask you to explain in the *Nation* why it is that, in a time of general depression and low prices of many things, the price of board is so high (higher here than two years ago); and why it costs a woman so much more to live than formerly? To say that women dress more extravagantly does not answer the question, for the price of work is higher, and many articles of a woman's dress (most of them I think) remain at the old high rates, provided a good quality is bought.

While I do not suppose that you wish to take up the rôle of adviser, is it yet possible to give any information as to whether there is any safe way of investing small savings other than in the savings banks?

Can you give any account of the Coöperative Loan and Building Associations, such as profess to succeed in Philadelphia, and which apparently enable one to invest small sums of money?—Respectfully,

Emma G. Shaw.

Boston, February 7, 1884.

[If it be true that the price of board is as high in times of general depression like the present, when the prices of commodities at wholesale are confessedly lower than the average, the reason must lie in the fact often adverted to by economists and statisticians, that retail prices do not fall *pari passu* with wholesale. In other words, the butcher and baker and candlestick-maker charge as much in times of depression as in other times. They do not come down until they are forced down. In this respect they act in accordance with a law common to all other traders, of charging all they can get. The force of competition will bring them down eventually, but the force of habit enables them to maintain prices for a time at a higher level than the wholesale markets justify.

We cannot undertake to give advice regarding the investment of money in either large or small sums.—Ed. Nation.]

THE UNITED STATES SINKING FUND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are, constructively, in the United States Sinking Fund, bonds amounting to over $438,000,000. Of these, about three-fourths appear to be computed as bearing still 6 per cent. interest. Have we not a right to demand that these be "continued" at 3 per cent.? If it is unwise, as many of us believe, to pay off the public debt by the present burdensome taxation so rapidly as we are doing, then any honorable mode of reducing the demands of the Sinking Fund is permissible.—Yours truly, N.

Yale College, New Haven, Conn., February 2, 1884.

[The requirements of the Sinking-Fund Act having been largely exceeded in times past by the bond redemptions of the Treasury, it is permissible to lessen the amount applicable to the payment of the public debt in a variety of ways. "Continuing" the 6 per cent. bonds in the fund at 3 per cent. would, however, be of no avail as a means of lessening the rate of speed, if the Government's income is not shortened, since whatever sum is saved in the way of interest payments accumulates in the Treasury, and can only be released by the redemption of bonds. There are many considerations which point to the desirableness of a less rapid reduction of the debt, but this is not so great an evil that one need lie awake nights thinking of it. There are many rocks ahead more disturbing to a patriot's vision than entire freedom from public debt.—Ed. Nation.]

THE NATIONAL BANK CIRCULATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May one who is but imperfectly informed on financial subjects ask of you a question or two?

The present circulation of the national banks is, as I understand it, based on money lent to the United States Treasury, and its redemption is secured by the deposit with the Treasury of the bonds—that is, of the evidences of that loan. As this loan is repaid to the lenders, the bonds, of course, are cancelled. Why cannot the banks, as the loan is paid off, deposit the specie with the Treasury as a security for their circulation, just as now they deposit the bonds? and what is the objection to their doing so?

Interest I have always understood to be a compensation paid for the use of another man's capital, and most justly paid (*pace* Mr. Ruskin), since the owner waives the profit he might make by using it himself. So that those who lent money to the Treasury during the war were justly entitled to interest upon the loan until reimbursed, because they had withdrawn that money from other profitable uses. But I fail to see how those who use their capital in banking business can also claim interest on it as a loan, be the interest 10, 6, or 1 per cent.; and I most decidedly object to being compelled, with the rest of the public, to pay interest on capital whose owners are at the same time making profit from it. This may be a solution of the problem hitherto deemed insoluble—how to eat your cake and have your cake; but I prefer that it should not be solved at my expense. B.

THE INCOME TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial, in your issue of the 31st ult., under the title "State Taxation," discusses a problem that has sorely vexed the tax-gatherers of probably all the States and municipalities in this country, viz.: how to secure a full and complete return of taxable personal property. Your criticism upon the imposition of an income tax as a remedy for the existing evil in that regard seems to me unanswerable, if we do not go deeper into the subject for the purpose of discovering the real cause of failure of the direct tax upon personal property.

There will, of course, always be a number of taxpayers who will, even under oath, make false returns of their personal property or of their income, whatever may be the justice of the system of taxation in vogue; but this perversity of human nature will not account for the alarming extent to which false returns are now made. The real cause for this widespread evil is the inequity of the present system of taxation. It is, I believe, universally the rule, and in some of the States expressly required by their Constitutions, to tax real and personal property at the same rate per cent. on the market or assessed value. This works an injustice to holders of personal property. The average rental of real property yields 10 per cent. gross, while ordinary securities, if they have any fixed income, rarely exceed 6 per cent., and are at present oftener 4 or 5 per cent. The State, county, and city taxes rarely fall below 3 per cent. That would leave but 1 to 3 per cent. income on personal property, while on the real estate 7 per cent. would be left, with only the cost of repairs and insurance, usually not more than 1½ per cent., to be deducted therefrom, in order to ascertain the net income.

If provision were made by the law for this difference in the income usually derived from these two kinds of property—*i. e.*, make the percentage of tax vary with real and personal property in the proportion that the average incomes from them bear to each other—it matters not whether you lay the tax upon the income or directly upon the value of the property, the amount of personal property returned for taxation would be at once materially increased. If, under the present system, a taxpayer returned all his taxable personal property, they would be

ruinous investments and become a drug upon the market.—Yours respectfully,

C. G. TIEDEMAN.

LAW DEPARTMENT, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF MISSOURI, COLUMBIA, MO., Feb. 5, 1884.

Notes.

A. C. ARMSTRONG & SON will shortly publish 'The Principles of Written Discourse,' by Prof. T. W. Hunt, of Princeton College.

The Webster Historical Society, of Boston, announce for immediate publication a pamphlet edition of Judge Chamberlain's address upon John Adams, delivered before that body at its annual meeting on January 18.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, have in press 'Boating Trips on New England Rivers,' by H. Parker Fellows.

The *Library* of Cornell University for January contains a list of the periodicals in the May Anti-Slavery Collection, which is worth the attention of students on the one hand, and on the other of persons having odd copies of the magazines and newspapers on the list, and who would like to assist in supplying the deficiencies of the collection.

A 'Guide to the Civil Service of the United States,' by John M. Comstock, Chairman of the Board of Examiners for Customs, New York; and a 'Cyclopædia of German Poetry, Ballad and Lyrical,' edited by Karl Knortz, with German text and choice translations, will be published by Henry Holt & Co.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, have in press 'Luther and the Reformation,' by Dr. Seiss; 'Amateur Photography,' by Ellerslie Wallace, jr.; and a 'True History of the Charge of the 8th Pennsylvania Cavalry at Chancellorsville,' by P. Huey.

Mr. P. S. P. Conner, 126 South Eighteenth Street, Philadelphia, is collecting the correspondence of his father, the late Commodore Conner, and will be glad of the loan of letters from or to the latter, as well as to be furnished with any anecdotes or reminiscences concerning him. Mr. Conner's object is perhaps a life of the Commodore, whose inaction during the Mexican war, it will be remembered, was recently censured by Captain Parker in his 'Recollections of a Naval Officer.'

The Leonard Scott Publishing Company, No. 1104 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, state that they have had "transferred" to them the proposed reissue of the *Contemporary*, the *Nineteenth Century*, and the *Fortnightly* Reviews, which the "English Publishing Company" advertised; and in token of it we have received the January *Fortnightly* in its new dress. Whether the recent protest of Messrs. Kegan, Paul, Trench & Co. against the English Publishing Company's undertaking holds good here also, we cannot say.

To their Parchment Paper series D. Appleton & Co. have just added 'Pictures of English Society,' some forty copies of Du Maurier's drawings in *Punch*, reduced by "process." A slight sketch of the artist, based on Mr. James's article in the *Century* last May, is prefixed. The letter-press is printed on the page opposite the cuts, and the whole effect is very pretty. There is a certain loss in color from the reduction, as well as of expression in the faces, though in the latter particular the defect is more trifling than might have been expected. Perhaps the worst instance is in "Beauty a Critic on Beauty," where the scale prevents the point from being seen instantly.

Harper & Bros. have issued Mr. G. W. Curtis's oration at the unveiling of Ward's Washington on November 26, in a handsome pamphlet. A heliotype view of the statue is given as a frontispiece.

In Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for January, the single topic is "Classical Studies and Scientific Studies," to which four pages are devoted. The summary view is made extremely valuable by its chronological arrangement, the earliest date being 1833, when George Combe was lecturing in Edinburgh on popular education.

"The Metrological System of the Great Pyramid," with which Prof. Piazzi Smyth's name is most prominently associated, is ruthlessly exposed by President Barnard in the *School of Mines Quarterly* for January. We can recommend his paper (which is but begun in the present number) as very entertaining reading.

Union and Confederate Annals is the title of a monthly magazine issued last month from the Valley Bookstore, 308 N. Sixth Street, St. Louis. It will consist of "facts and incidents of the late war in the Southern States, from Union and Confederate sources, recited in a fraternal spirit." There is also a "Mexican War Department," and one for "The Texas and Other Wars." Useful is the record of Reunions and Fraternities, and the list of Army and Historical Societies. Book reviews further add to the variety of the contents, but are too brief and perfunctory to be worth much except as advertisements.

Any one desirous to assist in determining the true status of the European house-sparrow (*Passer domesticus*) in this country, "in so far as the relations of this bird to mankind are concerned," will do well to apply for blanks lately issued by the American Ornithologists' Union. These contain twenty-seven questions touching the habits, diet, and general reputation for good or evil of the little stranger, and may be had of and returned to Dr. J. B. Holder, at the American Museum of Natural History in Central Park.

The Third Annual Report of the United States Geological Survey, submitted by Director J. W. Powell to the Secretary of the Interior, has been recently issued from the Government Printing Office at Washington. It covers the operations of the Survey for the year ending June 30, 1882. It is a large volume of 564 pages, including what appears to be a very full index. It is illustrated by 67 plates and 56 woodcuts. Of the former, 32 are devoted wholly to palæontological figures (fossil mollusca). The volume contains a brief introduction and financial statement by Director Powell, followed by short administrative reports of nine heads of divisions, giving an account of progress in their respective departments. The principal communications of a scientific nature comprise one by Professor O. C. Marsh on "Birds with Teeth," another by Roland D. Irving on "The Copper-Bearing Rocks of Lake Superior"; a "Sketch of the Geological History of Lake Lahontan," by Israel C. Russell; "Abstract of the Report upon the Geology of the Eureka District, Nevada," by Arnold Hague; "Preliminary Paper on the Terminal Moraine of the Second Glacial Epoch," by Thomas C. Chamberlin; and "A Review of the Non-Marine Fossil Mollusca of North America," by C. A. White, M.D.

Mr. Arnold Hague has caused to be issued in a separate cover, for distribution among those especially interested in the subject, his 'Abstract of the Report upon the Geology of the Eureka District, Nevada,' mentioned in the foregoing note as forming part of Director Powell's volume. This publication includes two plates, one presenting a handsomely executed geological map, the other showing geological cross-sections of the Eureka District. This district is one of great economical interest as it has long been one of the most important mining centres of the West, and, since the decline of mining activity on the Comstock Lode, is probably at present the most successful mining region in the State of Nevada. Within the last fifteen years it has been the source of about $50,000,000 in gold, silver, and lead. It is, moreover, of special interest from a scientific point of view, since the region consists largely, almost wholly, of sedimentary rocks, and affords to the geologists an exceptional opportunity for the study of the lower and middle Palæozoic formations, developed upon a grand scale and presenting some intricate and interesting problems in mountain structure. Mr. Hague's study of the district is purely geological in its scope. The forthcoming report, of which the paper now presented is an abstract, will consist of a volume of text, devoted to a description and discussion of the geology of the region, and an illustrative atlas of topographical and geological maps and cross-sections. Two special monographs, amply illustrated, will accompany the report, one by Mr. Charles D. Walcott, upon the palæontology of the Eureka District, and the other by Mr. Joseph P. Iddings, upon the microscopic petrography of the eruptive rocks of the region. The whole work of Mr. Hague and his assistants, as forecast in the abstract, promises to be a very important contribution to geological knowledge, especially of the Palæozoic formations of the West.

—The London *Publishers' Circular* for December 31, 1883, according to its annual custom, gives an analytical table of the books published during the last twelve months. From this table it is seen that the new issues of 1883 exceeded those of 1882 by 754 volumes. Of the total number (4,732), 704, or more than one-sixth, are works on theology; 741, also more than one-sixth, are juvenile literature. 556, more than one-eighth, are classified as educational books, including classical texts and philological works; 414, or more than one-eleventh, as history and biography; 354, one-thirteenth, as books on the arts and sciences, and illustrated works; and 256, or one-eighteenth, as belles-lettres, essays, and monographs. The most interesting feature of this report, however, seems to be the fact that by far the largest increase is in the department of belles-lettres, where the number rose from 92 in 1882 to 256 in 1883. In educational literature there was also an increase from 455 in 1882 to 556 in 1883, and in theological works from 596 to 704. In books on the arts and sciences, and illustrated works, there was an increase of 90; in law and jurisprudence, of 87; and in history and biography, of 53. The increase in the issue of novels is limited to 43, while in poetry and the drama there has been a falling off from 156 in 1882 to 145 in 1883. The general total of new editions has advanced from 1,146 in 1882 to 1,413 in 1883, an increase of 267. Of this increase, 105, nearly one-half, falls under the head of novels. It seems to have been a better year for old novels than for new ones. The influence of the holiday trade is shown in the fact that the number of books published in December is nearly double the number published in any other month except November. While the average number of issues per month was 512, the number published in December was 1,028, and the number in January 207. A survey of the year as a whole, from the bookmaker's point of view, would seem to justify the statement of the *Circular* that "there has been a progressive movement in trade circles during the year, and that a demand for actual novelty in literature is making itself felt."

—According to the last report of the librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, the number

of volumes and pamphlets was 149,750, and of volumes alone 134,587. Of the $5,371.68 spent for books and pamphlets, only $469.15 were spent for novels. The library has not attempted for some years to maintain the supply of fiction duplicates, and to this fact, and partly to outside resources in the way of cheap literature, is owing the decrease in the percentage of fiction, which fell from 64.1 to 62.6 in the two preceding years, and for 1882–3 was 60.2. But the librarian is encouraged further by the fact that the non-fiction works require much more time to read them than the ordinary reader gives to his novel, so that the usual statistics by no means show the amount of thought or the literary activity required by the different classes of books. In the large efforts now made to increase the use of libraries, especially among the children in the schools, the Cincinnati Library was obliged during the last year to take a step apparently backward. The Board of Managers was informed that many young people, under pretext of visiting the library in the evening, went out for other purposes; and to prevent such excuse after 9 o'clock, the library was closed at that hour from October 1, 1882, to June 30, 1883. A former generation would have thought 9 o'clock late enough for their young people, and the ordinary schoolboy would probably get all the advantage from the library by that hour that would be possible for him. But another class—whether productive literary workers or not is perhaps doubtful—would be dissatisfied with the restriction, as the Cincinnati Library appeals to a much larger public than most others, and was formerly open till 10 o'clock in all the departments excepting the art and the cataloguing room; the main hall having been kept open for the issue and reading of books, as well as the newspaper and periodical rooms.

—To those admirers of Mr. John Morley who have not been able to escape regret that he should have quitted the stronghold of the independent scholar for the tricks and turbulence of the political arena, his essay on Emerson prefixed to Macmillan's edition will bring some welcome reassurance. The great merit of Emerson is still affirmed to be that he is "the friend of those who live in the spirit"—which, of course, except in the mere phrasing of it, is not an opinion original with Mr. Arnold—that his "mission lay in calming men rather than in rousing them, and in the inculcation of serenity rather than the spread of excitement"; but Mr. Morley gives a clearer explanation of the sources of this teaching in Emerson's own thought, and the historic cause and need of it in American life:

"All thoughts are always ready, potentially if not actually. Each age selects and assimilates the philosophy that is most apt for its wants. Institutions needed regeneration in France [in the eighteenth century], and so those thinkers came into vogue and power who laid most stress on the efficacy of good institutions. In Emerson's America, the fortunes of the country made external circumstances safe for a man, and his chance was assured; so a philosophy was welcomed which turned the individual inward upon himself, and taught him to consider his own character and spiritual faculty as something more than anything external could ever be."

And a most suggestive parallel between Ruskin's explanation of the fact that semi-civilized nations are better colorists than ourselves, and Rousseau's plea for "sweet and precious ignorance," is drawn to show the harmony of this Emersonian doctrine with the philosophy of democracy.

—The essay contains a number of striking sentences, and is far from "overlaying a pithy text with a windy sermon," as Mr. Morley says at the outset such introductions are apt to do. For instance: "The worldly and the selfish are mistaken when they assume that Common Sense is their special and exclusive portion. The small Transcendentalist goes in search of truth with the meshes of his net so large that he takes no fish. His landscapes are all horizon. It is only the great idealists, like Emerson, who take care not to miss the real." "With him, small circumstances are the occasion of great qualities." His poems are "too naked, unrelated, and cosmic; too little clad with the vesture of human associations." The essay is remarkably appreciative, but it is discriminating as well, and Mr. Morley deals severely with some of Emerson's "fair-weather" transcendentalisms: "What can be more idle, when one of the world's bitter puzzles is pressed on the teacher, than that he should betake himself to an altitude whence it is not visible, and then declare that it is not only invisible, but non-existent?" And again: "But what would those two divinities of his, Plato and Socrates, have said of a man who 'could not give an account of himself if challenged'? Assuredly not every one who saith 'Plato, Plato,' is admitted to that ideal kingdom."

—Several journals, notably the *Literary World*, have been entertaining their readers of late with charges of plagiarism brought against various authors, with parallel columns of the imitator and the imitatee, if we may be permitted to coin a word, and with letters from eager correspondents arguing very justly that similarity of story, similarity of ideas, and even similarity of expression are not inconsistent with entire originality. Among the authors inculpated was Mrs. S. G. C. Middlemore, who had been so unfortunate as to hear her Spanish stories told by the peasants in almost the very same words in which Becquer heard them related by his peasants: who had, moreover, remembered them as faithfully as he had and reproduced them as exactly; but had never—she says so herself, so that it must be true—read his book till after hers was written. It was the *Athenæum* that first detected the—coincidence, published the usual parallel columns, received her defence, and in a way withdrew the charges. There was also the likeness of the story of Charles Reade's 'Born to Good Luck' and one of Grimm's Märchen; and of Oliphant's 'Altiora Peto' and Charles Barnard's unpublished "La belle Américaine"; and, most curious of all, the three pages of instances of "Classic Plagiarism" in the *Literary World* of Aug. 11, which Mr. John Bartlett wrote to that journal to say could all be found in his 'Familiar Quotations,' implying that the unveiler of plagiarisms had appropriately plagiarized the instances which he gave of the fault. These little accidents are not confined to English-writing authors. Last August the *Bulletin Critique* contained an amusing review, by Father A. Ingold, author of the "Essai de bibliographie oratorienne," of Monseigneur Ricard's 'Les premiers Jansénistes et Port-Royal.' The learned Oratorian declared that of the second part, relating to Port Royal, nine chapters out of fifteen were copied almost literally from the 'Port-Royal' of Sainte-Beuve, the 'Histoire de Louis XIV.' of Gaillardin, or the 'Jansénistes du 17e siècle' of the Abbé Fuzet, and that the other six chapters were in large part conveyed from the same sources. Mgr. Ricard had indeed changed *horizon restreint* into *horizons étroits, illustre* into *célèbre, Église catholique romaine* into *catholicisme, assourdissant* into *étourdissant*, and so on; but otherwise the sentences are word for word the same. Why he took the trouble to make these changes is not evident, except in one of the cases cited, where his motive is plain enough. Sainte-Beuve had said that "plusieurs des jeunes filles qui devinrent les principales religieuses de Port-Royal" had had the smallpox, which spoiled their faces. Mgr. Ricard, eager to cast a slur on the Port-Royalists, makes this "la plupart, pour ne pas dire toutes," and in the summary of the chapter simply says "toutes marquées de la petite vérole." If he were willing to use the plea, Mgr. Ricard no doubt could urge that his plagiarism was well for the public, giving them much better matter for their money than they would have had if he had depended upon his own resources. Sainte-Beuve's work is excellent reading and not bad history, whereas, if one can judge by three passages discussed at some length by Father Ingold, either Mgr. Ricard's ideas of the laws of evidence are very hazy, or his love of historical truth is on a par with his regard for the rights of literary property.

—Mgr. Ricard is a prelate attached to the household of the Pope, and a popular author of works of devotion. His 'Mois des Étrennes spirituelles,' 'Mois des Pèlerins,' 'Mois des Bergers,' and other 'Mois sanctifiés par la prière'; his 'Matinées de l'âme pieuse,' his 'Manuel de la jeune personne,' and the two periodicals which he edits, the *Semaine Religieuse* and the *Propagateur de la Dévotion à Saint-Joseph*, no doubt breathe a most edifying spirit, and have consoled thousands of souls, for whose sake it would not do to leave Father Ingold's attack unanswered. A periodical which he has just founded, the *Annales de Provence*, gave him a place in which to reply; the only difficulty was to find anything to say. He had not Mrs. Middlemore's defence of a common popular origin; he could not allege unconscious memory (for nine chapters) nor the other excuse—great minds engaged upon the same subject and thinking alike; people do not think in the same words for hundreds of pages. Nor could he deny the similarity, for the books were before the public to compare. However, he hit upon a formula which is quite as good as many of the excuses that convince everybody at a spiritualist séance, and so no doubt will serve with his audience. He attacks the *Bulletin Critique* as belonging to the Liberal Catholic school, and warns the public to "regard with suspicion its passionate verdicts, which are often unjust toward writers who profess a full and entire submission to the Council of the Vatican."

—In seven numbers of last year's *Athenæum* (May 5–August 25), Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch, Professor of Assyriology in the University of Leipzig, published a series of articles on "The Importance of Assyriology to Hebrew Lexicography." To many an English reader interested in Old-Testament studies, but unacquainted with the philological results of Assyriological inquiry, these popularly-written, though very learned, essays must have been a revelation. The author, however, was evidently less intent on popularizing cuneiform discoveries than on advocating in a new arena the claims of his science to be considered a most (if not *the* most) helpful instrument for establishing the true meaning of obscure Hebraic roots and stems. He has now reissued the series, in a revised and augmented form, in the shape of a small volume, entitled 'The Hebrew Language, viewed in the Light of Assyrian Research' (London: Williams & Norgate). This English publication of the younger Delitzsch is remarkable for all the good qualities which characterize his writings in German, one of the most important of which, 'Wo lag das Paradies?' we lately introduced to our readers (No. 924 of the *Nation*) in an extensive review.

Professor Delitzsch pleads for Assyrian as the best guide in Hebrew etymology, and his plea, supported by a vast amount of evidence lucidly presented, is mainly directed against the still prevalent Arabizing school of lexicographers. As the chief and latest exponent of this school, which relies almost exclusively on the immense stores of the Arabic vocabulary for the explanation of everything uncertain in the kindred tongue of the Hebrews, he selects the Dictionary of Gesenius, as presented to students by Professors Mühlau and Volck, in the eighth and ninth editions (1878 and 1883). Though mainly limiting his censure "to cases where the editors have erroneously deviated from the correct views of Gesenius, or have failed to recognize what Fürst and Levy had already anticipated," he attacks the whole old system, believing that "it is time to abandon the ordinary practice of forcing the peculiar, often late, meanings of the Arabic words upon the much older Hebrew sister." His wider aim is, in fact, to attempt a total reformation of the Hebrew dictionary by means of Assyrian; but he is not yet decided whether he should begin it by "Prolegomena to a new Hebrew dictionary," or publish at once his own Hebrew dictionary, compiled along with his Assyrian dictionary. Even as stated in this form, this announcement is important.

—It is an easy matter for Professor Delitzsch to point out absurdities into which Hebrew lexicographers have fallen, from a presumed necessity of explaining everything and the presumed possession of a general key in Arabic. Such is the explanation of a Hebrew verb meaning *to lie* by an Arabic one meaning *to be red*—"*i. e.*, to redden, to paint red, to varnish the truth, *i. e.*, to lie," or of a verb meaning *to join* by one meaning *to break*, "because joining as well as breaking may be effected by striking one object against the other." Hardly less strange is the explanation of the Hebrew verb *kāmar* and its derivatives in the last edition of Gesenius's dictionary, which "gives three different meanings to this one root: firstly, 'to hide,' by which *mikhmereth*, 'net,' is explained as the object hidden in the water or on the earth; secondly, 'to be dark or black,' by which *komer*, 'priest,' is interpreted to mean originally 'blackness,' then the 'dark-dressed man' . . .; thirdly, 'to contract,' therefore, Gen. xliii. 30, 'His bowels were drawn together towards his brother.'" Still more justly does Professor Delitzsch ridicule the conjunction of the Hebrew word designating the Pleiads with an Arabic verb signifying *to have a large hump* and its derivative meaning, *a heap*. "Those seven stars, which are compared by Persian poets with a necklace or a bouquet of jewels, could hardly be compared with a heap of earth." But we are afraid he is himself not sufficiently guarded against the temptation to explain too much and explain too consistently through a favorite medium, which has proved so dangerous to etymologists in all linguistic fields—as when, in explaining *kāmar* and its derivatives with the help of the cuneiform inscriptions, he reaches the conclusion that "the passage in Sam. v. 10 is . . . to be translated 'Our skin *has been overpowered* like an oven,' *i. e.*, has become powerless, or lost its vigor and power of resistance 'by the burning of the famine.'" Nor is his Assyrian explanation of Heb. *ēm*, mother, much sounder—though certainly less preposterous—than the Arabizing one which he derides. The Hebrew word for mother stands in the same relation to *mamma* (*ma*), Lat. *mater*, Ger. *Mama* and *Amme*, Russ. *mat'*, Pol. *matka* and *mamka*, Hun. *anya*, and a multitude of similar primitive words signifying *mother* or *nurse*, in all kinds of languages, in which the Hebrew word for father, *āb*, stands to *papa* (*pa*), Lat. *pater* and *avus*, Hun. *apa*, etc., etc.

—The Germans, who used to write in terms of almost querulous admiration about the sumptuousness of English philological works, have left everybody behind—at least every philological periodical behind—in the first number of the *Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft*, edited by Dr. Techmer (Leipzig: Barth; New York: Westermann). It is almost too fine for use, like Egmont when he appears in gala-dress to Clärchen. There is absolutely no fault to be found with quality and tone of paper; type and press-work are both admirable. To American eyes, however, the page is too broad. Almost all German scholars are near-sighted, and, to a man who has to put his nose within an inch of the paper, it matters not how broad a page is; but to the normal American eye the succession of long lines is fatiguing. The frontispiece represents the statue of Wilhelm von Humboldt, erected last May in front of the Berlin University, and each number is to be adorned by the likeness of some eminent philologian. The veteran "circumnavigator of the world of languages," as he has been somewhat grandiloquently called, A. F. Pott, contributes an "Introduction to the Science of Language"; Dr. Techmer, an elaborate treatise on the "Physical Analysis and Synthesis of Audible Speech," profusely illustrated, though the illustrations are only too familiar. This is followed by a method of transcription into italics. From Colonel Mallery, a well-known American investigator, we have a treatise on "Sign Language"; Max Müller indulges in one of his mythologico-etymological flights, which never carry him far out of sight of the sun. Especially noteworthy is the concluding article by Prof. Karl Brugmann, on the question as to the affinities of the Indo Germanic languages. The tendency of the paper is to check rash inferences as to the closer relations of two or more members of the Indo-Germanic family. We must not be satisfied with coincidence here and there; but in all the deviations from the stock, in all the innovations, we must find agreement in phonetics, inflection, syntax, vocabulary, before we can say, "Here are twins!" "Here are triplets!" The exceeding caution of the school of which Brugmann is so prominent a representative is "disillusioning"—but so is life, so is truth.

—M. Charles Joliet, who published in 1867 a little book or list of 'Les Pseudonymes du Jour,' has recently issued a second and enlarged edition (Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern). It is not exhaustive or elaborate, but it is a convenient guide to the host of fictitious names used in minor Parisian journalism and literature. Even a distant New Yorker may note the omission of M. Guy de Maupassant, some of whose articles in the *Gil Blas* are signed "Maufrigneuse"—a Balzacian pseudonym not unsuited to the curiously powerful or perverse writing of M. de Maupassant. Moreover, the pseudonym of the late Hablot K. Browne is thus set down (p. 98): "Phryz.—Knight Brown." But such slips are comparatively few, and the utility of the work is indisputable. After separate lists of ladies' *noms de guerre* and of those of men of letters, there are lists also of the real names of artists, painters, and sculptors, of composers and musicians, and of actors and actresses. Among the writing ladies who sign with a pseudonym are Mme. Blanc, who is "Th. Bentzon"; the Countess of Mirabeau, who signs her sketches in the *Vie Parisienne* with an unaristocratic "Zut" or "Chut"; the Countess of Martel, who wrote for the same lively paper, under the signature of "Gyp," a series of light sketches, since gathered into a volume called 'Autour du Mariage'; Mme. Durand, who signs "Henry Gréville"; Mme. Fould, whose signature is "Gustave Haller"; and Mme. Dussaud, who is "Jacques Vincent." Perhaps the most curious thing to be noted in the book by an American journalist is the habit which obtains among Parisian newspapers of having a signature or two which is common property, and which may be used at any time by any writer who does not care to sign his work.

—It was a foregone conclusion that the Fifth Avenue Theatre would be crowded on the occasion of the first production in this country of "Princess Ida, or Castle Adamant," a "respectful perversion" of Tennyson's "Princess." The extraordinary popularity attained by "Pinafore" insured for every subsequent work by Gilbert and Sullivan at least a *succès de curiosité*, and even reversed the judgment of the past, inasmuch as "The Sorcerer," an earlier work which had made but little impression, was subsequently revived with success. These works, together with the "Pirates," established a new style of English operetta quite distinct from the French and German styles. The fourth of these works, "Patience," owed part of its vogue to the fact that it was a timely satire on the "æsthetic craze." In "Iolanthe" it became evident that the authors had exhausted their new vein entirely, and on hearing "Princess Ida" on Monday evening most of the spectators must have wondered why the authors should persist in working a mine in which not a single nugget of gold is left, and only a few traces of silver. Mr. Gilbert's exhaustion is most conspicuous, although Mr. Sullivan seems to take pains not to offer many opportunities for odious comparisons. In "Princess Ida" Gilbert harps on his favorite old string. We have the same elegantly attired chorus of lovesick maidens grouped in a reclining posture on the stage; the same simplicity of plot, without the slightest attempt to attain dramatic suspense; and the same topsy-turvey jokes, halfway between wit and baby-talk. The verdict of the London press led one to believe that, although Gilbert's libretto was a failure, Sullivan's music fully atoned for his colleague's shortcomings. This is not the case. Some of the concerted pieces and choruses, especially in the prologue, are well written and spirited, although void of originality. The solo numbers are weak, with two or three exceptions, the best being *Lady Psyche's* song about man, who "at best is only a monkey shaved." It is often asserted that where Sullivan does not write "catchy" tunes for the people he appeals to the cultivated musician by his subtle art. This is precisely what he does not do in his latest works. Some of his lyric songs are not only beautiful as melodies, but have an exquisite harmonic accompaniment for the pianoforte, while in "Princess Ida" the harmonies are of the most primitive description, seldom rising above the level of Donizetti. A curious feature is the perceptible influence of Handel. But Handel never was a very successful Italian opera composer, and his style is hardly adapted to modern operetta. Sullivan's treatment of the orchestra is by no means so full of variety and piquant effects as Lecocq's or Strauss's. There is one passage, however, in *Lady Blanche's* song just referred to, "But it would not do: the scheme fell through," where a delicate and charming effect is produced by the violins. The performance was one of the smoothest first-night performances ever given in this city. The orchestra is small but efficient, the chorus

well trained and of excellent vocal quality, and all the *ensemble* parts, therefore, went well, combining the freshness of a first night with the polish usually only attained after many repetitions. The scenery is magnificent, especially in the prologue and second act, and the costumes not only effective but tasteful, adding a special charm of color to several of the striking tableaux. For all these things the play is worth seeing. The cast is not remarkable.

GENERAL GORDON IN THE SUDAN.

The Story of Chinese Gordon. By A. Egmont Hake. London: Remington & Co.; New York: R. Worthington. 1884.

THE return of General Gordon to the Sudan in the present critical state of affairs gives a peculiar interest and importance to his experiences in that wild and distant portion of the world when he was Governor there, under the late Khedive of Egypt, Ismaïl Pasha, and for a short time under his successor, Tewfik. The circumstances which led to his appointment as Governor were essentially the same as those which have occasioned his present mission. Then, as now, the equatorial provinces of Darfur and Kordofan had risen in successful revolt against the Egyptian Government, and the insurrectionary movement was rapidly spreading northward over the Sudan. Gordon checked this movement for the time, but only checked it. He had no sooner left the country than the causes which had produced insurrection again began to operate, and the present effort after independence which has Obeid for its centre is only a continuance of the rising which Gordon confronted and partially suppressed in 1879. To describe what he had to do, and what exactly he effected, will throw no small degree of light upon the present state of affairs beyond the southern frontier of Egypt. In reviewing, therefore, 'The Story of Chinese Gordon,' it is to this part of his "story" that we shall confine ourselves.

The hold of the Egyptian Government over its southern provinces must always be weak and precarious because of the zone or desert which separates Egypt proper from the Sudan. This desert is one hundred and eighty miles across, and, until the days of Mehemet Ali, was regarded as a barrier forbidding all attempts at conquest in the interior of Africa. Sixty years ago, Mehemet Ali crossed this desert boundary, and gradually extended his authority over Kordofan, Darfur, and away to the sources of the Nile. The want of unity among a population split up into innumerable tribes enabled him to do this with but little difficulty. He, his successors, and their agents and officers, made use of this vast extension of territory for no other purpose than kidnapping slaves, driving them in droves to the coast, and there shipping them for sale in Cairo, Constantinople, or Arabia. The ravages and the misery wrought by these slave-traders surpasses almost all that the imagination can conceive. Vast tracts of country which had been the homes of a happy population, rich in villages and cultivated land, were entirely depopulated. The lines of march followed by the slave-traders and their victims could be traced by the quantity of skulls strewn along them, showing where the wretched slaves, exhausted by fatigue and thirst, had sunk down and died. The Khedives contemplated this vile traffic with the utmost complacency until they found that the growing power of the great slave-trading tribes menaced their own authority. Until they made this discovery, they remained the great support and encouragement of the slave-trade. And the pashas, mudirs, and other officials, who were described as "governing" the Sudan in their name, took their cue from their august masters. What was called "the Government" was, in fact, an agency for carrying on the traffic in human flesh. Even the Government steamers on the Nile were pressed into the service, and came to Khartum from the interior loaded with cargoes of slaves.

The Khedive Ismaïl Pasha was the first to be converted to the views of the British Anti-Slavery Society, and his conversion was brought about after this manner. The great slave-dealers were in the habit of taking the best and strongest of those whom they kidnapped and forming them into a body-guard, which they made use of in their raids. Thus, gradually, they became possessed of a sort of standing army, greatly superior in physique, in courage, and in discipline to the wretched Egyptian soldiery who represented the authority of the Khedive. Among these slave-dealers, one man, by his wealth, his troops of slaves, and the number of his fortified stations, stood out as a kind of king. His name was Zebehr Rahama. Dr. Schweinfurth, the author of 'The Heart of Africa,' found him "surrounded with a court that was little less than princely in its details." His fortified posts were carried far into the heart of Africa, and over the whole country embraced by them Zebehr exercised despotic authority. The Khedive Ismaïl, after an unsuccessful attempt to diminish his power, was obliged to try a policy of conciliation by creating him a Pasha. This dignity did not satisfy Zebehr, and, in an unlucky moment for himself, he repaired to Cairo with £100,000 in order to bribe the Khedive and his officials into recognizing him as Sultan of Darfur. But, having got the man he dreaded into his power, Ismail was too astute a politician to let him escape. Zebehr never returned to Darfur, and he is at this moment residing in Cairo. This fate was not altogether unexpected by Zebehr. There is a large tree on the left-hand side of the road from Obeid to Shaka, about two miles from Shaka. Before his departure for Cairo, Zebehr assembled his officers under this tree and swore them to obedience upon the Koran: whatever orders he should send them from Cairo, they were to obey. When Gordon was appointed to the charge of the equatorial province, Zebehr saw him as he passed through Cairo, and strove to interest him in his favor. But, finding that Gordon would not assist him, he sent the order to his officers, "Put into effect my orders given under the tree." And so the revolt began.

It was only the accident of Gordon's nomination at this moment which saved the Khedive's Government from the ruin which has now overwhelmed it. Gordon speaks of Shaka, the headquarters of Zebehr, as a Cave of Adullam, crowded with robbers, and murderers, and ruffians of every description. They could put ten thousand men into the field. On the other side, the badness of the Egyptian Government, the worthlessness and demoralization of the Egyptian soldiery, rendered them quite incapable of holding their own against the formidable soldiers of the slave-kings. "The Government of the Egyptians in these far-off countries," writes Gordon, "is nothing else but one of brigandage of the very worst description. It is so bad that all hope of ameliorating it is hopeless. . . . One thing is certain—that the Egyptian should never be allowed out of his country." Happily for the success of Gordon's undertaking, bad as the Egyptian Government was, the rule of the slave-dealers was no improvement upon it, so far as the bulk of the population was concerned. They had committed, and were still committing, the most frightful atrocities upon the people wherever they moved.

"I have been talking," writes Gordon in April, 1879, "to some of the chiefs of Darfur, and it is lamentable to learn that more than one-third of the population has been carried off into slavery. . . . All the road from here to Shaka is marked by the camping places of the slave-dealers, and there are numerous skulls by the side of the road. What thousands have passed along here! . . . I hear some districts are completely depopulated, all the inhabitants having been captured or starved to death. If our Government, instead of bothering the Khedive about that wretched debt, had spent £1,000 a year in sending up a consul here, what a deal of suffering might have been saved!"

"I have," he writes in a subsequent letter, "just made a calculation of the loss of life in Darfur during the years 1875-79. It comes to 16,000 Egyptians and some 50,000 natives of Darfur. Add to this the loss of life on the Bahr-Gazelle—some 15,000—and you will have a fine total of 81,000; and this exclusive of the slave-trade, which one may put down for these years at from 80,000 to 100,000."

In this, then, the first contest between the Egyptian Government and the slave-dealers, the victory was tolerably certain to rest with that side which could secure the active co-operation of the people. Gordon's exhaustless energy, his ferocity against all corruption and oppression, his unwearied efforts to do justice to the people, soon kindled a perfect enthusiasm for him throughout those vast and desolated regions. The people had never seen a Governor who sought to do justice and was proof against all bribes—who warred against the strong, while he systematically shielded the weak and the poor. Gordon knew—none better—that the labors in which he spent himself would bear no fruit after his departure, but he worked none the less hard on that account.

"I cannot tell you," he writes in April, 1877, "how wearisome it is to be continually finding fault and turning out officials, etc. That is my constant work; and as I go along I am like a fire, leaving wrecks behind me. I will (D. V.) do my duty, troublesome and even dangerous as it may be. There is no use being gentle over it—the disease is too grave for gentle remedies."

"I think," he writes from Khartum on May 18, "the people like me; and it is an immense comfort that, while in the old régime ten or fifteen people were flogged daily, now none get flogged. A huge crowd stand around the palatial gates all day, but only a few are privileged with an interview; for I keep a box with a slit in the lid for petitions at the door, and every one can put his petition in it. Hitherto the people could never approach the Governor unless they bribed the clerks. . . . It is all nonsense for the Turks to say that the people would oppose the nomination of a Christian Governor. The people want justice. . . . I am breaking up, to the great joy of the people, the Bashi-Bazouks, who of course do not love me. A great sorrow has been taken off the land. The reign of the whip has ceased, and I do believe the people rejoice at my being here."

And again, a month later:

"The wrecks left on my passage are numerous. I have set my face as a flint, and, regardless of consequences, have been hard right and left. I do not wish to be so; I should like to praise, not blame; but seeing what I know of the sufferings of the people, I cannot force myself to let things slide."

Then, a few days after:

"The way these Bashi-Bazouks have treated their fellow-religionists here is far worse than in Bulgaria. . . . My second in command, Halid Pasha, only stayed ten days in his post. He tried to thwart me, so I telegraphed to Cairo, and in twenty-four hours he was ordered off. I feel sure it is a waste of time to argue with a Turk or a Circassian—the only way is to coerce him; you can never convince him. This is twelve years' experience of them. All this revolt is the fault of the Bashi-Bazouks. . . . Now, the Darfurians were so fanatical that they would never let a Christian into their country, and now they ask me to send Christian governors."

In this way it was not long before Gordon succeeded in working a complete change in the feelings of the populations around him: discon-

tent gave place to loyalty. The armed hordes of the slave-dealers found themselves surrounded by a population no longer apathetic, but actively hostile. Gordon himself was always on the move. Mounted upon fleet camels, he covered tremendous distances, and came down upon lazy and recalcitrant officials before they had time to suspect his approach. Droves of slaves were intercepted and set free, and their captors flogged and stripped of everything they possessed. In addition to all this, Gordon possessed in his lieutenant—an Italian by the name of Gessi—a soldier of really remarkable genius. To him was intrusted the conduct of the campaign against the armed bands of Sebehr, and they were completely destroyed in a series of operations which exhibited, on the part of Gessi, extraordinary fertility of resource, skill, and perseverance, amid difficulties of all kinds. After each successive defeat the population rose against their fugitive oppressors. The slave armies were annihilated down almost to the last man; and the land for a time had rest.

But "the wrecks" which Gordon speaks of as leaving everywhere in his passage, simply repaired to Cairo, and there, instead of being regarded with disfavor, they appeared as honored guests at the levees and banquets of the Khedive. They were in constant communication with his Ministers; and Khedive, Ministers, and expelled officials were soon all agreed that so terrible a reformer as General Gordon was not the man for Egypt. He was, indeed, altogether impracticable. He would not allow items of charge to be fastened upon the revenues of the Sudan unless Ministers could show that the Sudan was in some way connected with such items. He was attached to the monstrous heresy of putting the interests of the Sudanese before those of the place-hunters in Cairo. And so the end came: he was recalled; and all the officials whom he had expelled were let loose upon the province again to torture, oppress, and lay waste. Hence the insurrection which has now assumed such formidable dimensions. Sebehr's slave armies no longer existing, the population have united, by a common impulse, against the representatives of the Egyptian Government. Gordon foresaw the probability of this.

"In spite," he wrote, "of the heavy blow that has been struck at revolt, any great leader could still make himself master of the Sudan. It was not merely with the slave-dealers that the Government had to deal. They, indeed, by themselves were powerful enough to tax all the strength of Egypt; but their strength was doubled by the support which they so largely received from the tribes that many hundreds of years earlier had passed over from Arabia and had settled in Central Africa. These Arabs were men of long descent, proud of their descent and fond of war. When tried by the standard of Turkish morality, their social life was even pure. Moreover, both in their modes of life and their ways of thinking, they were far more akin than either Turks or Egyptians to the black races in the midst of whom they and their forefathers had so long lived. These children of the desert hated the Egyptian rule, and looked with scorn upon the effeminate and grasping rulers who were sent up from Cairo to govern them. They were ready—and are still ready—to seize the first chance of shaking off the yoke of Egypt. Their war cry, so Gessi reported, was, 'This is our land—we know no Effendina (Khedive) here.'

. . . . . .

"There is no doubt that if the Governments of France and England do not pay more attention to the Sudan, if they do not establish at Khartum a branch of the Mixed Tribunals, and see that justice is done, the disruption of the Sudan from Cairo is only a question of time. This disruption, moreover, will not end the troubles, for the Sudanese, through their allies in Lower Egypt—the Black Soldiers I mean—will carry on their efforts in Cairo itself. Now these Black Soldiers are the only troops in the Egyptian service that are worth anything."

This prediction has since been verified. The insurrection in the Sudan is a revolt against intolerable misrule. It is the fact of this misrule which has given to the revolt cohesion and strength. The religious element in it is subordinate, and, as it were, forced upon it by the constitution of a Moslem state. That constitution is theocratic, and if the Khedive or any other Moslem sovereign can get the orthodox expounders of the *Sheriat* or Moslem law upon his side, he can always make it appear that those in revolt against his authority are also rebels against the Divine Law. He can, in a word, pronounce sentence of excommunication against them. The possession of this spiritual weapon on the one side forces the other to claim spiritual authority also, and declare that it is acting upon an independent religious basis. The leader of the present rebellion, though he is reported to have declared that he is "the Mahdi," has, in all probability, not claimed that dignity at all, but the humble one of being a forerunner of the Mahdi. This would be a far safer rôle to play. To the achievements of "the Mahdi" proper there can be no limit. But a forerunner of that tremendous personage may perhaps be regarded as having established the authenticity of his pretensions when he has expelled the Egyptians from their equatorial provinces.

THE RUMANIAN LANGUAGE.

A Simplified Grammar of the Roumanian Language. By R. Torceanu. London: Trübner & Co. 1883. Pp. 71.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Torceanu confounded the meanings of the words *simplify* and *abridge*, for Rumanian grammar is so simple in itself that the addition of a very few pages would have rendered his book much clearer and more intelligible, and quite as sufficient for ordinary use as the more elaborate work of Maxim (Hermannstadt, 1877). There is not a word, for instance, about orthography, and yet one of the first difficulties that confront one on opening a Rumanian book is the varying spelling. There are at least two systems in vogue, both strongly supported. Where some write words with an *ea* or *oa*, as *seara*, 'evening,' *noapta*, 'night,' others write with an *é* or *ó*, as *séra*, *nópte*. The letters *â*, *ê*, *î* have exactly the same sound, somewhat like that of *i* in the English pronunciation of the word *squirrel*, and properly are varied only according to the derivation of the word to show the original vowel; but frequently they are confused, and it may be necessary to make all the possible variations in the word before it can be found in the dictionary. Thus *blând*, from the Latin *blandus*, is written *blênd* in Costinescu's dictionary. Torceanu, in the book before us, uses *ă*, *ĕ* instead of *â*, *ê*, and spells his own name with *ea* instead of *é*, as is his usage for other words. Should *di*, 'day' (Lat. *dies*) be written *di*, *ḑi* or *zi*? Usage differs. Then there is the question of the final *u*. Should it be written at all, or should it have a short accent, *ŭ*? Torceanu gives us this plain and almost Irish rule: "*ŭ*, when it occurs at the end of a word, is pronounced like a silent *u*, which is called *ŭ* short." In fact, *ŭ* and *ĭ* at the end of words correspond exactly to the Slavic so-called semi-vowels ъ and ь and are not pronounced, although the *ĭ* affects somewhat the sound of the preceding consonant—changing, for example, *t* into *ts* or *ty*, or, as it is written, *ţ*. The use of the final unpronounced *ŭ* is now discouraged as unnecessary, awkward, and wasting space, although the great newspaper of Bucarest still continues to call itself *Românulŭ*. Its disuse relieves the language a little of its reduplicative appearance, though strangers still judge it by one of the first signs they see on driving into Bucarest from the railway station: *Biuroulu Regiei Monopolului Tutunuriloru*. The final *ŭ* was originally either part of a lost termination, or has been added to words by analogy on the theory that no word could end in a consonant.

The unsettled orthography of Rumanian should not seem strange to us when we remember that it is scarcely thirty years since the Latin alphabet has been in use. Before that time, except for a short period, when the Phanariote princes tried to introduce the Greek alphabet, the language was always written and printed in the barbarous Cyrillic or Old Slavic characters—not even those more shapely ones used by the Russians, Bulgarians, and Serbians. The spread of education has been rapid since the nation awoke to life and vigor as a *contre-coup* of the Crimean and Italian wars.* The tendency of Rumania is toward Western civilization, and the old alphabet has so completely disappeared that in the courts of justice it is necessary to employ an expert to read contracts and other documents written forty and fifty years ago.

The grammar of Rumanian is almost purely Latin, and now that words are written legibly, more or less regularly, and without abbreviations, it needs but a glance at a book or a newspaper to see this. One of the great exceptions is that the definite article is affixed to the word instead of preceding it. Some have tried to see the origin of this *-ul* in the Latin *ille;* others have attempted to show that it comes from a Slavic source. It is a curious fact, however, that this peculiarity is shared by three languages of the Balkan peninsula, and that we meet with it nowhere nearer than in Scandinavia, or the Caucasus. Even though the article in Rumanian, like that in French and the Romance languages, be traced to *ille*, and the Bulgarian *-to* to the Slavic demonstrative pronoun *tot*, still the habit, in common with the Albanian, of placing the article after the word, as a component part thereof, may well lead grammarians to see in this a relic of the early Dacian or Pelasgic language (call it by what name you will) which was once predominant in those parts.

Certain terminations and methods of forming derivative words betray a strong Slavic influence. But the Slavic influence has been exercised chiefly upon the vocabulary. Here we touch a subject with regard to which the Rumanians are curiously sensitive—their ethnology. They are most anxious to think themselves of Latin race, and consider any proof of foreign mixture as a disgrace. They prefer to be descended from the Roman legionaries—few of whom were of Latin blood—rather than from the most courageous of Dacians, or from the bravest Slavs, or other barbarians, who conquered the Roman mercenaries. To such an extent is this feeling carried, that Rumanian statesmen gravely interpret an article of their Constitution forbidding the colonization of the country "by populations of foreign race," as allowing colonization by Italians, French, Portuguese, and Spaniards. With regard to the composition of the language, we must cite Cihac, the only writer who has thoroughly studied it. We know that Cihac is discredited by Rumanians of the Latin school, but personal experience has convinced us of the justness of his views. (Perhaps the reviewer may be allowed to confess here that he has no Slavic blood, much Platt-Deutsch, and a little trace of French and Indian blood, of which he is very proud.) According to Cihac, then, who has written the best dictionary of Rumanian, the vocabulary is composed one-fifth of Latin words, two-fifths of Slavic words, and the remaining two-fifths of

* With a population of nearly 5,400,000 there were under instruction in all the schools and universities 103,397 in 1876, and 182 584 in 1881. There were in 1881, besides the two universities, 2,526 primary schools, and 309 of various grades.

words derived from the Turkish, modern Greek, Magyar, and Albanian. The Slavic form is seen in a great number of suffixes, used also for non-Slavic words, in family names, as well as names of places, which are more than half Slavic (though it is to be noticed as a peculiarity of Rumania, different from all Slavic and most Latin countries, that there is scarcely a single village named after a saint); in the names given to flowers; in the language, the subject, and the form of popular poetry; in numerous feasts and superstitions. Notwithstanding the great Greek clerical influence in Rumania, it is curious that the terms of the Church, principally Greek, have for the most part come through the Slavic. Some slight distinction should be made between the vocabulary of Rumania proper; that of Bessarabia, which has been submitted to Russian influence; and that of Transylvania and the Banate, which have for many hundred years been under Magyar and German rule. The general result is the same.

Even in finding fault with extreme views of all kinds, we must take into consideration that the Rumanians were for centuries enslaved to Slavs, Magyars, and Turks, and that it is but natural that they should prefer the claim of belonging to a higher race and civilization—the Latin. This, however, has brought the Academy into what we can but think a great error. An effort has been made of recent years to expel all the non-Latin words from the language, and to put in their places Latin, Italian, and French words. Similar efforts are made among all rising peoples, as, for example, Greeks, Hungarians, and Finns, with perhaps more reason. But to us English-speaking people, who prize our own language and its composite origin, the policy of the Rumanian Academicians appears a seriously mistaken one. Their mixed tongue, with its differences of accent, seems to us now the most euphonious of Latin languages, even superior to Spanish, and one which it would be a crime to spoil. Fortunately the good sense of the people is superior to that of the grammarians and Academicians, and already the reaction is beginning to be visible. Let us hope that Young Rumania will reject a mere Latin-French jargon, and preserve a tongue which, next, perhaps, to English, lends itself best to eloquence and poetry.

CODIFICATION IN NEW YORK.

The Proposed Codification of our Common Law. A paper prepared at the request of the Committee of the Bar Association of the city of New York, appointed to oppose the measure. By James C. Carter, a member of the Committee. New York, 1884.

THE revival of the agitation for a code in this State has had at least one very good effect—it has caused some of the ablest lawyers in the country to examine the whole question of codification anew in the light cast upon it by the research and discussion of the last twenty years. Among them, no one has brought to the work more ability and fairness than Mr. Carter, whose standing as a lawyer, it need hardly be said, is of the highest. He appears as a member of a committee professedly hostile to the Code proposed for adoption at Albany; but it is well known to many of our readers that the Bar Association of this city had no original bias against codification in general, or this code in particular, but was driven into hostility to it by the discovery of the real character of its contents, brought out by close and impartial study. Mr. Carter's opinion is properly to be considered not that of an advocate, but of an extremely competent judge, and it is one entitled to very great weight. It is not, of course, decisive, nor does he put it forward as such; but it ranks with any of the ablest English judicial opinions on codification which have been brought out by the recent discussions in Great Britain.

Mr. Field, we believe, still maintains that the Legislature of this State is under a positive obligation arising out of the history of codification to adopt his code in some form; and if this is true the field of discussion is very narrow. But the idea that the Legislature in 1884 is obliged to codify because the State twenty years ago authorized a commission to draft and report a code, appears to have no solid foundation whatever. That a civilized State should have irrevocably pledged itself to codify, even if codification were proved by experience to be a work requiring generations for its execution, is conceivable; but it is too much to ask us to believe that it pledged itself to codify, if codification should be shown by experience to be impracticable or unwise.

The battle, therefore, rages really over two points—first, the question whether the proposed code is a good piece of work of its kind, and, second, whether the work can be done at all. Mr. Carter's pamphlet is an important contribution to the solution of both these points. To follow his own order of treatment, it is important for any one who wishes to get a full understanding of the controversy to remember that, since Bentham's time, the whole drift of the discussion about codification has taken a new turn. Bentham discussed it in a wholly abstract way. Can the law be codified? Bentham said that it could, because the principle governing the decision of a case by a judge could be written down in a brief form. If the rule of decision can be extracted from one, it can be from a hundred cases, and in this way we get a rule of law which we can put in the form of a statute. By getting together all the rules of law out of all the cases and throwing them into the form of a statute, we get a code. Nothing can be simpler. We pass statutes every day. Why not a code?

Since Bentham's time, however, the analytic, abstract method of considering such questions has been shown to be incomplete. Before we give an answer we must look at the matter in an historical aspect. We must ask what a code has been in the past: whether our law develops itself in a way which makes the reappearance of such bodies of law as in other nations are called codes likely or desirable, and above all what effects, judging by the past, the adoption of a code will produce. It was always assumed by the early school of codifiers that a code would necessarily produce certainty and uniformity in the law, chiefly because they confined their attention to the work regarded as a collection of rules of law, and wholly neglected to inquire what effects the past history of the law made it probable that the codification of such rules would entail. All this is rather implied than stated in Mr. Carter's book, but it should be constantly borne in mind in considering what he says.

Mr. Carter contends that the great body of private law—that relating to contracts, the domestic relations of parents and child, husband and wife, that which governs the transactions of business, and the exchange of commodities—cannot be codified, while he admits that the public law (that relating to the State, and the connection of the citizen with the State) may. The penal law (which is in the main statutory) he also lays aside as confessedly codifiable. This law, and the law of procedure, indeed, in this State have been thrown into the form of codes already. But the great body of what lawyers call case-law, or what Bentham calls judge-made law, he says cannot be put into the form of a code so that it will, if created to-day, represent accurately and finally and certainly what the law is.

The reason for believing this to be a true view of the matter is in large part historical. In a few words, it may be said to be that the countries in which codes have been resorted to, are governed by a system of law in which the administration of justice by magistrates independent of the sovereign is unknown. All the modern Continental codes are based upon the Roman law, and in Rome law was something defined and imposed upon the people by a sovereign. May we not indeed go further than this, and suggest that codification is in great measure a survival of primitive law? The Twelve Tables, the laws of Manu, large portions of the Old Testament and the Koran are codes; but it would be felt to be absurd to cite any of these as reasons for adopting the proposed civil code at Albany. Yet in some respects it may be shown that the Code Napoléon or the Prussian Code resembles these very closely, and that an argument founded upon the success of codifiers in France and Prussia is equally irrelevant here. In neither France nor Prussia, nor in any country governed by the Roman law, is the judiciary independent of the executive. The French or Prussian judge declares the law as he finds it in the code; he administers the code as the expression of the will of the supreme power, and has never attempted to develop the law for himself, in our sense of the word. This, however, is precisely what the Anglo-Saxon judge has done. In his hands the function of administering justice has been wrested from the executive, and vested in a separate branch of the Government, which recognizes no superior but justice itself. Executive interference with the judiciary has, in England and in this country, long been unknown. With us even the Legislature is cut off at many points from trenching upon it, by constitutional provisions guaranteeing the sanctity of contracts, of property, of life, and liberty. The Anglo-Saxon judiciary has intrenched itself behind a principle which, if not unknown, is certainly strangely unimportant in Continental jurisprudence—that of *stare decisis*—the principle that makes the decision of every generation of judges binding upon its successors, and which yet permits the growth and development of the law by confining every rule to the identical facts to which it was originally applied.

Such has been the progress of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence in England and the United States for three centuries. What a code, if successful, must do, is to bring this progress to an end, and to reverse the law of its development. The judge must become the creature of the code; he must not look beyond its letter, into the immutable principles of justice and right, or the customs of men out of which all rules of law grow, but he must obediently apply the written rule as he finds it. Could this be accomplished, a code could be introduced at once. Yet it is so obviously impracticable that no one has ever dared to propose it. The proposal involves the idea of a return to a primitive conception of law and justice hitherto universally recognized as inferior to our own.

But it may be said, Why does not all this apply in a modified form to legislation? The Legislature is continually altering and amending the law. Why should it not also codify it? The answer is first that when sudden and drastic changes of the law are proved by experience to be necessary, it is impossible to await the slow process of its growth and amelioration in the courts. There must be somewhere a power to change the law rapidly, and we vest it in the Legislature. But this is a wholly different matter from codification. In codifying we transfer to the Legislature the work that for ages the judges have

performed—that of declaring, while engaged in the administration of justice, exactly what the law is. So far have we exalted this function in the United States that we have enabled a judge to nullify an act of the Legislature, simply because he conceives it to be in conflict with the principles of justice which we make permanent as constitutional law. It is indeed our constitutions which are our true codes, and which contain the only rules that we deem worthy to be made eternal, immutable, and irreversible. And what are they? That nothing shall impair the obligation of a legally binding promise; that the humblest and even the worst man shall be protected against the mightiest and the best in his life, his property, and his liberty; that there may be tribunals on earth in which neither favor, nor interest, nor wealth, nor strength counts in the scales. And there have been courts and there are courts, where this great ideal of our race is actually realized.

If this view of the subject is correct, it puts the whole dispute as to codification in a new light, and moreover it accords with the view that most of us have been taught by experience to take of the whole relation of the Legislature to the judiciary. The nearest approach to codification that we can make is to give the body of private law temporarily the form of a statute. Upon this statute will immediately accumulate the same gloss of judicial interpretation and exposition that all other statutes suffer, with the additional defect that we have made possible in every case a dispute about the meaning of an arrangement of words, as well as a dispute as to the proper application of principles. Every lawyer knows that no statute is ever administered in a court of justice in this country without a careful examination by the judges, first, as to what the law was before the statute was passed; second, what effect the statute was intended to produce; and third, what effect it has produced. If we make all law statutory, we make all this inquiry necessary in every class of cases, where now it is necessary only in a few; and as it is confessedly impossible to make a perfect code at one stroke, the Legislature would be perpetually at work amending and altering it. This is precisely what has happened in the case of the code of procedure, a subject generally admitted to be easier to codify than any other. Codification has merely rendered a lawsuit possible over every point which was formerly a matter of "practice," to be learnt by familiarity with the rules of court.

What is there in such a prospect to attract any sensible man, or make him think that codification will make the law simple, certain, and intelligible? Our judges may not be perfect, but they are better than our Legislatures, and the transfer of the function of declaring what the law is, from one to the other, must practically be expected to have still worse results than if the assumption (always underlying the argument of the codifier) that the Legislature can be trusted to do the work well, were true. But it cannot, and here the character of Mr. Field's code greatly reinforces the abstract argument. This body of law, which is the result, on his own showing, of a twenty years' experiment by the State, is neither a complete code, nor a coherent code, nor an intelligible code, nor a code which states the law as it is. The examination of its provisions made by Mr. Carter and his associates has resulted in showing that it is so bad a piece of work that it could lead only to enormous confusion in the best settled branches of law. A doubt about codification is a serious matter; what are we to say of the certainty of its being a failure? When Mr. Field began his work there was a general hope that he would succeed. His failure to produce a respectable piece of codification may not be conclusive as to codification in general, but, taken in connection with the total change in the modern way of looking at the whole subject, it is enough.

History of Prussia to the Accession of Frederick the Great, 1134–1740. By Herbert Tuttle, Professor in Cornell University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THE task which Professor Tuttle has here undertaken is a very difficult one, and one which, perhaps on account of its difficulties, has never before engaged the serious attention of any English or American scholar; though surely there could be no more worthy occupation for the ablest historical pen than a description of the growth of that political system which came prominently into notice in the time of Frederick the Great, and again so astonished the world in the second half of our own century. Our author's purpose is briefly but clearly expressed in the preface. He has attempted, not to give a narrative of events, but to describe the political development of Prussia from the earliest times down to the death of the second King. This has led him to make somewhat minute researches into the early institutions of Brandenburg, and accordingly, as he says, "the development of the Constitution has received more attention than wars or treaties, than dynastic intrigues or territorial conquests." The reader, therefore, may as well be warned that the book holds out very few allurements to those who "need to be tempted to the pursuit of knowledge." The great questions which go to determine a nation's policy and a nation's growth are often very subtle in their nature, and are seldom very interesting in their details; and hence it follows that the author of a work of this kind, who holds steadily to his purpose, inevitably runs the risk of producing what will popularly be called a dry book. Indeed, Professor Tuttle has so rigorously excluded all but the most essential facts, that when he seems compelled to enter into interesting details, he actually forces himself into an attitude of explanation or apology.

He begins with a chapter on Primitive and Mediæval Brandenburg, and follows this with a description of early society and institutions. To this, again, succeeds an account of the chaotic condition which prevailed in Germany during the seventeenth century, and of the way in which, on the election of Sigismund to the imperial throne, Brandenburg passed to the House of Hohenzollern. The overthrow of the Diet, and the virtual establishment of absolutism under the Great Elector, the weak foreign and domestic policies of Frederick I., and the final organization of the government under the eccentric Frederick William I., are the subjects which occupy a greater portion of the volume. Throughout, the design has evidently been not to bring new facts to light so much as to show the significance of such facts as are already well established. Professor Tuttle has not generally made use of original sources, but he has constantly availed himself of the ample materials which for years the scholarship and the industry of Germany have been bringing together. The general reader will probably find the first chapter the least interesting; but if his intelligence is sufficiently robust, and his interest sufficiently scholarly, to carry him through the remainder, he will certainly be rewarded by finding that, with perhaps the exception of the chapter on the Foreign Relations of Frederick William I., the work steadily improves from beginning to end.

The history of the development of Prussian institutions naturally and logically divides itself into three parts: the period of early and independent local institutions, the period of chaotic struggle between these institutions and the feudal chieftains, and the period of the triumph and the exercise of absolutism. Now, looked at from the point of view of the welfare of the people, what was the fundamental peculiarity of this succession of struggles? The first answer is that the early institutions, however promising in themselves, were so feeble in their character that when they came into contact with the methods of feudalism they were utterly powerless to preserve and protect the rights of individuals. A period of chaos ensued, in which there was a constantly increasing accumulation of power in the hands of petty nobles. But chaos always does and always must come to an end, and it invariably yields to the strongest force in the state. The elements of the contest in Brandenburg and Prussia were not essentially different from those of similar struggles that were going on elsewhere in Germany and in other parts of Europe. Wherever local institutions had been established, the struggle was a triangular contest between those institutions, the several orders of nobility, and the head of the state. This struggle, though essentially the same in its fundamental characteristics, terminated in various ways, in regard to which it is enough for our purpose to say that the interests of the people were best subserved in those nations where the King was triumphant, and where, by virtue of his triumph, he drove the nobility and the people into a defensive alliance. The typical example of this result was in England. But the issue in Prussia, though coming at a much later period, differed little. The problem, from the accession of the Great Elector to the death of Frederick the Great, was in its fundamental characteristics not very unlike that which confronted the Norman kings. Was the King or were the nobles to be the dominant power of the state? In England, the triumph of absolutism under the Conqueror and his successors was long regarded as a political misfortune; but it is now almost universally admitted that it was the Conquest which established the nationality, and drove the nobility and people into that sympathetic alliance which produced the Great Charter and the House of Commons. So in the case of Prussia, the establishment of absolutism has resulted in a similar combination, and political relations are shaping themselves in Germany during the present century very much as they shaped themselves in England four hundred years ago.

To this analogy the objection may be raised that Brandenburg passed through all that experience in the thirteenth century, and that it was only the rapacity of the Electors that prevented at that time a development of those institutions which are just now beginning to take shape. Did not Brandenburg already have parliamentary institutions, and did not the people already have a Great Charter? True, but it must not be forgotten that they were powerless to accomplish their work. Probably the institutions of England would have been equally powerless but for the necessities of English Kings in carrying on their Continental wars. At all events, it is certain that in Germany the Diets were helpless to protect the people; and it was because of this weakness that they passed out of existence, not only in Brandenburg but in every one of the other German States. And we believe that every scholar who has noted the way in which the Diets were made up, and the way in which their business was carried on, will hesitate long before deciding that their fall was any misfortune to the people. The real question

in the struggle was, Where is the chief power of the state to be, in the hands of the King or in the hands of the nobles? And when this was the issue, it was doubtless for the good of the land that the King should triumph, for the simple reason that, taken at its best or at its worst, the absolutism of a single monarch is preferable to the anarchy of a horde of nobles.

We have left no space in which to examine the details of the present volume, which we commend to the thoughtful attention of our readers. We trust it is but a forerunner of other volumes which will give us an account of the large remaining portion of Prussian history.

Marie Antoinette. By Sarah Tytler. [The New Plutarch.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883. 12mo, pp. 234.

Miss Tytler's life of Marie Antoinette has all the merits which one seeks in a short biography, and we have no doubt that it will be accepted as the most satisfactory sketch of its subject. Her aim is biographical rather than historical, and the reader receives from her a vivid impression of the charm of personality and the innocent life of the Queen. At the same time the book could not help being largely historical, and the historical chapters are graphic and instructive. What we miss, in the truthful and sympathetic sketch of the Queen's character, is a distinct appreciation of her influence on the history of the time. No one nowadays would repeat, or even incline to believe, the slanders that were current against her at the time, nor to make her directly responsible for the misgovernment which caused the Revolution. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that her public influence, such as it was, was not good. If the greatest misfortune of the time was a King who did not know how to govern, it was no small evil that there was a Queen who had no comprehension either of the nation over which she was placed, or of the circumstances and forces which surrounded her. Her husband would have made an excellent locksmith; she would have been a charming and blameless duchess. Neither of them was suited to a throne in troublous times.

Electricity, Magnetism, and Electric Telegraphy: A Practical Guide and Hand-Book of General Information for Electrical Students, Operators, and Inspectors. By Thomas D. Lockwood. D. Van Nostrand.

Mr. Lockwood is already favorably known by his 'Practical Information for Telephonists,' which has had an extensive sale. His present work is especially prepared for the benefit of the large class of persons who are practically employed in connection with the telegraph, the telephone, the electric light, etc. The author's design is to aid those "self-helpers" who desire to obtain a knowledge of the science of electricity, but who have not had, and are unable to obtain, the advantages of a collegiate or other institutional training. This is admirably carried out, and besides being useful to the class for whom it is especially prepared, the work will be found interesting to the general reader, because of the simplicity and directness of the author's style and his symmetrical arrangement of his topics.

The earlier chapters of the book are elementary, treating concisely and clearly of frictional, voltaic, and thermal electricity; the phenomena of earth currents, magnetism, and electromagnetism. Then follows a statement of the theory and construction of magneto and dynamo-electric generators; a chapter on induction-coils and condensers; a chapter of definitions of electrical terms; and a chapter on electrical measurements, which is especially noteworthy, because the author, while making the subject clear, has abstained from the use of algebraic formulæ. The remaining chapters, rather more than one-half of the book, are devoted to descriptions of the various practical applications of electricity, and are followed by a copious and well-arranged index. The superior mechanical execution of the book—its large, clear type, fine paper, and numerous well-executed illustrations—contributes greatly to the comfort and pleasure of its readers.

The Silverado Squatters. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Many readers have doubtless already found much enjoyment in Mr. Stevenson's entertaining sketches of California scenery and life, which were printed not long since in the *Century*, under the title of "The Silverado Squatters," and are now collected in a volume. Silverado is the name of an abandoned mining camp, well up on the slope of Mount Saint Helena, about a day's ride from Calistoga, in California. The squatters were the author, his wife, and son, who, apparently wandering in quest of some secluded spot where they might enjoy a quiet out-door life, drifted in this direction, and took possession of the deserted and dilapidated house which had formerly been the assay office and dwelling-place of the manager and men who once worked the now idle mine. The noise of the workmen had given place to silence, and not a soul remained to care for the wreck. The squatters had few neighbors, and none near by; and they spent in the quiet enjoyment of nature, or of their available resources in art and literature, whatever time the cares of living left at their disposal. There is but little told in the way of a story. The chapters are a series of sketches; but whether the author chooses for his subject the aspects of nature or the study of his fellow-men and women, who chance for the time to be his associates, he shows the observing eye and graceful touch of an artist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brackenbury, Col. C. B. Frederick the Great. New Plutarch series. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Cotterill, Bishop H. Revealed Religion Expounded by its Relations to the Moral Being of God. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Litchfield, Grace D. Only an Incident: a Story. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

The Hanging Committee of the Water-Color Society have shown a large sense of the function of decoration in the arrangement of the collection of drawings and the ornamentation of the rooms of the Academy, and, perhaps, while increasing the strength of the *ensemble*, have diminished the purely pictorial power of the separate contributions. What with tapestries and decorations, the studied harmony of the arrangement which subordinates each drawing to a general effect, and the persistent character of so much of the work—a character not so individual as one might desire, but still not so peculiar in its general tendency as to merit the distinction of a school—it is hard to form a rapid general judgment on the exhibition. There is a first impression of cleverness and good technical qualities which on closer analysis is not sustained by the generality of the drawings, which are, in by far too large a proportion, only technically noteworthy. Nor is the general technical merit of that higher kind which shows severe and long training, but that which is the result of facility rather than certainty of hand: clever washing of color, rapid and fresh approximation to really good work rather than complete rendering of what is aimed at, a careless and haphazard hitting at effects without the attempt to remedy, seriously and patiently, the shortcomings of the first work. One is at first surprised at seeing so much rapid and effective work, but finally discovers that it is a *parti pris* to do as much as can be done with facility and an appearance of masterly directness, and then leave the drawing for what it is worth. Out of nearly seven hundred drawings there are not above one hundred and fifty which show signs of really earnest grappling with the difficulties of the material, and the determination to do the artist's very best. And yet the greater part of the exhibitors are scarcely beyond the position of students of the elements of art. There are by far too many drawings here whose object was attained with the quality of a wash and the indication of a broad and artistic effect—indolent trifling with a fascinating material, and at best only portfolio successes: studies of in-doors or out-doors to be kept in the studio for aid and suggestion in more serious and persistent work. This trifling is not art, it is not even study; it is the vagabondage of natures which enjoy the unrestraint of artist life—its more impulsive and emotional side—and shirk the severe discipline and long technical training by which alone the doing of good work is possible even to the most seriously disposed and greatest painter. These emulations of the broad and masterly treatment of the great painters, without any of the certainty of hand and security of method which the great painters had, are simply a waste of life and labor. The man who cannot do the simple, labored, and student-like work which seems to be avoided as confession of weakness, will never do great work. The short cuts to greatness do not exist in art any more than in science, and the most fertile and artistic nature, without the severe application which alone can give certainty of method or result, wastes itself in the vagabondage of impressionalism. An artist whose technical success is his best claim to notice, is certain to end by losing all his hold on general appreciation.

This must be our general criticism on the larger part of the drawings exhibited, and which could only be particularized in identical terms—fresh, bright quality of color, good indication of pictorial effect, but no drawing and no serious attempt to realize the finer traits of the subject; the more trivial technical qualities well developed, the higher utterly wanting. This is a discouraging diagnosis for a young school, but the malady is there, and the fault is not with the critic. It is no more conclusive to say that the Hanging Committee should not have accepted the mass of trivial and inconsequent things that are hung, for the artists thought them fit subjects of criticism or they would not have sent them. And it may be said once for all that accepting water-color as a branch of painting simply because it is more agreeable when half, or ill, completed, is preaccepted failure. The medium has great advantage for the modern vein of art—it is, on the whole, easier than oil and less liable to alteration by time or the effect of light and darkness, and it lends itself to the diminished scale of execution which is fitter for modern collectors than the large scale which is generally necessary to give freedom to the painters in oils, while the qualities of color which mark the true colorist are far more readily attained in water than in oil. These are reasons which ought to weigh both with the artists and the public, but which are of no value unless the painter finds the method worthy of as serious application as his patience and capacities will permit. It is a trap to desultory and insincere painters.

There are two distinct aims which the use of water-color permits and which in their separate way are admissible as legitimate objects of the most sincere study, viz.: the quality of freshness and reality which is only to be got by conscientious work from nature, carried to the extreme of the artist's ability; and the study of harmony of line, mass, and color which constitute the qualities of art, and in the pursuit of which the too close attention to nature is an embarrassment, and, more or less, a cause of failure. The latter aim is that pursued by most of the great water-colorists of the English school, and in our water-color exhibition there are some successful followers of its traditions. The drawings of Messrs. H. Farrer, S. Colman, and W. T. Richards are, in the main, completely successful realizations of this motive. The Nos. 156 and 359 of Mr. Farrer are admirable examples of the traditions of the orthodox water-color school of England, of which Copley Fielding and Barrett were the early masters—strong in effect of color, with a purely transparent method, and deep, quiet, golden-gray tones in entire harmony; good tonality without any attempt at range in color-harmony, but the most complete attainment of the self-imposed limitation of the artist's form of art. The No. 156 has a peculiar tenderness and subtlety in the rendering of the local color of the middle distance against the twilight sky; and though the foreground is not well selected in reference to the lines of the picture, it is in excellent keeping, and the shimmering reflections in the pool are well rendered. The sky in 359 is a glorious golden, cirrus-filled sunset, composed with great feeling, and glowing like a sunset of Copley Fielding's. The foreground again is the weakest point, and seems to be chosen for its difficulty, but there is no success in meeting it. The painting of a common highway with no object to break its absolute uniformity, the converging lines of rut and road filling the entire breadth of the foreground, is not an inviting task, and Mr. Farrer has only done with it what any one could have done. Mr. Richards's No. 355—"Limits of the Unresting Sea"—an open beach with the open sea coming in with a dull, monotonous surf, running up the flat sands, and a gray aerial sky, without incident of cloud or sun, is certainly as commonplace in choice of subject as anything can be, and bears the marks of being a favorite theme and effect, but is rendered with a painstaking and subtle feeling for tone and quality of air and space, a delicacy of gradation from one edge to the other, which is rare and admirable. Of Mr. Colman's work there are several types. The Moorish architectural subject, No. 461, gives the greatest range of his pictorial power, but No. 312 is the more powerful in sentiment and freest from a certain painful tendency to blues which injures some of his drawings greatly.

The distinction between naturalistic and artistic ideals which is so easy in landscape—where at need the artistic ideal sacrifices any and every particular fact to bring out "the light that never was, on sea or land"—becomes almost theoretical in application to figure painting, and not at all easy to draw. It does, however, exist, and of the representative pictures in the exhibition of one or the other class, the "Companions," No. 28, by A. M. Turner, and No. 45, "His First Business Venture," by T. W. Wood, will best serve to illustrate it—both strong and in their kind excellent works. The drawing by Mr. Wood is a skilful and honestly painted realistic study, brilliant in local color, well drawn, carefully modelled, and as method of painting most judicious and solid. All absolutely realistic artists, however, stand in danger of missing some of the greater qualities of realism, and becoming what we might call actualistic. The larger realism embraces the *ensemble* in all its relations, and of these the influence of position on the subject of the picture is one of the chief. To put this in terms no one can misunderstand, we may say, for instance, that the most strongly realistic figure painted in sunlight and posed in a twilight landscape would be an incongruity which no one with an eye would fail to detect, though similar violations of reality in realistic work often pass unnoticed. This brilliant study of Mr. Wood's, for instance, strikes us as painted in a concentrated studio light, while the background indicates an out-door pose. But the out-door light is broad and "all-around"—it flattens the modelling, and grays all local color, and the figure or figures are part of the general scheme of color and light and shade, in which no "bit" of local color can separate itself from the general harmony. In this respect Meissonier shows himself a true master in all those secondary qualities of realism which come into the superficial conception of the subject. This unity Mr. Wood's picture misses—the figure is painted in a light which it does not stand in, as indicated by the accessories. Now Mr. Turner's subject, conceived in a poetic relation, is consistent throughout. It is not realistic—its color is distinctly due to the painter's feeling, and the scheme is far from that which a bit of severely actual color would have made necessary; but it is entirely harmonious in color, solemn, and in complete accord with the meditative character of the subject. It is most distinctly a work in the higher vein of art.

The "Pandora" of Mr. Church is a brilliant fantasy in decorative art, with a vein of playful imagination which wilfully sends consistency with the myth or with material probabilities to the right-about. The Pandora is a slight, active slip of a girl, charged with a strong box like a bank safe, which, in her genuine fright at having disobediently opened, she has shut, and, vaulting on the lid, seeks to compress the struggling imps within to their original prison quarters, while her eyes, dismayed, follow the interminable wreath of escaped woes which is melting into the empyrean. It is not the Greek Pandora myth, but a variation on it, whose entire consistency with itself is justification enough for its creation. The method is not one to develop the high qualities of color as they may be rendered in water color, and the artist's choice of it probably indicates his comparative indifference to that side of art. On this point, certainly, we can say *de gustibus*, etc., for no painter can be expected to be true to another standard than his own. The two decorative drawings by Mr. Weldon—"Flirtation" and "The Elopement"—deal with doll life in a whimsical vein, and are so good in their way that they hardly become amenable to the strict criticism which awaits more serious work. A Japanese doll, fallen victim, like beings with brains, to contiguity, contrives an attachment to a pretty Parisian *poupée*, and flirts in a wooden way in one tableau; and in the other bears his doll-love away into the doll heaven, with the aid of a few India-rubber balloons. The execution is facile and sufficient for its purpose: more realism would perhaps be out of place in the generally decorative plan. Mr. Dielman's "Between Sittings," No. 316, is good drawing and satisfactory color. The subject is perhaps commonplace enough to make something more thorough in the treatment desirable, but, on the whole, there is a more than usual balance of good qualities. Still, work of this kind, which is in the vein of *pose plastique*, distinctly realistic, and presenting no difficulties in realization to the last degree, ought to be carried further than this is, or than anything in this vein in the exhibition. The drawing called "Greta," No. 394, by Thulstrup, is perhaps, on the whole, as good an *ensemble* of the good qualities of water color as we could hope to see, and certainly for tone, quality of color, and strength of general effect, it has nothing to ask of oils. The broad effect of the low-toned, blue-gray snow under the yellow break of sky, and the purity and brilliancy of the flesh color in the girl's face, coming as shadow against the same break of light, may be pointed out as technical successes of a high grade; while the action of the girl as she comes swinging down the path in her Sunday gown, solid on her feet and sure of herself, is in the best vein of figure drawing.

Of landscape in the realistic vein there are some remarkable studies by Mr. H. P. Smith. "A New England Village," No. 56, is an elaborate and very exact study of a familiar subject, the typical New England houses buried in the foliage of their streets and gardens, curiously true to local color, but with all the houses distressingly out of perspective. The two smaller studies in the same vein, No. 253, "River Scene in England," and No. 416, "Summer on the River Loire, France," have the same quality of refined realism and more pictorial treatment, with the advantage of very picturesque material. The reflections in No. 253 are, however, entirely false. The success of Mr. Smith in these studies in giving the peculiar qualities of gray green which a broad sky illumination gives to masses of foliage, and in rendering the modulations of local color without the least of that exaggeration of local tint which is so tempting under the circumstances, makes these two little drawings very valuable lessons to our younger water-color painters who want to see how the best out-of-door qualities may be got without loss of freshness and purity of tint. Charles Harry Eaton contributes some excellent drawings sharing these good realistic qualities: silvery greens and well-balanced sunlight and shadow, with a good perception of the better qualities of pictorial landscape. Nos. 442 and 633 especially are successful transcripts of nature—solid in color and sincere in execution. "A Pack Train," by Hamilton Hamilton, has excellent qualities of color—the brilliant foliage of the large group of trees in shadow against a burst of sunlight in the distance showing a very true eye for color and a good method of execution. "The Harvest Field," No. 438, by the same painter, has some excellent qualities of character in the figures and of bright sunny color in the landscape, but lacks breadth, and fails in producing the forcible impression which, with the same materials, a larger method of treatment would have insured.

In realistic color, an admirable study of Harry Fenn, No. 304, "A Pennsylvania Bee Colony," is very vivid. The light on brilliant local color i rendered with an extreme felicity, and the pictorial treatment of the subject is delightful. Mr. George Smillie contributes two pleasant drawings, Nos. 1 and 455, and James Smillie, a roadside composition, No. 465, which to our mind would be improved in its general effect by cutting off three inches of the near foreground. "At Watermills," by Bricher, is a solid, effective drawing, the value of the foreground being ingeniously but honestly given. A "Winter Evening in New Jersey," by Mr. McCord, is a very successful rendering of a not easy effect: the snow in shadow of twilight, against a bright evening sky. Two drawings by the late A. F. Bellows well represent a genial, gentle artist in a vein of landscape in which he was entirely at home. Hardly to be classed with landscape, and yet with an excellent landscape surrounding, is

Leon Moran's "The Outpost, 1776," subtle in drawing and color: a young vidette on horseback, watching intently; horse and man well characterized, and with a picturesque setting in the old-time costume.

Several drawings by Mr. C. A. Platt show great executive ability, and an excellent *coup d'œil*, with keen feeling for color in the gray and mingled tints of old architecture and seacoast bits. "Bruges," No. 137, is particularly happy. Harry Chase's marine subjects have that bright "papery" quality so much beloved by one class of water-color painters, of whom the type was George Tripp, the English watercolorist of years gone by—the purity of tint got only by leaving the wash pretty much as the first intention realized it; and Arthur Quartley is, with more dash and less justice in his tones, "in the same boat." Mr. Monks, in some admirable sheep studies, makes his really good landscape surroundings quite accessory to studies of the woolly tribe which, in their knowledge of the animal, quite rival Jacque. No. 7, "Autumn Pasture," is full of promise as well as ability. Mr. Monks has clearly found his walk. F. Hopkinson Smith contributes several important drawings, most of them rapid studies from nature—if the canals of Venice may be classed with nature subjects—of which No. 51, a group of lighters in a canal of the sea-city, is to our mind the best, its water-painting giving with uncommon justice the interlacing reflections of the sails and sky with the local color of the water. The best of his drawings as a whole, however, we must consider his brook scene, No. 78. The quality one gets in out of-door work is all very well for study, and admirable oftentimes as nature, but, unless supplemented by in-door *labor limæ*, never reaches consummate art. Among the marines we must not neglect an excellent study of light on moving water in No. 55, "After the Shower," by Mr. Rehn, where the effect of the sunburst is very truly given. The shadow of the sail is not, however, true—it is not, as it ought to be, a mere interference with the reflection of the sun on the waves, but a shadow, and clear water takes no shadow.

In the corridor are hidden many drawings, of which scarcely any can be judged, from want of light. There is a large group of flower studies, of which most are little better than splashes of color, "Chrysanthemum," No. 499, being the only thoroughly studied drawing among them. A lover of flowers should feel something more in them than is seen in most of these studies—the delicacy, the subtlety of color, fragility, and something of the specific character. In the East Gallery hangs a noble flower piece, No. 248, "A Brimming Bowl," by Agnes D. Abbott, which merits the place apart given it. It has the double excellence of happy arrangement and sincere and skilful rendering of the best qualities of the flowers, with thoroughly good painting.

We have inadvertently passed over the marines of Mr. Edward Moran, which are as far as they go thoroughly good (but more is in the sea than he has yet caught out of it), and the "White Study" of Ross Turner, No. 278—a weird and effective, if slight, record of a picturesque moment in modern Venice invaded by steam.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 21, 1884.

The Week.

THE story of the Berlin correspondent of the London *Times*, that Prince Bismarck had returned the Congressional resolution of condolence over Herr Lasker's death, has been confirmed. Bismarck is not a well-mannered man, but we believe it will be found on examination that he never hitherto has publicly insulted anybody gratuitously or without an object. He has made much use of publicly insulting language in his remarkable career, but always when he wished either to drive somebody out of office, or produce a diplomatic complication. If Lasker were still living and a power, however small, in German politics, we should be quite prepared to see Bismarck insult or snub even the American Congress, if he wished to discredit him, or express his contempt for him. But Lasker is dead, and before he died had ceased to be formidable to the Government, and in fact was at the time of his death only the shadow of a great name—the wreck of a man who had played a part in German politics of which, as an intellectual feat simply, any German might be proud, and Bismarck is a very good German. Moreover, he knows enough of Congress to know how readily resolutions like these are voted, and how little acquaintance the bulk of the members possess with foreign politics, and, therefore, how unnecessary it is to take them in bad part. His present performance appears to be universally condemned both at home and abroad, and it remains thus far inexplicable. We are, it would appear, however, to have an explanation of it from himself, and must wait for that before discussing it more fully. It is reported that he bases his action on "high political principles," but, until he is heard from, the world will incline to the belief that it is based on sciatica, or some form of the indigestion from which his friends and admirers have heard with so much regret that he has of late been a sufferer.

There has been no material improvement in business during the past week, although symptoms of the usual stirrings of spring trade have been felt here and there. The floods in the Ohio Valley have caused enormous losses to the agricultural, manufacturing, and mining interests within sweep of the waters, although resulting in very little loss of life considering the magnitude of the calamity. The demand for iron, which is a fairly good index of the state of trade, is steady at the reduced output, but cannot be said to be increasing. It is probably safe to say that changes from this time forward must be for the better. The demand for cotton goods shows some slight improvement. The indications are that "hard pan" has been reached in this trade also. Business failures for the week are reported by Bradstreet at 243 in number, being 14 less than the previous week, and 22 more than the corresponding week of last year. It is noticeable, however, that the average liabilities to each failure are small, 82 per cent. being traders whose capital was under $5,000. Business at the Stock Exchange has been entirely under the control of "manipulators." This means that there has been no such thing as a market dependent upon supply and demand in the larger sense, but that prices have been marked up and down at the instance of the large speculators. Such market as there was might be denominated a bull market, but only in the sense that the bears appear to be willing to see a higher range of prices established before "getting on top of it" again. Sterling exchange advanced to the specie-shipping point one day, and remains close to that point now, but no gold has been actually exported—or none worth mentioning.

The bill under discussion in the Senate to amend the National Banking law so that circulating notes may be issued up to the par value of the bonds deposited, is an improvement on the existing law, which limits such circulation to 90 per cent. of the par value, yet it is doubtful whether this amendment will suffice to check the retirement of bank circulation as the 3 per cent. bonds are called in and redeemed. Further relief might easily be granted by repealing the tax on bank circulation in whole or in part, yet this is one of the things which Congressmen are unaccountably reluctant to do. While everybody is crying out for measures to lessen the public revenue, it is found in practice that there is no place to begin. You must not touch the tariff, because the interests of protected manufacturers, or wool growers, or copper miners, or sugar planters, or wood choppers will suffer. You must not reduce the bank tax, because the "note shavers" will gain by it. You must not reduce the tax on whiskey and tobacco, because they are articles of vice and luxury, and so on. The last is a perfectly valid reason for maintaining existing taxes, and because it is so there is all the more reason for getting rid of superfluous duties and imposts on other things. The tax on bank circulation is absolutely needless for purposes of revenue, and while it is proper and just to retain it if the banks derive undue profits from their circulation—while it would be proper to retain it under such conditions even if the Government needed no revenue—yet, with the prospect before us of a bank contraction equal to $60,000,000 per year, it seems quite unaccountable that Congressmen should be so opposed to any diminution of the tax.

Senator Hawley says the Republican Executive Congressional Committee is thoroughly determined to live up to the letter of the Civil Service law, which forbids anybody in the pay of the Government to receive or solicit money or contributions for political purposes. He thinks it would be well also to have State Committees so constituted as not to include office-holders. We trust that these intentions will be strictly carried out. If they are, we have not the least doubt that the gain in moral force to the Republican Presidential ticket will fully equal whatever loss may be sustained through the absence of the campaign funds which have hitherto been wrung mainly from the office-holders. Nothing is clearer than that the usefulness of large campaign funds has been greatly overestimated. In the campaign in this State last November there were no efforts to collect such a fund by the usual assessment methods, and there were many sarcastic comments by the Machine leaders on the excessive virtue of civil-service reformers "who were unwilling that the office-holders should contribute, but who refrained from giving anything themselves." To the great astonishment of these persons, the election showed such Republican gains that a Democratic majority of nearly 200,000 in the previous year was nearly obliterated. There had been no canvassing, few or no documents, and little money, yet the people had voted with unusual spirit and intelligence.

Mahone's last hope of regaining control in Virginia has been destroyed by the action of the Legislature in relation to the election machinery of the State. A bill has been passed over the Governor's veto which takes from the county judges the power of appointing election officers, and gives it to local boards which are to be selected by the Legislature. There is no requirement that the local boards shall select the officers from both political parties, so that the election will in all probability be entirely within the supervision of Democrats. The law goes into effect on April 1, and the Presidential election this year will therefore be held under it. Mahone's entire system, which in many respects was scarcely less partisan than this, has been abolished, and with it has gone all chance for him and his party to make a formidable show in the election. The State is probably more completely in the power of the Democrats than it was before Mahone appeared as a leader. His methods, instead of liberalizing public sentiment, have furnished seeming justification for the most extreme Bourbon hatred of Republican influences, and have thus made it easier than ever to enact laws which will perpetuate Bourbon control. The situation in the State is about as bad as it can be, and the only pleasant feature of it is that the Republicans of the country will be spared the spectacle of Mahone appearing at their National Convention with the electoral vote of Virginia, and offering it for sale to the highest bidder.

The Illinois Republican State Committee held a meeting in Chicago on Wednesday, and a canvass of its members revealed a strength for Logan which is hailed as an indication that he will "sweep Illinois like a hurricane." So many were found to be in his favor that it was claimed that he was sure to have thirty-five and possibly forty-one of the State's delegates to the National Convention. As there will be only forty-four delegates, this will be a handsome majority. Not many reasons were given for this flattering support, but the Senator's gallant fight against Fitz-John Porter was universally regarded as constituting an all-suffi-

cient issue. This canvass strikes us as giving the Logan boom a powerful impetus, and we shall be very much surprised if some demonstration is not made by Mr. Blaine's friends to counteract it. A fresh bulletin about the exact condition of the "historical work" at this moment, coupled with a declaration that Mr. Blaine will under no circumstances consent to be a candidate, because it would break up his practice of going to bed at 9:30, would undoubtedly have a powerful effect.

The verdict of the *Proteus* Court of Inquiry places the blame for the bad management of the Greely Relief Expedition mainly upon General Hazen, of the Signal Service. The court is of the opinion that while he had the best intentions, "in many particulars, and in some of the gravest moment, he failed in an adequate comprehension of the necessities of the case, and of the measures and means essential to meet them." This coincides with the view of all impartial persons who have followed the developments of the inquiry. A more recklessly mismanaged expedition than this one was it would be difficult to conceive. It is to be hoped that in sending out the second one, as now proposed, General Hazen will be allowed to have nothing whatever to do with the arrangements. The court of inquiry, while blaming him, leniently exonerates him from "wilful neglect or intentional dereliction of duty," and, after mature deliberation, concludes that no further proceedings before a general court-martial are called for. The least punishment which can be accorded him is a refusal to allow him to have any official control over future expeditions.

Mr. Babb, an Iowa legislator, has forwarded us a copy of a joint resolution he has introduced in the Legislature of his State on the subject of divorce. It declares our present system one of "legalized polygamy," and adds that the trouble mainly grows out of the "diverse systems of procedure and causes of divorce" in the different States. Further, it declares reform by constitutional amendment to be impracticable, and that "the only practical method of procuring the desired uniformity of action on this subject, as well as on laws pertaining to mercantile paper, methods of conveyancing, and other subjects upon which such uniformity is so necessary to the good of the common whole, is by concert of action on the part of the several States and Territories themselves." Therefore, it directs the Governor of Iowa to call for a general convention of States and Territories (each to send two representatives), to be held at the capital of Iowa a year from next May, to take all these subjects into consideration, and to recommend suitable legislation to the various States.

When the convention meets, if it ever does meet, it will apparently, by the terms of the resolution, be precluded from recommending any constitutional amendment on the subject. We would suggest to Mr. Babb that this is unwise. The study of our institutions has no doubt made him familiar with the fact that even the Constitution of the United States was the result of a movement started by a convention of a few States, called to consider the necessity of a uniform commercial system; and that in those early days there were conservatives who dreaded, just as he does now, any change in the fundamental law. Yet it was found, as Bancroft and other historians have shown, that uniformity could not be obtained without a new Constitution. This was felt to be a dreadful step toward centralization, and yet we have survived it, and so it is possible that we might survive a change giving Congress the right to pass a uniform law, at least on the subject of marriage and divorce. Is it wise, we would ask Mr. Babb, in the light of history, absolutely to preclude his convention from considering whether a constitutional amendment would not be better than the plan of giving advice to State Legislatures?

Our Japanese contemporary, the *Jiyu Shimbun*, commenting on the treatment of the Chinese by the United States Government, quotes the suggestion of the *Nation* that the only way to make the law for their exclusion really efficacious is to "authorize the summary slaughter of all Chinamen found within the country after a certain date, and to offer a reward for the heads of all Chinamen caught after another still later date," and that "in no other way can our Christianity be saved from the debasing influence of these heathen." The *Jiyu Shimbun* is much shocked by this, and though "it does not believe that the Government will adopt such a plan, its being publicly urged strikes it with astonishment." Not satisfied with prohibiting the entry of the Mongolian race on their territory, the Americans, says our contemporary, "clamor for the expulsion of the Celestials by the most murderous measures." All this shows how necessary a knowledge of foreign manners is to the proper understanding of foreign figures of speech. The editor of the *Jiyu Shimbun*, without knowing how rare wholesale slaughter of foreigners was among us, could of course see nothing ironical in the suggestion that Chinamen found among us should be slaughtered. But he may have been reading accounts of "family feuds" in the Southern papers, and been thus prepared to consider "murderous measures" a favorite American solution of troubles of one sort or another.

Mr. Thomas's bill to prevent stock-watering was discussed in the State Senate on Thursday. We believe it passed the Senate last year, and it is a very stringent measure. It prevents the issue or sale of any part of the stock of any corporation "until the nominal (par) value . . . shall have been paid in money into such corporation." By another section every corporation is obliged to keep its share-list open to inspection by shareholders, the Attorney-General, in person or by proxy, or, in the case of railroads, by the Railway Commissioners. Any violation of the law is made punishable by fine and imprisonment. The second of the provisions seems a very good one, but the first is open to serious objection. In all legislation hitherto designed to prevent stock-watering the company has been allowed to represent, not only money, but money's worth, in the shape of plant, land, etc., by stock. However wicked it may be to water stock, no one has ever insisted before that everything except greenbacks or coin is water. "Water" does not mean everything not money, but merely fictitious value of any kind, as where a corporate stock is suddenly doubled in order to make it appear that the profits are half what they are really. There is probably not a single corporation in the State where the stock only represents "money."

The Half-Breeds in the Newman church, who have with them, we believe, five of the nine deacons, tried to hold a meeting in the church on Thursday night, but the Stalwarts were too smart for them, having had the doors locked with new locks. They then adjourned to a "hall," and formally dismissed Dr. Newman, and arranged for the calling of a Congregational Council. The Stalwarts formed a camp of observation in a neighboring private parlor, and had ice cream, while scouts brought in frequent reports of the Half-Breed doings, which were freely denounced and declared null and void. Both parties are evidently moving rapidly towards a law suit in the secular courts. Dr. Newman is still armed with that $100,000 legacy, but, as we understand the matter, the testator is still living, so that he can only hold it over the heads of the enemy as a remote terror. It would not be a bad plan for the Half-Breeds to meet this by getting some of their number to make a will too, and leave Dr. Ranney half a million or so for the church in case Dr. Newman was made to go.

The Rev. James Finch, A. M., has come to the rescue of the *Christian at Work* in its trouble about murder for revenge, with a little device which he calls "Goelism." "Goelism," he says, "is from the Hebrew goel, and it means the doctrine that the nearest relative of the person murdered has the right and that it is his duty to avenge his kinsman's death.'" Goelism in process of time, it appears, "merged into legalism"; that is, the duty of killing the murderers of relatives was transferred to the magistrate. Now listen to Mr. Finch in his own words, and remember that he is a Christian minister and an A. M.:

"Now the Mosaic legislation, which has the element of goelism in it, was, of course, in part, for a rude age. As soon as civilization had sufficiently advanced to admit of the administration of public justice through the forms of law, the primitive mode of administering justice by goelism would naturally be of less frequent occurrence. But the principle of administration in either case was, and is, the same, viz., the security of the person in his rights and possessions. The mere forms of law make nothing right; if right can be secured through them, it is well; but if not, the law of nature—the law of the common consciousness—declares that *rights may be secured even by a near kinsman's becoming a homicide*—a GOEL—an avenger of blood.

"Here is the proper ground for the justification of young Nutt. Cloudy as men may be with respect to their reasons, argue as they may with respect to the obligations of statute laws, probably ninety-nine out of a hundred justify the homicide. It is not that they are lawless men, nor that they favor lawlessness;

but the law having failed of its end, viz., the security of the individual and society, it is felt to be the right thing for the 'avenger of blood' to slay the monster of wickedness."

The richest thing in the foregoing is that a man of education should gravely assume that "Goelism" is an exclusively Jewish "doctrine," and should not know that it was and is the doctrine of all barbarous tribes, and that he should hold that it can, in our time in Christendom, be revived by anybody who thinks that in a particular case the courts have not done him justice. "Goelism" exists in Afghanistan to-day, in its original form. Afghan soldiers in the British army have been known to ask for furlough to go home to kill somebody who had slain a relative, as a solemn family duty. Nutt might just as well look for his justification in Cabul as in Jerusalem. We advised the *Christian at Work* some weeks ago to take a vacation. We venture to offer Mr. Finch, A.M., the same suggestion, in the hope that a little rest and refreshment will bring him saner notions of law and morality.

The sequel to the Conkling-Haverstick murder is very curious. Conkling, it will be remembered, murdered Haverstick because the two had a quarrel about the former's sister. The murderer was released on bail. His sister, who was the only witness to the shooting, could not be found, probably because she was not looked for. She has now died, and her character may be inferred from the fact that her husband, Mr. Uhler, was at first undecided whether to have her buried or not. A pastor, named Wedekind, was found to preach a funeral sermon over her, however, in the course of which he referred incidentally to "the brother," who, while he had "nobly endeavored to avenge his family," committed a crime which "can only be expiated through faith in the atoning blood of Jesus Christ." This latter statement happened to be perfectly true, though for a reason that the pastor forgot to mention—that the only witness to the crime is dead. Otherwise it might have been expiated, humanly speaking, with more efficiency, by incarceration or hanging. The idea of Conkling as a noble "avenger" is evidently deduced from the doctrine of "Goelism," though its appearance in a funeral sermon in a Christian church is rather alarming.

The difficulty in finding an editor for the London *Times* is an illustration of the seriousness of the change which the disappearance of the anonymous system has wrought in the conditions under which that journal is published. In the days when it made its fame, the editor was unknown outside the office, and his death was a matter of little consequence, and it might have run on for weeks or months without an editor-in-chief. Since Mr. Delane broke through the veil, and made the editor a personage known in society and at the clubs, the proprietors have to provide somebody of note, who will make a good figure in the editorial chair, whether he be a good editor or not. This, as they have found since Delane's death, is no easy matter, and it will probably become harder every year. Moreover, it is plainer every day that if the paper is to hold its own against the tremendous competition to which it is now exposed, the style of writing in it will have to undergo very serious changes. The conductors have stuck manfully for a century to the solemn, magniloquent, and diffuse manner of political discussion of which Junius set the model, but which constantly leads, in all but master hands, to vapidity and feebleness. To abandon it now, for the more incisive, condensed, and vigorous talk which the best editorial writing aims to be, will be no easy task, and will have to be superintended by a kind of man who is not to be had for advertising. If tried unsuccessfully, the consequence to the *Times* as property might be very disastrous. The paper probably suffers now more than anything else, however, from having in the background a feeble, pompous, and meddlesome proprietor, who wants to be made a peer.

General Gordon has begun the work of reform in the Sudan in characteristic fashion, but in a fashion which will put the English Conservatives in a very awkward position. He has become a hero with them since he started for Khartum, and they were making liberal use of him to denounce Gladstone. He ought, they said, to have been sent sooner, and it was horrible to send him now without an adequate force; but when they began saying this, they were under the impression that he was going up there to fight, and was not to make peace till the rebels were brought to their knees. This was the course they advocated after the checks received from the Boers in South Africa. They are probably, therefore, terribly disgusted now with Gordon's proclamation acknowledging the Mahdi's sovereignty, and with his general reinstatement of the native chiefs. This is, in fact, simply the execution of the ministerial policy from the beginning. The one thing for either England or Egypt to do in the Sudan is to give up all attempt to rule it, and take out of it the gang of Turks and Circassians who have been desolating it for some years. To the argument that this will lead to a revival of the slave trade, the answer is that, the attempt to hold the country having failed, the slave trade must be suppressed by other means than conquest. A more vigorous blockade of the Red Sea coast, and a better government of the territory around Khartum, which can be really held, will probably do the work. General Gordon's declaration that he has nothing now to say to the slave trade, undoubtedly means simply that it is no part of his present mission to deal with it. His work is simply to hand the country over to its rightful rulers, and get the Egyptian garrisons out of it.

Under these circumstances, there seems nothing left for the Tories but to turn to and denounce Gordon for sacrificing the honor of England. They cannot well accuse him of pusillanimity, but he certainly seems to be no more audacious in defence of England's honor than Gladstone himself. The mutiny of the Egyptian troops at Cairo gives a touch of the comic to an otherwise very tragic situation. It does not appear to amount to very much, but the pretence that they cannot serve under the British officers because these are aliens in race and religion, is very droll. The real reason they dislike them is probably that they expect Egyptians to fight, and propose taking them into places where they may be hurt or killed. Probably the best thing to do with the Egyptian army would be, as is suggested, to disband it. An army that will not fight is probably the most indefensible luxury a poor country can have.

The Mahdi, on his part, is doing little to justify the predictions of his admirers. He is obstinately slow in moving. Three months ago the *Sun* represented him as likely to make far-reaching conquests like those of the early Caliphs. The London *Spectator* promised on his behalf that by the beginning of January he would have set the whole Mussulman world in a flame, and that the French would be fighting for their lives along the whole North African coast. General Stone, who is very hostile to the English invaders of Egypt, has now arranged an advance on Lower Egypt for the Mahdi, by a "western route through the oases" (which it seems "the British, in their terror, have forgotten") northward to the Mediterranean coast region. In other words, he is to march a conquering army, which will be capable of driving European forces out of Egypt, across the Libyan desert on a route which barely supplies water for commercial caravans. One does not need to discuss such hypotheses, even when they come from as good an authority as General Stone. What prevents the Mahdi from leaving the Sudan is what prevents his enemies from getting at him in the Sudan—the difficulty of moving masses of men across the desert.

An "Anarchist" named Cyvoct, recently extradited from Belgium to France, has been condemned to death at Lyons. The treaty between the two countries provides that the offence for which punishment is inflicted must be criminal by the laws of both. Cyvoct had started his movement for the regeneration of mankind by indirectly blowing up a restaurant by "artifices and manœuvres or by instructions." For this, and for "assassination," he was indicted, assassination being a treaty crime, but the indirect explosion of restaurants not being anything of the sort. On the charge of assassination he escaped; on the other count he was found guilty. He appealed to the courts, but they have now decided that they have nothing to do with the matter—that extradition treaties are administrative acts, and prisoners cannot claim the benefit of them as a matter of right. Cyvoct will therefore be hung, unless the President of the Republic pardons him. The case illustrates in a striking way the difference between French and American law. Yet it is only a few years since the attempt was made in the courts in New York to set up this French doctrine, and to deprive prisoners of their right to a trial in accordance with the provisions of the treaty.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 13, to TUESDAY, February 19, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE *Proteus* Court of Inquiry, in its report, places the blame for the failure of the Greely Relief Expedition principally on the Chief Signal Officer, General Hazen, because he did not take the proper preliminary steps or give proper directions.

Secretary Chandler has selected Commander W. S. Schley to command the new Greely Relief Expedition. He is forty-four years of age, and has never been on the sick list since he entered the service in 1856.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday considered the Mississippi contested election case of Chalmers against Manning. Mr. Turner (Dem., Ga.), Chairman of the Committee on Elections, spoke in support of the majority report, which declared that on a prima-facie case neither of the contestants was entitled to the seat. Neither the majority nor minority report is signed, but Mr. Turner stated that ten of the members of the Committee were in favor of the former, while only five supported the latter. After several days' debate the majority report was adopted on Friday.

The House on Monday passed a bill fixing the postage on transient newspapers at one cent for four ounces.

There was an all-night session of the House, lasting from Monday night till Tuesday morning at nine o'clock. There was a deadlock, owing to the fact that the Republicans declined to vote on a motion to fix February 21st for the consideration of the bill to pension Mexican veterans and the survivors of some Indian wars. The Republicans felt themselves called upon to protest, by withholding their votes, against a bill which proposes not only to pension the veterans of the Mexican war, but any person who may have served no longer than thirty days in the Creek war or disturbances. The Republican theory was that the Democrats, if they desired to enter upon such legislation as that, must secure a quorum of their own number to do so. Mr. Hiscock made a severe speech arraigning the Democrats, which created great excitement. The latter finally secured a quorum, and passed the resolution.

In the House on Monday Mr. Harrison (Rep., Ind.) introduced a bill for the admission of the State of Dakota into the Union. It was referred to the Committee on Territories.

The investigation of the Danville, Va., election riots was begun in Washington by the Senate Sub Committee on Thursday. Several negroes testified as to the aggression of the whites and the shooting on that day. They also said that in consequence they had been intimidated from voting. The white witnesses testified generally as to the insolence of the negroes and their intention to put a stop to it. They made rather frank admissions as to their actions on the day of the riot. The hearing was continued on Friday, on Monday, and on Tuesday.

Absalom Koiner, a member of the Virginia Senate, submitted to that body on Monday a proposition asking Virginia's Congressmen "to bring to the attention of the National Government the propriety or the necessity of providing a territorial reservation for the exclusive use and local government of such of the negro race of the United States as may prefer negro population and local negro government to demonstrate their capacity of self-government." It went over under the rules.

Governor Hoadly, of Ohio, has written to Speaker Carlisle urging the restoration of the duty on wool.

At Albany, in the Senate, on Wednesday, the bill abolishing the State paper was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 14 to 10.

In the Assembly a resolution was debated directing the Committee on State Charitable Institutions to investigate the cause of the recent death of Evan D. Hughes while confined in the Utica Insane Asylum. Mr. Burns (Dem.) declared that the institution was a great political machine used by both parties. It made or unmade politicians. The resolution was amended so as to provide for a Special Committee of Five, and was then passed. The Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means submitted the annual appropriation bill, the total of which is about $7,000,000, or $200,000 in excess of last year.

The Prohibition Amendment was again debated vigorously in the Assembly on Thursday and was ordered to a third reading. The bill reducing pilotage fees at New York was also advanced to a third reading.

The widow of Theodore Roosevelt, the well-known philanthropist of this city, and the wife of her son, Theodore Roosevelt, jr., the Republican Assemblyman, died in this city on Thursday. The New York Assembly adjourned on Friday out of regard to Mr. Roosevelt, after passing resolutions of condolence.

A mass-meeting was held at Cooper Institute on Thursday evening, at which resolutions were adopted appointing a committee of fifty prominent citizens of this city to visit Albany to secure the necessary legislation for the concentration of power in the hands of the Mayor for the appointment of municipal officers without the approval of the Aldermen. Speeches were made in favor of the project by William M. Evarts, Judge Noah Davis, and others.

The Assembly on Monday evening disagreed to an adverse report on the bill extending the five-cent hours on the elevated railroads of this city. On Tuesday they passed the General Appropriation Bill. During a debate on that day Mr. Hooley (Labor member) said the State paid a large amount to the humbug known as the Civil Service Commission, which only existed for the purpose of keeping many a good man out of office. Mr. Littlejohn (Rep.) entirely agreed with this view, pronouncing the Civil-Service Bureau not only useless, but one of the veriest humbugs in existence. This statement was greeted with warm applause.

The New York Republican Committee is called to meet at the Fifth Avenue Hotel in this city on March 4th to take action regarding the State Convention.

The Supreme Court of Illinois has affirmed the judgment of the lower Court in the case of Timm *vs.* Harrison, Mayor of Chicago, thereby asserting the constitutionality of the Harper High License law.

The high waters began to subside on Saturday, and railway traffic was resumed on a number of roads leading into Cincinnati on Monday. There is wide-spread distress in many places, along the Ohio River, which the Government is endeavoring to relieve with its appropriation. Subscriptions of money and collections of clothing have been made in all parts of the country, those from the South being noticeable.

There was an almost general resumption of work this week in the iron mills, glass factories, and river coal mines around Pittsburgh. Many thousand men were given employment.

The Senior class of Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., left the institution in a body on Friday because the Faculty had suspended two of their members, leaders in a general college "bolt" of recitations on the day preceding the funeral of ex-President North.

The Harvard Faculty and the Princeton Trustees have adopted the stringent resolutions for the regulation of inter-collegiate sports which were recommended by the late conference of college faculties on the subject. Five colleges must adopt them to make them binding.

In the suit brought by L. L. Nightingale, one of the characters in the novel, 'Cape Cod Folks,' against Alexander Williams, its publisher, in Boston, the jury on Thursday gave the plaintiff $1,095 damages.

The will of Wendell Phillips leaves his property, aggregating $250,000, to his widow, with a reversionary interest to his adopted daughter, Mrs. G. W. Smalley.

Professor S. Wells Williams, LL.D., of Yale College, died on Saturday after an illness of two weeks. He was seventy-two years of age. After being graduated at the Troy Polytechnic Institute he went to Canton, China, as printer to the American Board of Foreign Missions. He studied Chinese, and published a number of standard books on the subject. He was the editor for many years of the *Chinese Repository*. In 1842 he published 'Easy Lessons in Chinese.' He returned to the United States in 1845. In 1848 he published 'The Middle Kingdom,' a standard work on China, of which a new and carefully revised edition was published a few months ago. He returned to China in 1848. He resided there and in Japan for many following years, publishing valuable works, and holding office under the U.S. Government. In 1874 he brought out at Shanghai the great work of his life, 'The Syllabic Dictionary of the Chinese Language,' and in 1876 he returned to the United States, having been appointed lecturer on Chinese at Yale College, where he remained until his death. Prior to his last illness he had been an occasional contributor to the *Nation*.

FOREIGN.

Active preparations for British interference in the affairs of the Sudan were announced on Wednesday. Lord Wolseley, Adjutant-General of the British army, telegraphed to Lieutenant-General Stephenson, commanding the forces in Egypt, to collect a force for the relief of Tokar, if this was possible, and if not, for the defence of the Red Sea ports. General Graham took the supreme command of this force, with Colonel Buller in command of the infantry and Colonel Stewart of the cavalry. General Lord Wolseley ordered that the greatest publicity be given to the determination to relieve Tokar by British troops. A body of British troops was ordered to Suakim, and the British garrison at Alexandria was transferred to Cairo. The news of the despatch of British troops spread rapidly and had a good effect in tending to disperse the rebels.

General Gordon, with several powerful chiefs, left Berber on Wednesday for Khartum, proceeding very slowly, in order to negotiate with the people along the river. On his arrival at Khartum on Sunday thousands crowded to kiss his hands and feet, calling him "Sultan of the Sudan." Addressing the people General Gordon said: "I come without soldiers, but with God on my side, to redress evils. I will not fight with any weapons, but will mete out justice. There shall be no more Bashi-Bazouks." The populace say that General Gordon is giving them more than El Mahdi could give. His influence is so great that no fears are now felt for the safety of the garrison and the people at Khartum.

Colonel Coetlogon, Commander at Khartum, was on Saturday created Pasha and made acting Governor-General of the entire Sudan. He summoned the notables to meet General Gordon in council on Sunday.

General Gordon has posted a proclamation recognizing El Mahdi as Sultan of Kordofan, remitting half the taxes, and placing no restriction on the slave trade. The Arabs of Khartum express great satisfaction with it. The proclamation was sent to all the tribes. The London *Times* on Monday said that General Gordon's proclamation, as regards slavery, means that his present mission has nothing to do with slaves, and not that he desires to

encourage slavery. Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons, said that the appointment of El Mahdi as Sultan of Kordofan, and the remission of taxes, were within General Gordon's powers. The true meaning of the order regarding the slave trade could not be understood from the telegraphic summary which had been published. The Government preferred to await the receipt of the full text of the original order.

Papers were presented to Parliament on Thursday regarding General Gordon's mission in the Sudan. Among them were Sir Evelyn Baring's instructions to General Gordon with respect to the evacuation of the Sudan. General Gordon is given the fullest liberty to use his own discretion in the premises. One hundred thousand pounds have been placed to his credit, and additional funds will be granted if necessary.

General Gordon's memorandum of January 2, in which he unfolds his plan for restoring the petty Sultans to their ancestral power, leaving El Mahdi out of the calculation, is also among the papers. He advises that the arsenals be handed over to the various Sultans. His greatest difficulty will be in disposing of the arsenals at Khartum, Dongola, and Kassala, where there are no Sultans, because those places have sprung up since Mehemet's conquest. England has refused General Sir Evelyn Wood's proposal to sanction the coöperation of the Egyptian army in the relief of Tokar, for the reason that this army was raised for the defence of Egypt outside of the Sudan. England approves, however, of the despatch of the Egyptian battalion, which is furnished with English officers, to Assuan, if this proves necessary.

The orders governing the expedition for the relief of Tokar provide that the troops are to take with them provisions sufficient to last two weeks. They will bivouac upon the line of march. Each man will carry seventy rounds of ammunition in his pouch, and there is to be a reserved supply of 250 rounds per man. Official letters have been sent to Tokar urging the garrison to hold out until the troops arrive. If they succeed in relieving the town, the forts will be blown up and a retreat made to the Red Sea coast.

There was an unconfirmed rumor in Suakim on Monday night, brought by scouts from Trinkitat, to the effect that the rebels carried Tokar by storm on Sunday night and massacred the garrison. On Tuesday advices were received from Tokar that 200 of the garrison made a sortie, attacked the enemy, and killed and wounded several of them. They also captured a number of cattle and camels.

Osman Digma, the rebel leader, was reported on Sunday to be massing his troops near a defile where he defeated Tahir Pasha, on the road between Trinkitat and Tokar. If he fails to reduce the latter city before the arrival of the British troops, he will, it is said, give battle there. Orders have been given by the British Government to confine the British expedition to the relief of Tokar. It is expected that a decisive battle will be fought on February 24. The rebels fired on the forts at Suakim on Sunday. Baker Pasha had a narrow escape. The commander at Tokar has written that he has supplies to last him until the end of the month. He wants arms and ammunition.

Four Egyptian private soldiers presented to the Khedive on Saturday a protest against the despatch of Egyptian soldiers to the Sudan, and a demand for the removal of British military officers. General Wood was immediately sent for. He confronted the mutineers, and arrested them. The petition purported to be approved by the whole Egyptian army. Some correspondents considered the incident of grave import, while others said that it was trifling, and had not shaken the confidence of English officers in Egyptian troops. There were rumors that the Egyptian army was to be disbanded on account of its worthlessness, but they were not confirmed. The stripping of Alexandria and Cairo of British troops for the operations in the south has caused lively fears of an émeute.

It was reported in London on Wednesday that a majority of the Cabinet were urging more vigorous action in Egypt. Mr. Gladstone, Earl Granville, and some other members are opposed to increasing England's responsibility. Conservative meetings were held in many English towns on Wednesday night, in all of which the Government policy in Egypt was attacked. Confidence was expressed that Parliament would soon be dissolved, and the Conservatives would triumph at the next election. The London *Times* on Thursday rebuked the Conservatives for not boldly declaring their policy.

Mr. Gladstone said in the House of Commons on Thursday that Turkey had proposed an interchange of views regarding Egyptian affairs. Meanwhile the negotiations continue. The debate on the motion of censure was resumed. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Radical, moved an amendment that the House decline to express an opinion of the Government's Egyptian policy. In proposing this amendment he said that he trusted that hereafter Englishmen would not be employed to interfere with the Egyptians in their selection of a Government. Mr. Labouchere, advanced Liberal, seconded it. Mr. Gladstone spoke in opposition. The debate was continued on Friday without special incident.

The debate on the motion to censure the Government for its Egyptian policy was resumed in the House of Commons on Monday. W. T. Marriott, a Liberal, made a violent attack upon the Government, accusing it of vacillation and inconsistency. The Irish Parliamentary party held a meeting in the evening to decide how to vote on the motion of censure. Mr. Parnell was absent. There was a disagreement as to the course to be pursued. Mr. Sexton moved to vote against the Government, which was carried. Mr. Parnell was present at another meeting of his party on Tuesday morning, and it was again decided to vote against the Government. The debate was concluded on Tuesday evening, and Sir Stafford Northcote's motion of censure was defeated by a vote of 311 to 262, a majority of 49 for the Government notwithstanding the opposition of the Parnellites.

Lord Randolph Churchill has been elected President of the National Conservative Union, which is considered an indication that he will take the place of Sir Stafford Northcote as Conservative leader in the House of Commons. The latter, it is said, is willing to accept a peerage.

Mr. Bradlaugh issued on Wednesday an address to the electors of Northampton for a reëlection. Mr. Richards, who once before gave him a close run, was the candidate of the Conservatives. Mr. Bradlaugh was returned on Tuesday by a larger vote than ever before, and will take the oath at once.

A bill was introduced in the House of Lords on Friday to afford better protection against the importation of diseased cattle.

While walking unattended to the House of Commons on Thursday, Mr. Gladstone was suddenly seized by the collar, and brought to a standstill by a man. With some difficulty he shook off his assailant. It is said the attack was made on a wager.

The Cobden Club will circulate 20,000 copies of the pamphlet by Mr. Giffen devoted to the "Progress of the Working Classes," which Mr. Gladstone pronounces to be the best answer to the doctrines proclaimed by Mr. Henry George.

The strike of the weavers has come to an end everywhere throughout East Lancashire, England.

At a meeting of the company of authors, established to obtain a copyright convention with the United States, which was held in London on Monday, Cardinal Manning spoke at some length upon the injustice done by American publishers in pirating English works. Mr. Walter Besant moved that a company of authors be founded in America, and that the matter be brought before American authors. The motion was carried.

Matthew Arnold will publish impressions of America, along with the lectures he delivered while in the United States.

Ten thousand copies of the first edition of Queen Victoria's Diary were sold the first day after publication.

Admiral Carr Glyn, who was legatee to the estate of Adelaide Neilson, the actress, is dead.

The Merv tribes have submitted to Russia. The German press says the submission of the tribes of Merv to Russia is worse for England than the disasters in the Sudan. It comments upon the remarkable success of the Russian policy in Central Asia, and says it is always directed against England. The Russian newspapers express the opinion that the submission of the Merv tribes to Russia, together with the events in the Sudan, insures the downfall of Mr. Gladstone.

The Lower House of the Austrian Reichsrath has passed the exceptional law directed against Anarchists by a vote of 177 to 137.

American affairs were brought into prominence in Germany on Thursday by an article in the Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) in which it was said: "The bill in regard to hog products which is now before the American Congress is calculated painfully to affect Germans who have the national interests at heart. The sting of the bill is palpably directed against Germany alone. We do not assume that American statesmen are disposed to entertain the opinion that Germany can be induced by reprisals or threats to rescind measures enforced in the interest of public health. An independent Government can only reply to any attempt at intimidation by counter reprisals, consisting of increased customs duties, and eventually by legal measures otherwise affecting the intercourse of the two countries."

The Berlin correspondent of the London *Times* on Saturday reported that Prince Bismarck had returned to Herr von Eisendecher, the German Minister at Washington, the resolution of condolence on Herr Lasker's death passed by Congress, with the request to return the resolution to the House of Representatives, as the position of Herr Lasker in Germany was not such as to justify the resolution. The *Times* added that although the thing appears incredible, the fact is that the relations between Washington and Berlin are in a state of great tension, chiefly owing to the pork question. Later advices confirmed the report.

The commercial convention between the United States and Spain was signed in Madrid on Wednesday.

The Bey of Tunis has given M. Roudaire authority to carry out his scheme for transforming a portion of the Desert of Sahara into an inland sea.

Many Christians have been massacred in Anam since the beginning of January. The Anamite Minister of War is implicated.

Two mandarins who were instigators of the recent massacre of Christians in Tonquin have been taken to Hué, tried, and executed.

President Grévy on Tuesday received a telegram from the King of Anam. The King expresses the hope that the newly completed cable connecting Haiphong with Thuanan and Saigon will strengthen the friendly relations existing between France and Anam. He also trusts that the treaty will be ratified.

THE ALDERMEN AND THE APPOINTING POWER.

THE meeting at Cooper Union on Thursday last was a great success both in numbers and in enthusiasm; and it named an excellent committee to go to Albany to secure the passage of the Roosevelt bill and such other legislation as may be necessary to concentrate responsibility in the Mayor, and take away from the Aldermen their share of the appointing power. This change undoubtedly does not include the whole of municipal reform, but it promises more of it, in our belief, than anything else which this generation is likely to see accomplished. We have now had in this city about forty years' experience of the modern problem of governing great centres of population by universal suffrage. What the difficulties of this problem are is better known to New Yorkers to-day than to any people in the world. We have learnt all that the lowest tribe of demagogues ever seen in a civilized community can accomplish through a large body of ignorant voters. We have actually seen the creation among us, as Judge Davis forcibly pointed out, of an aristocracy or oligarchy of liquor-dealers—that is, of members of one of the most odious and disreputable of modern callings. We have tried, too, all sorts of remedies for the evils of our condition, all of which have failed in a greater or less degree. The great remedy tried after Fernando Wood's appearance—State interference—has failed utterly, and with unfortunate results for the State as well as the city. We have discovered, too, in the case of the Tilden amendments, that no remedy which seems in the smallest degree to attack the principle of universal suffrage stands much chance of being tried, however promising it may seem. Salvation must come apparently through the good tendencies of universal suffrage itself, and the best and most hopeful of these tendencies is the tendency to put men of mark in high places and trust them greatly.

We know how readily illustrations of the contrary can be furnished—Butler's success in Massachusetts is the most conspicuous; but they are exceptions and only feeble ones. In this city the tradition that the Mayor must be a man in good standing, has really, through all our troubles, never been broken. In municipal as well as State politics, too, it has been found that the abuses and corruption most complained of have nearly always resulted from the success of politicians in getting between the people and the candidates, and so dividing popular attention that nobody shall know anything as to what the effect of the election on the machinery of the government will be.

The present condition of New York exhibits the working of this system under peculiarly favorable conditions. The success of the Roosevelt bill would go far to overturn it. It would not bring in the Millennium, or drive liquor-dealers out of politics, but it would strip them of their power over municipal administration, and reduce them to insignificance. It would, moreover, at stated intervals array the intelligence, virtue, and order of the city against ignorance, vice, and corruption, for a fair trial of strength over an issue which everybody could understand, and which no dickering or dealing could obscure. We have ourselves no doubt as to what the result of such contests would be. The liquor-dealers would be worsted every time. We should every time put in the Mayoralty, not a saint or a sage, but a man identified with some one of the reputable interests of the municipality, and more or less eminent in talents and character; and once in he would have power to govern, and his failure to govern well would cover him with a disgrace which he would feel deeply, and which he could not escape by throwing the blame on some one else.

We were sorry that none of the speakers addressed himself to one objection, which weighs a good deal with many people, to the withdrawal of the power of confirmation from the Board of Aldermen. We mean the apparent analogy which exists, as regards its relations to the appointing power, between the Board and the Senates of the United States and of the various States. There are many very honest and intelligent men in this city, who have no liking whatever for the Aldermen, and who deplore as much as anybody the use they make of their power, who nevertheless are persuaded that the participation of some sort of legislative body in the work of selecting office-holders is an essential feature of the American system of government. They see it in operation in all the States, and they find some difficulty in understanding why the chief executive officer of a community containing over a million of population, and raising over $30,000,000 a year in taxation, can be safely released from restrictions which are held to be absolutely necessary in the case of Governors of States containing not half as many inhabitants and raising not over a third as much revenue. This point has been discussed to some extent, but not as much as is desirable.

Its apparent gravity illustrates one of the great difficulties of the situation. The municipality has never had the importance in America which it has had in Europe, simply because America has had no Middle Ages. The foundations of American freedom were not laid in walled towns held by armed artisans. Cities here have been of late growth, and have played but little part in our political development. It is only about fifty years since Boston received a charter or had a mayor, and since the Mayor of New York ceased to be appointed by the Governor, as a State officer. Down to this moment this city has never been recognized by the State as a separate or even partially independent political corporation, in any way resembling a State. In the Legislature, and by the very men who are so sensitive about the rights of the Board of Aldermen as a "legislative branch," the city is always treated as a mere creature of the State, and the charter as a temporary arrangement, which has no better motive than the convenience of each passing year. The Board of Aldermen has had its constitution altered half-a-dozen times within the last fifty years. Moreover, the Legislature might abolish it to-morrow, without question, just as it enlarges or restricts its powers, and raises, lowers, or abolishes its salary. In fact, it is impossible to find at Albany among the politicians of any party the slightest trace of the argument so freely used against the reformers down here, that the Aldermen are a legislative body, with functions and immunities like those of State Senates. The thought that New York city is an *imperium in imperio* apparently never enters into their heads. If it did they would undoubtedly concede to the people of this city some voice in framing their charter, but there is nothing for which they are less prepared.

The truth is, the theory that the municipality is a quasi-State, is a theory concocted, as far as politicians are concerned, for the simple purpose of defending and maintaining the Board of Aldermen as an instrument of corruption. No politician uses it seriously, or uses it against any other politician. It is reserved entirely for the confusion of good people down here, who show signs of reaching the conclusion that the Board is a public nuisance and disgrace, and ought to be abolished, or at all events be so shorn of power as to be rendered entirely harmless.

The American city is peculiar in its history as well as in its needs. In fact, it has no history, and there is but little analogy between its governmental needs and those of the State. But there is one great principle of American politics which is applicable to it, and which meets all its requirements, and that is that each city should be managed by its own inhabitants; that they should, with proper recognition of State supremacy, be the most potent influence in framing the municipal constitution; and that they should have full power to change it as their necessities may dictate. The object of city government is to give the inhabitants of a certain district clean streets, good wharves and drains, good light at night, a good police and good police magistrates, good jails, hospitals, and schools—or, in other words, to give them comfort and safety in their houses and streets. It is not its object to give them political rights, or gratify their political ideals, or in any manner provide for their welfare as members of a political community. All this is done by the State and the Union. The Mayor, the Aldermen, the Comptroller, the Register, the Sheriff, are all, just like the street cars and the ferry boats and the mud-scows, contrivances intended to increase the personal comfort of the men, women, and children living within the city limits. No part of the municipal machinery, whether person or office, exists as part of the eternal fitness of things, or in virtue of some municipal ideal entering into the foundations of society. There is nothing sacred in or about the City Hall, nothing which ought not to go as soon as it is found to interfere in any degree with giving the people of the city an economical and efficient administration of city affairs.

We need hardly say that the Board of Aldermen comes under this rule. There is hardly in African theology a more absurd superstition than the notion that if a body of men get themselves, either by accident or design, called a "legislative branch," the right to have a voice in the selection of the city officers be,

comes so firmly vested in them that, though they sell it in open market as they sell their whiskey, and use the proceeds in debauchery, it cannot be taken away from them. To acknowledge this would be really to introduce a totally new and most destructive principle into American politics, namely, the old mediæval doctrine that there are arrangements in government so sacred that they can under no circumstances be changed, no matter how badly they work, or how much human suffering they cause. The American doctrine is that whatever in politics does not work well, must "go," and that no institution must be allowed to work human misery. This of course covers ignorant, corrupt, and liquor-dealing Aldermen.

STEALING NEWS.

Mr. Henry Watterson is about to introduce into Congress, in the interest of the press, a measure which he very incorrectly calls a newspaper "copyright" law. His language, as given in the *Tribune*, is as follows:

"It simply operates to protect property in news from piratical concurrent publication. This can be done by a clause in the copyright laws making collected news, the product of skilled labor and outlay, exclusive to those who pay for it, for twenty-four hours. I mean all news and news of every description and every association. As matters are, news is not recognized as property at all. Everything about a newspaper office, from the perfecting press to the newsman's pot of paste, is property, and he who steals it falls within the reach and compass of the law. But that which constitutes the real value of a newspaper property—its news franchises—costing vast sums of money and years of special enterprise, training, and labor—has no legal status whatever. It is practically outlawed; anybody can steal it with impunity. The proposed measure protects it from pirated use and concurrent publication for twenty-four hours. It creates, indeed, a new property; that is, property in news. No one can oppose it except those who want to rob others of their labor and money."

In "news," he continues, he would include "all original, special, and general matter exceeding one hundred words, sent by post or wire, and embracing the original communication of information of any and every description."

The copyright laws of the United States all rest upon a provision in the Constitution giving Congress the right to secure to "authors" the "exclusive right" to their "writings" (Const. U. S. Art. I., sec. 8). Mr. Watterson's measure may perhaps, in a certain sense, be said to secure rights to the "authors" of despatches, through the newspapers which buy of them; that is to say, any one who collects and sells news to the press might be able to get a slightly better price for it, if the newspaper purchasing it could prevent its being stolen by other newspapers. But this does not meet the great difficulty in the case, which lies in the fact that it is absurd to talk of a man who picks up a piece of news or an "item" as an "author" at all. The reason why copyright laws are passed is to secure the fruits of original, intellectual labor. But the proposed copyright in "news" does not do this. Any one may collect news without any original intellectual effort, and with very little effort of any kind. Some people do it by listening at keyholes, most people in the ordinary course of conversation with the persons whom they meet in the way of business or pleasure. If a collector of news in London telegraphs to New York that Sir Stafford Northcote has just delivered a lecture on "Nothing," or that Lord Cairns has offered Miss Fortescue £10,000 to release his son from his marriage engagement, who is the person whose "property" in the news ought to be protected, or who is the "author" of it? Is it the collector of the "item"? If so, any one who has ears and eyes is an "author." On the other hand, if any one can be said to have property in such news, it would seem to be those whose pecuniary interests or reputations are affected—Sir Stafford Northcote, Lord Cairns, his son, and Miss Fortescue. The fact is, that protection against the theft of news has nothing more to do with copyright than it has with patents. Indeed, the persons who could most fairly claim protection from Congress as authors of news are the fabricators of fictitious despatches, the producers of the extraordinary bear stories, or dog stories, or "romances of real life," or anecdotes of remarkable longevity, extraordinary instances of long periods of sleep, or silence, or abstinence from food, which do so much to render lively the columns of country newspapers. These are really the result of literary labor of a certain kind. But this is not the sort of "news" that Mr. Watterson wants to protect.

What his bill is really intended to prevent is the theft of news from one newspaper by another, and chiefly of special despatches, domestic or foreign. If this can be done by giving despatches the protection afforded other kinds of property, every respectable newspaper in the United States will no doubt be glad to support the bill; but there are enormous difficulties in the way which will make themselves felt the moment the scheme is put into the form of a law. The most serious of these is the fact that the property cannot by any human ingenuity be kept in the original form in which it is first published, and consequently cannot be traced. The art of "expanding" despatches supplies a ready means to the newspaper thief of stealing, and at the same time of covering his track completely, or so completely as to make all hope of a successful criminal prosecution very dim. Were the practice made illegal, by putting in a few adjectives and verbs of one's own, and a little information out of some encyclopædia or hand-book, the matter could be so disguised that we should have greater difficulty than we now have in tracing our property. But this is not all: there is a legitimate as well as an illegitimate way of using "news" found in other columns. The same "news," for instance, which appears in one newspaper as a "special cable" reappears immediately in another newspaper as a topic for a paragraph, editorial, or an "item." If this were made a criminal offence, most editors would be in jail all the time; in other words, the newspaper business could not be carried on.

The most aggravated and clearly provable form of the offence which Mr. Watterson wishes to reach is the habitual fraudulent reproduction of despatches as "special" which are really stolen. A law making any such reproduction a criminal offence would render it dangerous to transfer despatches openly from one newspaper to another, and thus might do some good. But there is no way to reach "expanders," and by means of expansions, or other similar devices, the theft of despatches will always go on. It is a very low and demoralizing sort of crime; but it probably does not do the newspaper which is robbed much substantial injury, because in the long run the readers of newspapers do not attempt to get the news of the day from papers which steal it over night and publish it twenty-four hours late.

THE CAPE COD LIBEL SUIT.

Mr. Nightingale's verdict of $1,095 recovered from the Boston publishers of the story called 'Cape Cod Folks' is practically exactly what it is not legally—a species of punishment inflicted by the jury, much as if the case had been of a criminal nature. What the defendants had done was first to publish in the ordinary course of business a book which turned out to contain the names of a number of people living on Cape Cod—not illustrious, or eminent, or public characters, but plain New England village people, who, had it not been for the author, would have lived and died unknown to fame. Speaking under the full sense of responsibility which such a verdict must produce, we may venture to suggest that it was a bright and happy day for Mr. Nightingale and his friends when they found that they had got into print in this singular way. They immediately made a combined attack upon the publishers and demanded redress, and they have now for a year or two been obtaining redress and notoriety in equal parts. The publishers first brought out a new edition of the book with fictitious names substituted for the real ones, but this did not take away or wipe out the libel, as Mr. Nightingale has now thoroughly proved.

The plaintiff's evidence was very amusing, because it consisted chiefly of denials by him of statements made in the book, as if these had been made as matters of fact. The following is a fair specimen of the evidence. The plaintiff's lawyers read from the book: "'Teacher, this is our champion fiddler, inventor, whale-fisher, cranberry-picker, and potato bugger.' . . . The youth of the tuneful and birdlike name dealt his tormentor a hearty, though affectionate, cuff on the ears, and, being thus suddenly thrust forward, he doffed his broad sou'wester, took the hand I held out to him, and, stooping down, kissed me, quite in a simple and audible manner, on the cheek." The plaintiff denied that he had kissed the author of the book then or at any other time. Again, the plaintiff denied many statements regarding his family. His mother, for instance, did not wear "over her cotton gown, on occasions when she went out, a very fine, very thin, old-fashioned mantilla, bordered with a deep black fringe," and consequently it was not true, as the author alleged, that "this pathetic remnant of gentility, borne rudely about by the Cedarville winds, with Lydia's refined face and melancholy dark eyes, gave

her a very interesting and picturesque appearance." But no evidence was brought forward on the trial to show that Mr. Nightingale was really injured in pocket, person, or reputation by the book. He was, we believe, subjected to the process known to photographers and novelists as "idealization," so that it is at least open to doubt whether his position in the world was not improved by the publication in some respects. What he really complained of, and what the jury decided was a just complaint, was that his name had been "made free with" in print, or, in other words, that his right to privacy and obscurity had been invaded. He summed up his injuries very concisely by saying that he had been "pointed at" at the railroad station.

The author of 'Cape Cod Folks' has, therefore, done the public a good turn in showing that there is a point beyond which a novelist may not go in bringing private persons into his books. He may not do it by name. That she and the publishers should have supposed that this might be done with impunity is, perhaps, not a matter of surprise, when we remember that the press is doing something very similar, and indeed much worse, all the time. Not a week passes that purely domestic and family affairs are not published in the newspapers with the names of the persons affected in full, and generally in connection with matters which are sacred from public intrusion not only in morals but in law. No one, however, can read the evidence in such a case as that of the 'Cape Cod Folks' without seeing that a suit for damages must in the long run be a poor sort of redress. Any firm of publishers, though entirely innocent, might be put in the awkward predicament in which this Boston firm now finds itself. They might, perhaps, relieve themselves by suppressing the book altogether, but in that case the persons injured are left without redress. Moreover, for an injury of this sort, where it is real, a long civil suit with all the expense incident to it, and the worry and harass of cross-examination to which the plaintiff is always subjected, is a bad remedy. It is a case, not for damages, but for punishment of the guilty person; and whatever the guilt of the publishers, the author must always be guilty in such a case. Probably criminal proceedings were out of the question in this case because the author was a woman, and a jury would not be likely to send a woman to prison for such an offence. We believe, however, that it is women far more than men who need a lesson in this respect. We doubt if any man living would have dared to write 'Cape Cod Folks'; and certainly, in the press, it is the anonymous female contributor who always makes the most irresponsible use of her "chance" to say whatever comes into her head about her friends and acquaintances.

THE OYSTER IN SCIENCE AND POLITICS.

Not long ago the writer saw a distinguished European diplomatist standing before a bulletin in a college class-room, where, under the words "The Hog in Politics," there were numerous extracts from the newspapers of the day on the diplomatic discussion of American pork. The part which pork has taken in international affairs is now assumed by the oyster in domestic politics. It reminded us of the civil war when we read in the news from Baltimore, a few days ago, after a startling head-line, "Ye dredgers, beware; the police boats are after you," these belligerent items:

"The oyster police steamer *William T. Hamilton*, Captain Gordy in command, arrived in the harbor shortly after dark last night. She came to the city by order of the Governor to get the arms necessary for the war to be waged against the illegal dredgers in Fishing Bay and Honga River. The day was too far advanced for the fitting out, and the preparations were postponed until this morning. The steamers *William T. Hamilton* and the *Leila*, and the sloop *Julia Hamilton*, will be thoroughly stocked with ammunition. . . . A special despatch to the *American* from Annapolis last night said: 'The Board of Public Works had a meeting to-day to take action regarding the Dorchester oyster war.'"

"In accordance with the action of the Board of Public Works, Governor McLane issued a requisition yesterday to Adjutant-General Watkins for a supply of arms for the oyster boat. The order of the Adjutant-General was presented to Mr. D. H. Leaming at the Fifth Regiment Armory yesterday afternoon about half-past four o'clock, and he delivered twelve 45-calibre rifles and 1,000 rounds of cartridges, which will be loaded on the steamers this morning."

Another item of about the same date informs us that the envoys sent from the Government at Annapolis to the Government at Richmond have returned without making an adjustment of the difficulties between Maryland and Virginia. A day or two later came further intelligence, from the seat of war, under these headlines: "Dredgers Taken In.—Captain Gordy on the war path—Capturing the violators of the law in Honga River—Their vessels in tow—Work of the police—Cause of the trouble—The lack of Arms":

"Crisfield, February 10.—When the oyster police boat *Wm. T. Hamilton* steamed into Hooper's Straits this morning at half-past eleven o'clock Captain Gordy gazed intently through a telescope toward a fleet of vessels sailing in the mouth of Honga River, where dredging for oysters is not permitted."

On Sunday morning, just as "in the old war times," a special notice was issued for a mass meeting to be held on Thursday for the discussion of "the oyster question." "Live and eloquent speakers," says the call, "will address the meeting." Similar despatches have come from the seat of war since we made the foregoing extracts.

The key to this bellicose excitement is to be found in the fact that the oysters of the Chesapeake are rapidly diminishing in numbers, and foresighted canners, dealers, merchants, and statesmen see that a very important branch of traffic is in danger. An oyster fleet is requisite to keep off intruders from a distance. Diplomacy is called in to negotiate between the claims of different States. More noteworthy still, science is invoked, and an expert morphologist and embryologist has devoted many months to studying the life of the young oyster and the natural conditions of its infantile growth. We would here call attention to a remarkable book which has just been printed in Baltimore, the 'Report of the Oyster Commission of the State of Maryland,' a quarto volume of nearly two hundred pages, illustrated with numerous engravings, and with several maps of the oyster beds of the Chesapeake. In this blue-book the Chesapeake oyster is discussed from every point of view except the ordinary one, the gastronomic. It is treated statistically, economically, legally, historically, geographically, microscopically, embryologically. All that is known of the origin, development, multiplication, diminution of the bivalve is brought together, with the suggestions of a scientific zoölogist and of a practical oysterman, in order that the people of Maryland, and especially the Legislature of the State, may be informed upon the dangers which now threaten an essential traffic, and of the remedies which are within reach, if suitable legislation can be secured.

With the coöperation of two associate Commissioners, Messrs. Waddell and Legg, this report has been prepared by Dr. W. K. Brooks, the Chairman of the Commission, who has been for several years past the Director of the Chesapeake Zoölogical Laboratory, a department of the Johns Hopkins University devoted to the seaside study of marine life. His scientific memoirs are well known to zoölogists, one of them having been published by the Royal Society of London, others by the Boston Society of Natural History, and others elsewhere. His recent volume on 'Heredity' is pronounced by a competent critic the most considerable contribution which has been made in this country to the Darwinian theory of the origin of species. We mention these facts that those who are unfamiliar with his work may perceive that he has a right to speak with authority.

The most important part of the investigation was made prior to the appointment of an oyster commission. When Dr. Brooks organized the Chesapeake Zoölogical Laboratory, it was with the hope and belief not only that he could advance the science of zoölogy, but that he could throw some light upon what was then a very obscure matter, the reproduction of the American oyster. His success was even greater than any of his friends anticipated. By prolonged and accurate observations, repeated in successive breeding seasons, he discovered the fact that the American oyster (*Ostrea virginiana*), is not hermaphrodite, like the European oyster (*Ostrea edulis*); on the contrary, the sexes are separate, the eggs are fertilized outside the body, and the young can be reared artificially in enormous numbers. These interesting statements were published in 1879, in an elaborate paper, illustrated by numerous drawings which show the development of the oyster germ, as seen under the microscope at very brief intervals from its impregnation on through two or three days—showing also that independence of parental care which is sometimes thought to be characteristic of young America. These discoveries (to which, by the way, Mr. Lowell, the American Minister, made a humorous allusion when he spoke, on the American day, in the International Fish Exhibition, at London, last summer) attracted attention far and wide, and led to various attempts to fertilize artificially the oyster eggs, and to bring the young to maturity. The practical difficulties are now almost

and perhaps completely overcome, and there is every reason to believe that before long oysters may be bred artificially with greater certainty than trout and shad and others of the finny tribe. No better illustration can be found in the annals of natural history of the general good to the public which may follow the prosecution of a delicate and difficult microscopical research on an obscure question in embryology.

The exact share of credit to which the various students of this problem are entitled, we need not attempt to determine, but among those whose development of Dr. Brooks's discovery has been most efficient, a few names should be mentioned. Lieutenant Winslow, U. S. N., who had seen Dr. Brooks's experiments at Crisfield in 1879, was stationed the next year at Cadiz, and there experimented with the Portuguese oyster (*Ostrea angulata*), finding it to be like the American, and capable of artificial propagation. A French naturalist, M. Bouchon Brandeley, referring to the encouragement he had received from Brooks's experiments, took the next step forward with further attempts to produce the Portuguese oyster, and he succeeded in raising a very great number of seed oysters fit for planting. The paper on this subject was translated by Mr. J. A. Ryder, and printed under the direction of Professor Baird in the *Bulletin* of the United States Fish Commission. Mr. Ryder then constructed at Stockton, on the coast of Maryland, a pond similar to those of Bouchon Brandeley, and in September last made public the welcome announcement that the young from eggs artificially impregnated had been kept alive forty-six days, until they had become from one-fourth to three-fourths of an inch in diameter, "demonstrating that the young would grow just as rapidly in a pond as in the waters of the open bay," and that "it is perfectly feasible to rear oysters from artificially fertilized eggs." The further development of this possibility now goes into the hands of practical men. If they do their part with as much skill as the scientific investigators have done theirs, the oyster will not perish.

The Oyster Commissioners of Maryland, after giving the facts which we have quoted, and many more, pertaining to the decline of the oyster productivity and the need of legislation to prevent further interference with the oyster industry, declare it to be their opinion that the natural fertility of the oyster beds must be increased by some method of artificial oyster culture, and that gradually the oyster property of the State should be put into the hands of private farmers, in order that private enterprise may secure the best returns.

THE FATE OF LOUIS XVII.

Our Paris correspondent, when writing of the last days of Louis XVII. (*Nation*, No. 969), stated that there are many people in Europe "who still believe that the unfortunate son of Louis XVI. and of Marie Antoinette did not die in the Temple," and that "there have been several false Louis Seventeenths." He may or may not have been aware that America once had her Louis XVII. in the person of the Rev. Eleazar Williams, a missionary among the Indians, and a clergyman in good standing of the Episcopal church. Thirty years ago a fair-sized controversy raged in our newspapers and periodicals concerning his rights, and the Rev. John H. Hanson published a vigorous work of 500 pages or thereabout, while a translation of the work of Beauchesne was brought out by the Harpers and became the adverse authority.

Whatever the Rev. Mr. Williams's origin, there certainly had been some strange phases in his life. The first thing known of him was that he was an idiotic boy about the age of the Dauphin, the reputed half-breed son of an Oneida woman in the State of New York. The shock of a fall in Lake Champlain restored his faculties, and soon after this he was taken from his supposed Indian mother and placed under the charge of an intelligent New England farmer. Money for his education was regularly supplied, but from what mysterious source it came no one knew. Thus the Indian boy year after year was supported for some unknown reason and by some unknown person, until, at length, he became a clergyman and a missionary among his own people. But he possessed the manners and apparently the tastes of a gentleman, and some of our readers may remember hearing him preach from the pulpit of the late Rev. Dr. Washburn.

In the *Knickerbocker Magazine* of 1854 there appeared a somewhat judicial review of the controversy, entitled "A Charge to the Jury of the Public in the Dauphin Case." The claims of the Rev. Mr. Williams were regarded as the weakest part of the case; but the escape of the Prince was deemed possible, and circumstances were adduced which at that day could hardly be reconciled with his death in the Temple. Whether the recent historical discoveries in Paris throw light on these discordant circumstances may be worthy of our correspondent's further consideration. In the meanwhile we extract and transcribe the more important of them from the old review in the *Knickerbocker*. They are substantially as follows:

Two witnesses, according to M. Beauchesne, testify positively as to the death of the Prince, viz.: Lasne and Gomin. They tell us that they were his attendants, the one from the 31st of March, 1793, the other from the 8th of November, 1794, to the day of his death. They further minutely describe the condition of the Prince from the 5th to the 8th of June (there is a blank in Beauchesne's account from the 1st to the 5th), and then his last moments, and the hour and the minute when he died. In the eloquent language of his biographer, "Lasne put his hand upon the heart of the child. The heart of Louis Seventeenth had ceased to beat! It was two hours and a quarter after midday." As these persons were both in the Temple before the 29th of May, 1775, it is evident that they both knew the real Prince. As they were constantly and solely in attendance, it is evident that no exchange could have been brought about without their knowledge. As they testify explicitly and positively that no exchange did take place, and that Louis XVII. died on the 8th of June, in the Temple, there is no ground for mistake. We must therefore conclude, either that Louis XVII. died as they describe, or that their statements are wilfully false. What, then, are the facts, in the nature of circumstantial evidence, which tend to discredit this positive testimony and throw a doubt upon the alleged death of Louis XVII.?

The eminent physician Desault attended the Prince up to the 29th of May, 1775. He had known him and been his medical attendant before his imprisonment. His character is beyond suspicion, and his evidence beyond doubt. Both parties agree that his testimony is to be taken as absolute truth. Desault found the Prince worn and emaciated, showing little intelligence, and preserving a continued silence. Although he made every effort to arouse his faculties and win his affection, the child gave no stronger sign of mental power than feebly taking hold of his coat as he was about to leave the room. On the night of the 29th of May, Desault died. *Subsequently to this, the child in the Temple seems to have talked frequently*, as is shown by at least Lasne, Gomin, Bellanger, and the physicians Pelletan and Dumagin. Nor had his disease been subject to sudden changes, as the account of the first visit of Laurent, nearly a year before his death, sufficiently shows. "The noise around him," says Laurent, "made him tremble, but he did not stir. He answered no question. He was conscious of nothing. He breathed. His open eyes had no expression. Their color had changed. He had the look not of a fool, but of an idiot." In addition to this, the evidence of the physicians shows *that the child dissected by them had died with unimpaired intellect.* "The brain and its dependencies," says the *procès-verbal*, "were in their most perfect integrity." The evidence incontrovertibly shows that on or about the first of June a sudden change took place, and continued till his death.

Next in the chain of circumstantial evidence is the alleged change in the physical condition of the Prince. It may be summed up in two sentences: First, Desault testifies that the Prince had "the germ of scrofulous affection," and that the malady had "scarcely imprinted its seal on his constitution, nor manifested itself with any violent symptoms—neither vast ulcers, nor rebellious ophthalmias, nor chronic swellings of the joints." Secondly, the surgeons who, ten days after the last visit of Desault, made the post-mortem examination, testify that all the appearances were "evidently the effects of a scrofulous disease of long standing, and to which the death of the child should be attributed." In support of these opinions respectively, we find, first, that Desault applied gentle remedies up to the 29th of May, recommended air and exercise, and, according to the Duchesse d'Angoulême, "undertook to cure" the Prince. Secondly, that Pelletan, on the 5th of June, found the child so low that he instantly called in a consulting physician—M. Dumagin, chief physician of the Hospital of the Unity. The eminence of all these physicians precludes a doubt as to professional errors or intentional misrepresentations. We have the undoubted proof *that a very great change had taken place in a period of seven days, which is not noticed, explained, or mentioned by the attendants, Lasne and Gomin.*

Next as to the circumstances attendant on the death or disappearance of the Dauphin. First—The Government separated the Prince from the rest of his family. Secondly—They appointed a keeper, a friend of Marat, known from his hatred of the royal race. Thirdly—This man was obliged to become a prisoner in the Temple; he was not even allowed to go to his own home except when guarded by a file of soldiers. Fourthly—The Government set apart as large a sum for the expenses of keeping and guarding the child as for all the other members of the family. Fifthly—A system of espionage was established, intricate, troublesome, and expensive. Paris was divided into forty districts; from each district one Commissioner was elected. A Commissioner visited the Temple each day, and each Commissioner visited it but once. With his single visit his term of office ended. Sixthly—Toward the end of the supposed existence of the Prince, the three most eminent physicians in France were appointed his attendants. Whatever was the motive, an intent of preservation is apparent.

It is next to be noted that the Comte de Provence, the uncle of the Prince and his heir, en

deavored (whatever his motive may have been) to obtain possession of his nephew. It is an undoubted fact that he at that time had emissaries in Paris, foremost among whom was the Comte de Fenouil. Now, of the three persons who were in attendance on the Prince, Gomin was a royalist, Lasne a moderate republican, afterward employed by the Comte de Provence, while Bellanger had been his ornamental painter. It has been alleged that these persons obtained an entrance to the prison of the Dauphin through the intrigues of the Comte de Fenouil; and all this raises a presumption of the intent on the part of the Comte de Provence to procure the escape of the Dauphin, and on the part of the Government to connive at it.

But at this time a very startling event occurred in this drama. Desault, within a few hours of his last visit to the Prince, died. It is again to be remarked that he was personally acquainted with the Prince; was a physician of eminent reputation and a man of stainless integrity. M. Beauchesne asserts that he died of ataxic fever; Mr. Hanson, that he was poisoned by the Government. Aside from the suddenness and the singularity of his death at this particular time, there is no evidence indicating that it was unnatural, unless we except statements said to have been made in this country several years ago, by M. Abeille, the pupil of Desault. But there is one circumstance to be noted, which is, that the death of Desault was falsified in the records of the Government. Whatever may have been the motive, it was registered (as is shown by Beauchesne) four days later than it actually occurred. During these four days no physician attended the Prince, and of them the account of Beauchesne is silent.

The conduct of the royal family, it is alleged, was equivocal, suspicious, and irreconcilable with a belief in the death of the Dauphin. Although the highest marks of respect were paid to the memory of Louis XVI., Marie Antoinette, and the Duc d'Enghien, none were given to the last, though youthful, King. In the graves of the two former quick-lime had been emptied, and hundreds of victims buried over them and around them to obliterate the spot. The grave of the Dauphin could have been easily discovered, and the surgeons' examination of the skull afforded certain proof to identify the remains: yet while the supposed dust of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette was exhumed, to be reburied with stately pomp and studied mourning, the bones of Louis XVII., in an obscure cemetery, unmarked by a single memorial, still rest like those of a common pauper.

Again, Pelletan, the physician, carried from the post-mortem examination the heart of the child who died in the Temple, and he offered it to the King as the heart of the Dauphin. An inquiry was instituted, in which Lasne testified that he was present at the examination, and nothing was carried away. The evidence, although contradictory, can be reconciled; for the statement of Lasne amounts to nothing more than that he observed closely, and did not see anything taken. Pelletan was a physician of the highest standing, and entitled to belief, yet Louis XVIII. adopted the statement of Lasne, and rejected the relic.

More interesting, if not more clear, are the admissions to be derived from the conduct of the Duchesse d'Angoulême. She was a woman of dauntless energy, unwavering resolution, and possessed of self-command beyond the ordinary measure of her sex or race. She was dignified, stern, conscientious, believing fully in the religion which she professed, and devoted to the system of which her family was the exponent. So greatly, indeed, did she possess these qualities, that Bonaparte is reported to have said of her that she was the only man in her family. Her position was as peculiar as her character. She was the daughter of the murdered King, the niece of the reigning one, the sister of the rightful Prince, and the wife of the heir-apparent. Like Louis XVIII., she erected no monument and allowed the heart produced by Pelletan to be retained by his family. We cannot discover a single act indicating the sisterly regard which would naturally be shown toward the remains of a brother. Yet to the other members of her family who had been the victims of the Revolution, no testimonials that an affection almost fanatical could prompt were unpaid. For her cousin, the Duc d'Enghien, once a week for months she had masses performed, and repaired to her chapel to pray for his soul. It is truly said, in reply to this, that the like offices were unnecessary, according to the tenets of the Catholic faith, for the soul of a child. But, while this is true, it nevertheless shows a carelessness in regard to her brother strangely at variance with the fervor of the devotion which she rendered to what she deemed the sacred victims of an unholy rebellion.

To the Duchesse, Naundorff preferred his claim. Repeated were his applications for a personal interview, and repeated her refusals. To every request she returned not a decided negative, but a condition that he should send her the documentary evidence he pretended to possess. At one time she appears to have deemed a personal interview with the King of Prussia necessary to resolve her doubts. Whenever this subject was brought to her notice, strong agitation is said to have shaken her enduring frame. From her character and conduct, two inferences may be drawn—firstly, that she would never have consented to deprive her brother of his rights, and that her agitation was due to the love she bore him and the horrors he had endured; secondly, that she did assent to the surrender of his rights from motives of state policy, but, in the unbending pride of her nature, scorned to render those testimonials of respect and love to the unknown dust of the supposititious Prince which she would eagerly have given to a murdered brother and the heir of her kingly race.

IRISH TROUBLES AND ENGLISH OPINION ABOUT THEM.

LONDON, January 23.

DURING the last six or eight months Ireland has been more free from agrarian and political crime than for a long time before. Whether owing to the benefits extended to the tenants by the Land Act of 1881, or to the terror inspired by the Prevention of Crimes Act of 1882, or to the reaction that naturally followed upon the violent agitation which prevailed from the establishment of the Land League until the passing of the latter measure, or to all these causes taken together, there have been singularly few murders or other outrages, and also, through the three most frequently disturbed provinces, singularly few conflicts between the police and any section of the people, or between different factions. Nevertheless the Irish problem has not become less menacing. It still overshadows the other troubles which our statesmen have to confront, and is mixing itself up in a bothersome way with political questions which formerly affected England and Scotland only.

In the Parliamentary session on whose brink we now stand, Irish affairs are likely to become prominent in three forms. The first of these relates to the administration of Lord Spencer, and particularly to the prohibition of political meetings in the northern counties. Ever since Mr. Healy, one of the ablest and most bitter members of the Parnellite party, was elected to the House of Commons last spring for the County of Monaghan in Ulster, it has been the prime object of that party to win Ulster, and to eject from Ulster constituencies the Liberals and Tories who divide its representation between them. Although the upper classes in that province are nearly all Tories, and the middle classes, especially the tenant farmers, mostly Presbyterians, Scotch by descent and Liberals in politics, there is a large substratum of Roman Catholics who would support an extreme Home-Rule candidate, and the enterprise of gaining over to the same side a part of the Protestant tenantry does not seem hopeless. Accordingly the Parnellite party has begun to hold meetings and preach Home-Rule doctrines in the Ulster counties. This incensed the Tory party in the North, a party whose composition deserves to be explained. It is led by the nobility and squirearchy, who are nearly all Episcopalians and fierce Conservatives, while the rank and file are supplied by the artisans and small shopkeepers in the towns, with some tenant farmers in the country districts—persons who are either Episcopalians or Presbyterians, and largely belong to the Orange organization. The Orangemen have thus the force which belongs both to an aristocratic and a democratic body. Their chiefs are men of rank, wealth, and influence, who have, unfortunately for the peace of the country, been permitted to keep in their hands the local government and the best places. The rest, the humbler followers, have the strength which comes of obedience to leaders, good organization, ignorant fanaticism, and the fierce courage which fanaticism produces in men of a hardy race. They are fond of a fight, and formidable in a fight, having on their side the recollection of two centuries of domination over the Roman Catholic aborigines. The smouldering rage of the Ulster Orangemen at the progress of the Home-Rule agitation was kindled into a flame by the visit of Sir Stafford Northcote, who had been taken into Ireland on one of those talking tours which have grown so common lately among us. Though he, being a man of peace and gentleness, and knowing the dangerous nature of the soil he was treading on, carefully abstained from irritating or inflammatory language, the mere fact of his presence as the leader of the Tory party, and of their assembling in large meetings to welcome him, stirred the susceptible hearts of the Orangemen, whose landlord chiefs took every opportunity of appealing to them to show their hatred to Mr. Parnell and their loyalty to the British Crown.

The opportunity was given when the Parnellite meetings began. A certain Rossmore, a zealous Orange squire, called on his brethren not to permit disloyal meetings to be held, and ever since then every political gathering held by the Home Rulers in Ulster or on its borders has been threatened with attack. In some instances the Government have forbidden the meetings, not necessarily as disapproving of them, but conceiving that they are likely to lead to breaches of the peace. In others they have allowed them to go on, and sought to protect them by putting large bodies of troops on the ground, charged to repel any onslaught of the so-called Loyalists. Such conduct seems tolerably good evidence of impartiality. No one but an Orangeman can suppose that Lord Spencer desires to favor and assist that Nationalist party which has continued to inveigh against his administration for the last eighteen months, and which accuses him of causing the death of many innocent victims, viz., the persons executed for agrarian and political assassinations. No one but a heated Nationalist can fail to recognize the wish to see fair play which has

led him to protect Home-Rule meetings, even at the risk of incensing that part of the population which is most attached to the British connection. However, Lord Spencer and the Government are attacked from both sides with equal vehemence. The Orangemen say that he is playing into the hands of Mr. Parnell. The Parnellites complain that their meetings have occasionally been prohibited, and declare that no justice can be had from him or his chief secretary. In any country but Ireland it would be felt that these opposite accusations, the one set as sincere as the other, answered each other, and proved that the aim of the Viceroy had been to treat both parties alike and seek only the preservation of order. But in Ireland this is not felt. The middle party is small there. People have mostly ranged themselves in one or other of the two hostile camps: that moderating influence of an uncommitted public opinion, which judges public men according to their behavior from day to day, is all but extinct. We hear, therefore, that in the first nights of the session two attacks are to be made by Irish members on the Government. The Nationalists will condemn its whole policy since the passing of the Crimes Act. The Orange members, seconded by the weight of the whole Tory party, will complain of its leniency to the Nationalists, and the discouragement it has inflicted on the "loyal Protestants" of the North. At this moment numerous addresses are being presented by the Orangemen to Lord Rossmore, commending his action in calling on the Protestants to rise and prevent the holding of Home-Rule meetings, and sympathizing with him under the punishment which the Government inflicted on him by striking his name out of the list of magistrates. He is a young man of no personal or political note, but for the moment he is the representative of the principles which triumphed at Londonderry and on the banks of Boyne Water, and is cheered at the stations through which he travels to Belfast to receive the homage of his fellow-Episcopalians.

What do England and Scotland think of all this? In them there fortunately exists that sober class of minds which Ireland wants. Well, in England the mass of the Conservative party, sympathizing with the Irish landlords and the disestablished Episcopal Church, and hating the Parnellites and their works, applauded the Orangemen, yet without strongly censuring Lord Spencer, who is personally esteemed for the cool courage and firmness shown in his whole attitude. The Liberal party is more divided in opinion. The majority approve the policy of the Government, holding that order must be maintained at all hazards, that the Nationalists are entitled to summon their meetings so long as they do not preach outrage or sedition, and that the Orangemen are inflicting the heaviest blow on the future of Ireland when they stir up the embers of religious strife. But there are also many among the Liberals, and among those moderate men who can hardly be reckoned to either party, who own to a sneaking sympathy with the Orangemen. They are much incensed at the attitude of the Parnellites, who have not (as they think) shown any friendliness to Mr. Gladstone's Government after all it has done for the Irish peasantry, and the odium it has encountered on their behalf; who have never admitted the justice of the sentences passed on assassins, and whose sole object is to embarrass the Cabinet and Parliament by every possible means. "These inciters of outrage," they say, "and apostles of sedition, having succeeded in demoralizing the peasantry of Leinster, Munster, Connaught, have come into Ulster to stir up strife and disaffection among a hitherto quiet population. It is only natural that the loyal subjects in that province, anxious to maintain law, order, and the present connection of the three kingdoms, should rise up to oppose these revolutionaries, keep them out of the north, prevent England from supposing that the sentiments of the Roman Catholics of the north are shared by the people of Ulster. Their zeal may have outrun their discretion, but after all it is zeal in a good cause, and, though the Government must discountenance violence, it need not be sorry to see these demonstrations, which prove how far the Parnellite party are from being a truly national party." This vein of feeling among the English has always to be reckoned with, and any recrudescence of crime in Ireland would make it far stronger.

Meantime the Orangemen are making hay while the sun shines. They are holding meetings nominally to protest their loyalty to the Crown, but really to denounce Mr. Gladstone's Government. They have not suggested any counter policy, and, indeed, admit that under Lord Spencer's rule the country is unusually quiet. But they apprehend serious mischief when the question of Irish local government comes up for settlement, and declare that the Ministry is secretly in league with Mr. Parnell, and has by no means exhausted its budget of concessions to agitation. In the midst of these contending cries of Nationalist and Tory, the Irish Liberals are silent.

It looks, indeed, as if Irish Liberalism would soon come to a perpetual end, ground to powder between the upper and nether mill-stones of the two extreme parties. The seats which the Ministerialists hold, already few in number, will be contested at the next election, so say the Nationalist papers, by followers of Mr. Parnell. In the three Roman Catholic provinces these candidates will probably succeed. In Ulster the Protestant Liberals who represent the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, and Donegal may hold their ground. When a few weeks ago the Irish Solicitor-General offered himself for the county of Londonderry, the Parnellites did not oppose him, because they were incensed at the outbreak of Orangeism, and feared, by running a candidate of their own, to let an Orangeman in. But they may decide upon different tactics when the general election arrives, and conclude that their best plan is at all hazards to weaken the present Government, so that between two nearly equally balanced English parties they may the more easily secure their own objects. The result of their deciding to contest the Ulster Liberal seats, as well as those in the rest of Ireland, would probably be to annihilate the Irish Liberal party in the House of Commons, and leave some seventy or eighty Parnellites confronting some thirty Orangemen. Two or three individual Liberals would survive in respect of their personal popularity, but the party would have vanished, and with it one considerable element of moral as well as voting strength, which Mr. Gladstone has hitherto been able to count upon. There would then be practically no Irish representatives who approved his policy, but only two sets of enemies attacking it from opposite points of view—not a pleasant state of facts for a Cabinet bringing forward further Irish reforms.

The second and third topics for debate which Ireland is likely to furnish to Parliament, relate to the enlargement of the electoral franchise in her boroughs and counties, and the popularization and reform of her local self-governing institutions. These are, however, too important to be dealt with at the end of a letter. Y.

VITROLLES AND THE BOURBON RESTORATION.

PARIS, January 31, 1884.

M. EUGÈNE FORGUES, who has already published the correspondence of Lamennais, is now publishing the 'Memoirs and Political Relations of the Baron de Vitrolles.' Vitrolles was one of the most important factors of our history, in a terrible crisis; he was one of those men who appear suddenly, who disappear almost as rapidly, and who leave hardly any trace, though their action has been almost decisive. They may be compared to the machinists in a theatre; the actors are on the scene and before the public; *they* are unseen, unknown. Vitrolles threw himself in the midst of the allied sovereigns and of their ministers, in their last struggle against Napoleon, and he worked with all his heart and soul for the restoration of the ancient dynasty of the Bourbons, at a moment when the fate of France was still uncertain.

He was born in 1774 at Vitrolles. His father belonged to the *noblesse de robe*, and was Councillor in the Parlement of Provence. In 1791, when only seventeen, he enlisted in the army of Condé. He spent three years in Germany, on the shores of the Rhine, and in the Black Forest, in great misery, having no money but his pay of three sous a day. He married, nevertheless, in 1795, Mlle. de Folleville, who was the adopted daughter of the Duchess of Bouillon, and travelled with her in Germany and in England. During the period of the Empire, he returned to France, but lived in absolute retirement.

The Memoirs of Vitrolles begin with an eloquent picture of the last years of the Empire. This chapter is written in the severe style of our old historians, and, though it is at times a little pompous, it is really impressive. He succeeds well in showing how a succession of tragical events, of battles, of victories, had finally thrown France into a state of stupor: "The people learned of the victories, as of the conscriptions, by the articles in the *Moniteur* which the prefects posted on the walls. France saw these victories without pleasure, without pride. She knew at what price they were bought. There was no longer any real love of country; the Revolution had drowned it in torrents of blood shed in its name. The unmeasured extension of our frontier had weakened the national feeling. . . . Since the battle of Marengo, there had been nothing for France in the enterprises and the victories of Bonaparte." Each victory of Napoleon cost France the loss of a liberty. M. de Vitrolles had made the acquaintance in Paris of a few men who dared to express doubts on the final triumph of the Napoleonic policy. One of them was the Duc de Dalberg, nephew of the Archbishop of Mainz, who had been made Duke and Councillor of State by Napoleon; the others were the Abbé Louis and the famous Talleyrand, who was a friend of Dalberg. Mme. de Vaudemont, the last representative in France of the old house of Lorraine, had a salon where they often met. The secret enemies of Napoleon had no relations with the Bourbon princes. One evening, at Mme. de Vaudemont's, Dalberg, furious with the Emperor for an insulting speech made to his wife, spoke of them to Talleyrand: "Well," said he, "how will they be for us?" "Have they," added the Abbé Louis, "forgotten the mass of the 14th of July [the mass of the Federation, at which Talleyrand had officiated as Bishop of Autun]?"

The English papers were prohibited in France. From a number which fell into his hands, however, Vitrolles learned that M. le Comte d'Artois (who became Charles X.) had left for the Continent on the 25th of January, 1814; the Duc d'Angoulême had also left England for the

south of France. Vitrolles resolved to leave Paris and to try to find Monsieur. When he took this resolution, negotiations were beginning at Châtillon between Napoleon and the allies.

"You see," said Talleyrand to Dalberg, "how ignorant Europe is of our situation—ignorant of what she can do, ignorant of what she ought to do. She opens negotiations with the man she ought to crush, and at the moment when she could end with him. He will be more clever than Europe; peace will be signed, and what will become of us? He suspects our wishes, he will never forgive us. We must at any price instruct the allied sovereigns, and let them know the danger of these negotiations. But how? How can we find a person who can come near them, inform them, reassure them, and give them courage and hope?"

In vain did Dalberg ask Talleyrand to give Vitrolles some letter of introduction, or even a seal with his arms. Dalberg himself wrote in sympathetic ink two words on a portfolio, which were to be shown to Count Stadion, Minister of Austria at the Congress of Châtillon (these two words were the names of two ladies whom Stadion and Dalberg had known at Vienna); he gave Vitrolles also two lines for Nesselrode, and a seal with his arms. Vitrolles was not accredited in any other way, and Dalberg even asked him not to name him to Metternich, with whom he was not on good terms. Vitrolles took a passport for the Basses-Alps, and started under the pretext of going to his family. He left on the 6th of March by diligence. I will not relate here all his adventures on the way. He succeeded in reaching Count Stadion, who told him at once that Metternich could not be kept out of the secret. Stadion was very hostile to Napoleon, and entered readily into the views of Vitrolles; he put him in communication with Metternich and Nesselrode. The two names which Vitrolles had shown had convinced him. Metternich was at first more doubtful, but he said to Vitrolles: "If you were sent here by Bonaparte or by Savary, I would speak to you as I will now: all is open now, our intentions are known; we wish them to be made public." He explained how the alliance had been formed against the boundless ambition of Napoleon. The conditions of peace could only be such as would secure the equilibrium of Europe: Russia, Austria, France must be well balanced; Prussia must acquire new territories; Holland must be again a nation. Vitrolles answered that "'no diplomatic combinations, no treaties could secure peace; the wishes of France must also be consulted. She was tired of Napoleon, who had himself been obliged to prorogue his Chambers. . . . In short, there could be no peace with Bonaparte, and there could be no France without the Bourbons. . . . The ministers looked at each other: it was the first time that the name of Bourbon had been pronounced. After a little silence, Metternich spoke first and said: 'We have been in France for two months, and we find among the people nothing to justify your declarations. There seems to be no regret for the past, no expressions of discontent with the present. We have, it is true, seen a few *émigrés*, who ask us very timidly if it is our intention to bring back the King. But they leave us without a word when we tell them that we have no such desire.'"

Vitrolles was playing a terrible game. It was quite clear that his mission could not long be kept secret from Napoleon. If the kings and emperors made their peace with him, Vitrolles was a lost man: he could only save his head by a voluntary exile. We cannot wonder if, once engaged in his dangerous enterprise, he put all his energy into his work. What Metternich said was very true, and we have seen the same thing in our times. So many revolutions have swept the soil of France that the peasant is always cautious and uneasy; he dares not say what he hates or what he loves, what he fears or what he hopes. After the war of 1870, when the Germans covered the third part of France, I went from Brittany to Bordeaux, and from Bordeaux to Paris, and I was not able anywhere to discern what were the real sentiments and wishes of the peasantry touching the future of France. Metternich in 1814 felt how dangerous it would be for the allies themselves to give a new government to a conquered nation. The stigma of foreign pressure was always on the Restoration Government, and it soon became a vulgar invective to say that the Bourbons had been brought back in the "fourgons des Cosaques." The conversations of Metternich with Vitrolles possess deep interest, as they show us the principal statesman of the Coalition face to face with numberless difficulties. Metternich discussed with Vitrolles the new frontiers of France. Vitrolles said that it would be fatal to the Bourbons not to give them as much as would be given to Napoleon. Metternich did not deny it; he admitted vaguely the possibility of giving to France a part of the countries lying between the Moselle and the Rhine, and even to add Luxembourg to it. As for Belgium, he would not hear of it, especially on account of Antwerp.

Vitrolles's mission was two-fold: it was not enough for him to see the allies, he wished to see the Comte d'Artois. He first wrote to him, and Metternich offered to send the letter through the Austrian generals who were in Franche-Comté. While he was waiting for an answer, he had an interview with the Emperor Alexander; he spoke to him as he had done to Metternich. The Emperor was cold. He praised Vitrolles's loyalty to the French royal family, but added: "The obstacles which now separate the Princes of the house of Bourbon from the throne seem to me insurmountable. They would come back embittered by misfortune, and, even if they could sacrifice their resentment, they could not moderate those who have suffered for them and by them. . . . The spirit of the army, so powerful in France, would be opposed to them; the new generations would have a spirit adverse to theirs. The Protestants would not see their return without fear and without opposition. The spirit of the times is not with them." Then he added suddenly: "Besides, do you know the Princes of the royal family?" Vitrolles said that he did not; that as a soldier in the army of Condé he had only known the three generations of this family. The Emperor said: "If you knew them, you would be persuaded that the burden of such a crown would be too heavy for them." He then spoke of other candidates—of Bernadotte, of Eugène Beauharnais—even of a republic: "A republic, wisely organized, would perhaps suit the French mind. It is not in vain that ideas of liberty have germinated so long in a country like yours." Vitrolles was astounded; he almost despaired of his cause. He spoke with eloquence, with fire, and he saw by degrees that his emotion was communicative. He told Alexander not to make an ordinary war, a strategical war—to make it political; to go straight to Paris, and, once there, to allow French opinion to manifest itself: "I will leave my head in the hands of your Majesty if this opinion does not pronounce itself for the reëstablishment of monarchy." Alexander was seduced by this idea of making the war more political than strategical, and to show himself in Paris, not as the enemy but as the friend of the French people. "I leave to-night," said he, "for the headquarters of Prince Schwartzenberg. I promise you that our conversation will have great results."

The negotiations at Châtillon soon came to an end. Vitrolles became all the more important. The allied ministers were so isolated that they were extremely anxious to enter into relations with Frenchmen. The sovereigns declared that they would treat no more with Napoleon, and Vitrolles was among them the voluntary advocate of the Bourbons. They all felt or thought that behind Vitrolles was Talleyrand, who had so long been the arbiter of Europe. Vitrolles had gained much, but so far he had not bound his action with the action of the Princes. He saw Monsieur for the first time at Nancy. His credentials to him were a few words written on a piece of gauze by Mme. de Durfort, a letter of Metternich, and a ring with the device "God and the King." M. de Vitrolles was well received. He says himself, not very modestly: "I brought a kingdom, and it was felt." He urged Monsieur to seize at once the royal authority in the provinces in the name of the King, to summon all his friends, to form an administration. He explained to him men and things in France. All was new to Monsieur; he was a stranger in his own country. On his side, he explained to Vitrolles who these Bourbons were whom he had undertaken to replace in their old station.

GERMAN POLITICS.

BERLIN, January 29, 1884.

OUR political situation has not undergone any essential change since the beginning of the new year. People begin to enjoy peace, and the apprehensions of war into which they had been frightened last year are losing ground. The general aspects are, in fact, more cheerful, although the Government continues to undo what was done in the decade of 1868 to 1878. The Landtag is discussing new taxes, which in the interest of our agrarians are to be laid on the capitalists and the "bloated bondholders"; and Bismarck, although daily receiving his own ministers and foreign ambassadors, passes his leisure hours in reading the works of the Abbé Lamennais. Think of that mystical, obscure, and visionary priest, and the sober, empirical, and clear-headed Chancellor! Whoever takes part in public affairs is uneasy if not despondent, and nobody knows how the present state of affairs will end. One expects wonders from the death of the Emperor; another waits for the retirement of the Chancellor, or for the return to his policy of former days, although these latter events will never happen. The transactions of our parliamentary bodies are dull and uninteresting; in short, it is the reaction of the popular mind against the enthusiasm of the late war, and against the excitement of roused passions. The same state of feeling prevails in other nations, too, which have undergone heavy convulsions and internal revolutions. Under another name, perhaps, but in essentially the same way, you likewise witnessed the same anxieties and the utter sterility of the law-making power for several years after your war was over. Whatever Bismarck could do he has done to discard the laws of his liberal period; but he is far from having been successful. Here and there a new reactionary plank has been inserted into a section of an old liberal law: but as yet he has not been able to destroy the ground and framework. On January 1st the new law regulating the industrial and professional trades (*Gewerbe-Ordnung*) went into effect. One of its chief amendments is the restriction of the hitherto unembarrassed movements of peddlers and commercial travellers. The police have succeeded in dealing with them as severely as possible. The peddler, by the new law, is required to show his stock to any police authority, and to give a catalogue of his books. In Frankfort on the Oder our holy Hermandad took offence at and confis-

cated, among others, two prominent and (to use the police slang) two "moral" magazines, viz., Spemann's *Vom Fels zum Meer*, a monthly of the character of *Harper's Magazine*; and Schorer's *Familien-Blatt*, a weekly, beautifully illustrated, and full of useful information. The former has 48,000 and the latter 75,000 subscribers. The police did not consider them moral enough, and forbade their sale by peddlers. The cry against this outrage was so loud that the Regierungs-Präsident (Chief of the Government Circle) had to apologize for his subordinates. In the Kingdom of Saxony the provision of the law, that peddlers infected with contagious diseases, and of a revolting (*abschreckenden*) appearance shall not be allowed to solicit customers, was, without a shadow of law, extended to commercial travellers, who were without notice taken before the police and stripped, in order to be searched and examined. In this instance, too, the Government was compelled by general indignation to revoke an unjust interpretation of the law.

You have no idea of the indifference, if not stupidity, of those whose interest lies in this direction. If they are not injured personally, they do not move, and even take delight in the damages suffered by others. It is a sorry tribute to the intellect of German publishers that, instead of fighting betimes the attacks of the reactionary parties on the free sale of books, and instead of standing like one man in the maintenance of their common interest, the most prominent among them pointed out those whose publications ought to be prosecuted—provided, of course, that their own books and periodicals remained undisturbed. A friend of mine who is a member of the Reichstag, and manfully fought for free colportage, told me that he had received dozens of remonstrances alleging that he had been too radical in his views, that he had better confine himself to the confiscation of obscene literature; and now the first blow of the police has fallen upon one who remonstrated in this way.

The new bill for regulating hunting (*Jagdordnung*), too, now before the Prussian Landtag, has no prospect of passing. It is dictated by the most feudal views, for the exclusive benefit of the large eastern landholders. You can have no idea of the ravages made by the deer and wild boar on the fields of poor people in the neighborhood of deer parks, who nevertheless are not allowed to guard themselves against the game by shooting it, and are even criminally punished for so doing. A majority of Liberals and Conservatives have declared themselves against that bill, the latter in anticipation of their defeat in the coming campaign if they should sustain such a law. One after another the Conservatives dropped off when they saw the impossibility of carrying the measure for the Government.

The conflict with Rome is further than ever from being settled. *L'appétit vient en mangeant*, and the Ultramontanes are still asking more, while the Government answers that it has done enough to show its good-will toward the Roman Church. The agitation of our Ultramontanes is therefore kept up with the old phrases and with empty declarations. On the other hand, Minister Gossler, a few days ago, in reply to an interpellation of the Centre in the Landtag, positively declared that the two most obnoxious archbishops—viz.: those of Cologne and Posen—would never be pardoned, while the Bishop of Münster had lately been allowed to return to his flock. This is the first sign of manhood which a Prussian Minister has manifested in this respect for the last four years. The "Chaplain's Press" of course cried out that the days of Falk had returned, and that the Roman Catholic Church was still a victim of Prussian cruelty. This is sheer nonsense. I think that the Government has yielded much more than was necessary. The charge, too, that Catholics, in consequence of the removal of their disobedient priests, were unable to worship, is just now a shallower pretext than ever, since hundreds, if not thousands, of clergymen (as many as have applied for reinstatement) have been reappointed. Besides, a Government cannot reasonably be called partial, and unjust toward the Catholics, which among its commanding generals, ministers of state, and high civil dignitaries numbers proportionally as many Catholics as Protestants. The real fact is that even the most tolerant grows tired of concessions. Bismarck, of course, is only indulgent so far as he can gain valuable considerations. If he gets them, he will do everything—*quantum mutatus ab illo!*—to please Rome. He holds a few more trumps in his hand, and if he can play them to advantage he will do so without the least scruple. His end is to gain the parliamentary support of the Centre, which at present, by coöperating with the Conservatives, commands a small majority in the House. Any other reason does not influence him. People have consequently lost all confidence in their former leader. The whole conflict with Rome is already stagnant. If the Chancellor ever again appeals to the Liberals, he will meet with utter coldness and indifference. The only question of interest in this diplomatic game of bluff is which of the antagonists will be prompt and sharp enough to outwit the other. In all other respects the details of the struggle are disgusting, and do not deserve notice.

The Conseil Supérieur (*Volkswirthschaftsrath*) has once more been in session during the last few days and will shortly close its sittings. It was convened to give its opinion on the bill of accident insurance by and for the different trades. What distinguishes this august body from parliamentary assemblies is, that even before arriving in Berlin they are earnestly entreated to despatch business, and not to sit longer than a few days. As even the Landtag refused to grant salaries and travelling expenses to these gentry, they are politely invited by the minister to come at their own expense, and, despite all obloquy, to sacrifice their valuable time for so patriotic a purpose. But, alas! in this sinful world, appeals of this sort are at a heavy discount, and only 50 per cent. of the immortal original number packed their lunch-boxes and purchased a ticket for Berlin. The Stettin porter who had been appointed by the King's pleasure, could not afford to come, being short of petty cash, and to another of this meritorious class of private officers the company in whose service he earns his daily bread refused him the desired furlough, under the pretext that he was such a consummate blockhead that he would discredit the town from which he came. Why the other councillors do not defray the travelling expenses of their poorer brethren, I cannot understand. In my opinion a gentleman, if he be only a porter, who knows all about trade and commerce, manufacturing and shipping, agriculture and finance, railroad matters and telegraphic improvements, and can make any number of speeches or give opinions on them, is worth at least a dozen crowns. Let me, finally, state that the majority of these sages were from the beginning in conflict with their creator, and were even so disrespectful as openly to oppose his bill. The fact is, that at the head of this conspiracy (in Bismarck's eyes every male citizen is a conspirator who does not fully and most unequivocally endorse his views) stand the manufacturers. They smell the rat: there is money in the bill—not for, but against them; and the Government will finally compel them to foot it. †††

Correspondence.

THE 'BREADWINNERS' AND 'DEMOCRACY.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The authorship of the 'Breadwinners' is, as I see by a paragraph now going the rounds of the press, to be kept from the public. While I do not intend to hazard any guess as to who the author is, I would like to surmise that the 'Breadwinners' is by the same hand as 'Democracy,' the novel which some years ago had a certain degree of success in this country, and a very great success in England. 'Democracy' was a sketch of Washington social and political life, evidently written by some one familiar with it. The 'Breadwinners' is a sketch of Cleveland social and political life, also written by one quite at home in it. I am by no means an admirer of either book; yet in both there is the same strong, coarse, Nast-like drawing of aspect and characters in social and political life which comes directly home to every people. The work is crude, and there are few fine touches to it. It is always provokingly near the verge of being very good, and yet distinctly never is very good. In 'Democracy,' as in the 'Breadwinners,' we feel conscious of the same keen, observant eye, working through a hand which is quite lacking in training, and which also, either naturally or from indolence, is unequal to a sustained effort. I fancy it would be safe to guess that the author had worked on a newspaper. He certainly has seen a good deal of politicians, and was never a man of business. That he was once in the army is plain. Who he is, I have not the remotest idea. A.

Boston, February 8.

MONGOLIAN AND INDIAN NOSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of January 3d, the critic of Mr. Gilmour's 'Mongols' hazards the supposition that their flat noses may have arisen from their peculiar way of eating meat. Allow me to say that it is the custom of the wild Sioux to partake of flesh in this way—in fact, was the universal custom; but their noses have remained a most prominent feature, and the more one "knows" of the Dakotas, the more the exceeding great number of extremely large noses impresses him. Roman noses are a prevailing feature, but the hooked or (what we are led to suppose from illustrations of the nose of our Jewish brethren) Jewish nose is well represented. The "turned up," or Milesian, also is not uncommon, but always large and prominent. So the perilous mode of conveyance that Mr. Gilmour describes cannot have modified the size of his Mongolian's nose.—Very truly yours,

M. A. Swift.

South Le Beau, Dakota Territory,
February 11, 1884.

GUIDES TO WHIST-PLAYING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am past forty and have begun in time to prepare for a happy old age by learning whist. Now, can any of your readers give me the name of a manual which makes a sharp distinction between those playing-rules laid down for the sake of securing uniformity of practice among players, and those other playing-rules by following which a man wins more tricks than he otherwise would? Allow me to make my mean-

ing clearer by referring to two practices which prevail among drivers. The driver turns to the right (in America) on meeting another vehicle, and not to the left (as they do in Rome), just because "stern custom has decreed" it shall be the right and not the left; but he sits on a high cushion for quite another kind of reason—namely, in order that he may see the road better.—Yours truly, V. R.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 11, 1884.

[So far as our information goes, there is no work on whist which treats separately the two classes of rules; but as all good books on whist give the reasons for the rules, the learner may distinguish and classify for himself without great difficulty. In Mr. Buckland's most elementary and excellent 'Whist for Beginners' (London: Allen; New York: Scribner & Welford), the advice as to playing is ample, and the advice as to "uniformity of practice," by which we suppose our correspondent means the scientific method of playing both partners' hands as one, is necessarily very slight. Both "Cavendish" and the slightly bumptious but very acute book on 'American Whist' (Boston: Osgood) ought also to be consulted.—ED. NATION.]

THE ABUSE OF LAW-MAKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The excellent article in last week's *Nation* on the subject of "Excessive Legislation" leads me to call attention to the mischievous competition, especially manifest of late among members of the Legislature, in getting laws passed, to the end, chiefly, of gaining credit with constituents for industry and efficiency. At the close of each session, lists of achievements in this line are paraded by members or their friends, with something of the pride shown by savages in multiplying the scalps of enemies on their belts. Last year most of the newspapers hereabouts published such lists, and the public were called upon to admire their lawgivers according to the degree of their activity and success in lumbering the statute book. The worth, the need, of the laws thus held up as passports to popular confidence and esteem seemed to be regarded as of secondary importance, or of no importance at all. Now, members of the Legislature are not alone at fault here. The voters must take a good share of blame to themselves for the establishment of this foolish test of legislative usefulness, and this fact shows the necessity of just such work as is being done by the Society for the Promotion of Political Education.

JOHN H. MAGEE.

SCOTTSBURGH, N. Y., February 17, 1884.

DOCTORS IN COURT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That doctors have in some cases forfeited the confidence of all respectable people by consenting to certify to the insanity of people whom they knew to be sane, is doubtless true. That they have also frequently made mistakes in their diagnosis of insanity is likewise true.

The true remedy against the evils of the present system would, it seems to me, be found in the appointment of a Commission on Lunacy in each State. This Commission might be composed both of medical and non-medical men; but it should be composed of men of recognized integrity, intelligence, and impartiality. To this Commission appeals should be taken from the decision of the physicians who have previously adjudged a person insane, when such decision is questioned.

It seems almost self-evident that men who have devoted much of their time to the study of mental diseases, and who have had long experience in dealing with the insane, should be better qualified to decide whether or not a man is insane than a jury as ordinarily composed. Yet any one would naturally infer from reading the article entitled "Doctors in Court," which appeared in your issue of the 7th inst., that you believe that the scientific study of mental diseases naturally disqualifies a man for holding the position of an arbiter between the person suspected to be of unsound mind and those who have caused him to be confined in an asylum. Certainly you will be the last to admit that training in any other vocation, except that of the "alienist," disqualifies a man for forming a sound opinion upon questions connected with that calling. Why an exception to the general rule should be made in this particular case it is hard to understand.

The rights of the insane must be respected, but the safety of the community at large must be respected as well. If, therefore, a man has been proved to be under the delusion that he is constantly annoyed by imaginary enemies, and shows a tendency to mistake real persons for these imaginary enemies—as I believe was actually the case with regard to young Meredith—the responsibility of giving him entire freedom of intercourse with his fellows is a very grave one. Such a person demands and should receive our warmest sympathy, but it is not a case that should be put on the same footing as the case of a real or supposed criminal. The fact of the existence of such a form of insanity being once satisfactorily proved by the unanimous consent of those best qualified to give an opinion upon the subject, it would seem that an appeal to the sympathy of the jury was no longer in place, and that an intelligent judge could no longer have any doubt as to the action that should be taken in the matter.

In conclusion, the writer must confess that he was surprised to find that the editor of the *Nation*, a journal which has always borne the reputation among American journals for enlightenment and liberality of judgment, gave countenance to the vulgar prejudice against trained medical experts. S. H.

PHILADELPHIA, February 9, 1884.

["S. H.," it is hardly necessary to say, is a physician. We shall not attempt to discuss his "surprise" at our giving countenance to what he calls the "vulgar prejudice" against medical experts, because he does not undertake to give any reason for this emotion on his part. We have given several reasons for thinking that the prejudice has a good deal to rest upon; *e. g.*, that alienists are in most cases paid to make out a case of insanity or the reverse. If we are right, the prejudice is not vulgar. On the other hand, "S. H." should, if we are wrong for reasons which he is able to state, give them, and not confine himself to expressing surprise—an inconclusive species of argument. That a Commission on Lunacy, composed of medical and non-medical men, would give us any better machinery than the courts of justice, aided by physicians, now afford, we doubt. Probably, as such bodies are generally constituted, it would be inferior. But if "S. H." thinks the prejudice against alienists vulgar, why in the world does he want any non-medical men on his commission?—ED. NATION.]

THE NEW PUBLIC-LANDS PROBLEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 24th, you refer to the resolution passed by the House, under the lead of Mr. Holman, which moots the question that all the public domain shall be "disposed of under the provisions of the Homestead law only." It is a sad misfortune that so many questions of real importance prove the foot-ball of supposed partisan advantage. The dealing of the Government with the public lands is not even discussed in Congress according to its merits, but wholly on the supposed effect upon the voting public of the speeches made and policy pursued.

During the present session of Congress one bill looking toward a reconsideration of the public-land question has been offered by one of the new members from Kansas, Judge Peters. It provides for the classification of the public lands into agricultural, grazing, timber, and mineral lands. Whether its provisions are wise and practical I know not, as I have not seen the bill; but the idea of thus classifying the lands is wise. In Kansas the lands west of the 100th meridian are utterly unfit for agriculture unless the land be irrigated, and yet the present policy of the Government assumes that all these lands are as good for agricultural uses as those 100 miles east of them; and there are bills before Congress which propose to repeal all modes by which any one can secure title to any of said lands save "under the provisions of the Homestead law only." There are settlers at Dodge City, almost on the 100th meridian, who have for ten years tried to raise fruit and vegetables without the use of irrigation, and in no year has it proved possible. West of Dodge City, forty miles, is the settlement of Garden City, which depends wholly upon water from the Arkansas River to raise the crops.

Professor Snow, of the Kansas State University, in a recent article on the "Climate of Kansas," says: "Kansas may be divided into three sections in reference to its rainfall. . . . Western Kansas has from ten to fifteen inches of an average annual precipitation," which is altogether inadequate for agriculture. Kansas lies between longitude 94° 45′ and 102°; hence, west of 99° 35′ of longitude, according to Professor Snow, the rainfall is less than sixteen inches. In Colorado, with its 106,475 square miles, New Mexico, with 124,450 square miles, Arizona, with 130,800 square miles, Utah, with 109,600 square miles, Nevada, with 83,500 square miles, as well as the western third of Kansas, with 24,333 square miles—in all 579,158 square miles—there are no lands (or so nearly none as not at all to influence the problem) which can be cultivated for agricultural uses, save by irrigation; and to this immense aggregate may probably be added Wyoming and much of Montana and Idaho. One would suppose the time had arrived for the statesmen at Washington to at least devise a new public-land policy for the so nearly wholly changed character of the lands with which the Government has now to deal. The bill of Judge Peters, above referred to, may be the beginning of some sensible consideration of the question, by classification of the lands; and this need not be either an expensive or a difficult matter.

The amount of land in the States and Territories last above named which may be irrigated is not, relatively to their aggregate areas, large, but very small. That these lands should be held for disposal only "under the provisions of the Homestead law" is undoubtedly wise; but the limit of acreage to be taken by any one person should be eighty acres, in lieu of one hundred and sixty acres; for settlement must be more dense when irrigation is used, and eighty acres

would be all an ordinary farmer could utilize. The rest of the lands—nine-tenths at least of the total area—not counting the inconsiderable number of square miles of mineral and timber lands, are fit only for grazing. The natural grasses found will not sustain more than one steer to each ten or fifteen acres of land—or sixty-four to thirty-three steers to the square mile. This seems a small number of animals to be supported on a tract of land one mile square, and yet the number here stated is too large rather than the reverse. I should doubt the wisdom of selling these lands outright; but why not lease them for a term of years? Is not the whole country interested in the production of abundant, healthy, and cheap beef? Nowhere in America, at least, if in the world, can cattle be bred and put into the market so cheaply as upon the great plains which lie at the foot of the Rocky Mountains and the ranges west of them. These cattle are not the fat cattle from which the choice cuts are made, but the common meats of the packing barrel or the cheaper meats of the butcher; or they supply to the feeders of cattle, at less price than the farmer of Ohio or further e st can raise them, the animals which are fatted for export or the tables of those able to pay for good meat.

To-day the cattle men are buying up the water fronts, and great corporations or men of large means are securing control of the water, and push the man of moderate capital off the plains. All this can be obviated, and men of small capital can embark in the grazing of cattle, if the Government will only insure them some right of possession through a lease; and with the right to fence, not only more cattle can be raised, but at a less cost, for the markets of the East. Besides, the Government, leasing the land for not more than fifteen years at a time, can watch the effect of grazing on the wild grasses and prevent their destruction, which is far more important than will seem to persons unacquainted with the plains. As a nation we have dealt with our forests on the principle of "after us the deluge"; and unless a halt is called upon the grazing of the plains, and the use of its grasses is regulated, we shall see our cattle interests rise very high and rapidly, and then collapse as suddenly.

FRONTIERSMAN.

LAWRENCE, KANSAS, February 14, 1884.

THE CAUSE OF THE DEPRESSION IN BUSINESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of this week you state that the present depression in trade has been caused by abnormal activity and overproduction in certain branches of business, and that what is needed is "a redistribution of employments." This is in accordance with the accepted theories of political economy. If we would accept these theories, we must believe that the cause of the present troubles lies in the fact that we have been busy producing the wrong articles; that we have produced what was not wanted, and have failed to produce what was wanted; and that all we have to do now is to turn round and produce the things that are really called for, and all will be well again. The difficulty with this theory is that it requires us to believe that there are certain wants and demands now unsatisfied and unsupplied, not because of the lack of means to purchase but because of the scarcity of the thing to be purchased. But if there are any productions of human labor that are now scarce, they must command high prices and furnish large profits to the producers; and any capital that might now be unemployed would be hastening to secure a share of those profits. As a matter of fact, however, there is in this country at the present time an immense amount of unemployed capital, and there are no symptoms that even the shrewdest and most enterprising of its owners have any idea that there is any possible field in which they can employ it with profit to themselves.

If, however, we consider the cause of our present troubles to be an abnormal activity and overproduction, not in *certain classes* of business, but in business *generally;* if we consider that the wealthy and thrifty among our people have endeavored to do more business than the condition of the country permitted, to create more productions than the pecuniary ability of the rest of the community enabled them to consume, we have an explanation that fits the present state of the facts. A large portion of the community have been eager to accumulate wealth, to make profitable investments, to save up their income or their earnings and put them where they should bring annual returns. People have seen that factories produced for their owners large profits, and they have forthwith proceeded to build new factories in the hope of securing for themselves similar profits. In like manner capital has hastened to build new railroads, to erect new warehouses, and to extend and multiply all branches of trade and business. But the fact has been overlooked that profitable business and profitable production cannot be increased indefinitely without a corresponding increase of customers and consumers. While there has been recently an immense increase of production, the wages of the poor, which fix the limit of their ability to purchase and to consume, have not been largely increased, and the rich have sought rather an increased accumulation of wealth than a fuller gratification of their daily wants and desires. Thus, instead of one factory producing and selling at a profit a supply of products that rather fell short of than exceeded the demand for them, we have had two or three factories producing a supply much in excess of the demand, and consequently competing with each other in the endeavor to sell their surplus stock, and selling it at no profit or at a loss. Finally the factories have cut down the wages of their employees or have dismissed them altogether, and the capacity of the poor to purchase and to consume has thus been largely taken away from them, while the inclination of the rich in that direction has been lessened by the loss of their usual dividends, and thus the original mischief of overproduction has been increased and intensified.

Briefly, the theory here suggested is this—that our people have been trying to invest more capital profitably, to do more business, than their capacity and inclination to consume made possible, and that the result has been to seriously reduce that capacity and inclination, and to destroy the annual returns that capital hopes to receive from its investments and from business.

U. H. C.

BOSTON, February 9, 1884.

CABINET OFFICERS IN CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his letter of January 14 (*Nation*, No. 969) Mr. C. A. Towne, after stating with great force the advantages of giving to the Cabinet seats in Congress, gives expression to doubt on one point: "Whether it would also in time render necessary the incorporation of the other principle, ministerial responsibility, into our system, and whether such a result is to be desired, are questions pregnant with importance, and from whose discussion no harm can come." Upon this mild encouragement, and as the subject seems to be attracting some attention, I should like to say a word.

There are three attitudes which might be assumed by Cabinet officers in this novel position. First, they might be mere witnesses appearing in public session, just as they now appear before committees. But that would probably not last long, as the Secretaries would be attacked by the Opposition and taunted with the lack of any policy, while the majority would be compelled to base their defence on the support of the Secretaries, who might, therefore, secondly, be obliged to assume the guidance of legislation. Of course, no Secretary could permanently hold his place who did not command the confidence of the House; and, thirdly, in that case either individual officers or the whole Cabinet might resign and new appointments be made by the President. Now in England single members of the Cabinet do occasionally resign, yet the body in general acts as a whole and makes itself responsible for each member. This has obviously great inconveniences, as a mistake in foreign policy or finance or local government may upset a Ministry which, on the whole, commands the confidence of the country. I have never seen any satisfactory reason why this should be, but presume it arises from the facts (1) that the Ministry is practically appointed by and wholly dependent upon Parliament; and (2) that the Premier has no official authority or leadership, and that the connection is one of voluntary agreement. I can see no reason why an elected President, with whom the choice and responsibility must ultimately rest, should not change his officers singly. But suppose the whole Cabinet should resign, why should not the President appoint another, even from the opposite party, just as M. Grévy does in France? The effect upon the President's position I will consider presently. The difference of the English Ministry in case of a defeat, when they believe that the country is with them, consists in a dissolution of Parliament; and the difficulty of getting a working Ministry in France is said to lie in the circumstance that the Chamber cannot be dissolved without the consent of the Senate, and thus a defeated Ministry cannot appeal to the country. Of course, our House of Representatives cannot be dissolved, but the same purpose might be reached by our short terms. Unless an English Ministry is met immediately after an election by a hostile House (in which case it must resign, as our Cabinet would), it is rare that it does not hold out for a period of two years, when a new election would in our case come of itself.

The position of a President liable to choose his Cabinet from either party would certainly be different from what it is now, but then it is exactly what M. Grévy does without loss of dignity in France. Napoleon objected to a similar position in a constitution planned by the Abbé Sieyès, as that of a "cochon à l'engrais"; but then we do not want a Napoleon. Why should not the President be a dignified citizen, in a measure independent of party, and responsible only for the general conduct of government?

Another difficulty might arise from the fact that, if Cabinet officers were not members of the House, they might at any time by a defeat be sent into private life, and members might be unwilling to risk their seats by accepting office. Is it not conceivable that a district, proud of having its member a Cabinet officer, might make some arrangement for keeping the seat at his disposal in case of need?

These things show that it is impossible to foresee just what the course of development of the measure would be. Moreover, it is useless to try to pave the way by any kind of constitutional amendment. In the first place, supposing the end to be desired, there would be an endless and irreconcilable disagreement as to what amendments were required to obtain the

end. But the end is by no means desired. Congress, for obvious—or, if not obvious, yet inflexible—reasons, will be not only indifferent but hostile; and the hostility of Congress to any increase of responsibility, and therefore of power, in the Executive is mild compared with that which exists in the State Legislatures. To expect, therefore, to obtain favorable action in advance in this direction from twenty-seven State Legislatures would be considerably more visionary than to advocate a constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of liquor.

The first and simplest step in the process, and that which would give the country a taste that would soon grow into an appetite—namely, the presence of the Cabinet on regular days of the week on the floor of the House, just as they now appear before the committees—might be brought about any day by a simple resolution of the House. The rest might be left to time, or the first step cancelled if not satisfactory.

But even this step, simple as it seems, will never be taken by Congress of its own motion. The interests bound up with the present methods of doing business are too many and too strong to be overcome from the inside. When some strong public man shall become disgusted with the present anarchy and helplessness in Congress, and have the courage to take the stump and tell the people just what he wants, he will—provided he is of the requisite calibre, intellectual, moral, and physical—be astonished at the gigantic force which will place itself at his disposal. Butler's career in Massachusetts is pregnant with instruction; and if good men refuse to learn the lesson, they may be sure that bad men will take it out of their hands.

G. B.

Boston, February 15, 1884.

Notes.

The literary event of the week has been the actual appearance of "Part I.—A—Ant" of the 'New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,' edited by Dr. J. A. H. Murray for the Philological Society (Macmillan & Co.). This is not the time to do more than advise every one who can afford it to procure it straightway. The price of each part is $3 25, and this part, for example, deals with 8,365 words, of which 6,797 have separate articles. Its 352 pages represent a quarter of one volume of the six which the work is expected to fill. Dr. Murray's appreciation of his colaborers is very hearty and generous, and it is gratifying to observe his indebtedness to many Americans, foremost among whom is Mr. Fitzedward Hall. American authors, likewise, have been freely laid under contribution in the illustrative quotations. The typographical arrangement and impression are excellent, and worthy of the Clarendon Press. The division of the page is into three columns.

Townsend Mac Coun, 744 Broadway, publishes immediately 'The James Madison Letters, 1769-1838,' in four volumes, 8vo, a reprint of the Philadelphia edition published by order of Congress in 1865.

D. Lothrop & Co, Boston, will publish next month 'American Explorations in the Ice Zones,' by Professor J. E. Nourse, U. S. N.

Henry Holt & Co. have in press 'The Life and Poems of Theodore Winthrop,' edited by his sister.

Scribe's "Bertrand et Raton" is the latest of the French plays published by William R. Jenkins in the series "Théâtre Contemporain."

The fifth part of Mr. N. Ponce de Leon's 'English-Spanish Technological Dictionary' reaches the word Diamagnetism and the 240th page.

The submission of the Merv khans to Russia gives timeliness to the reprint by Funk & Wagnalls of O'Donovan's 'Merv Oasis.' Such is not exactly the new title, which is 'Merv,' the abbreviation suggesting the epitome which this reprint really is. The passages on pp. 184, 185, relating to the naïf dependence of the Turcomans on their very mixed and limited ordnance to meet "the possible arrival of the Russians," will repay rereading just now.

Charles Scribner's Sons have issued a very pleasing new edition of Dean Stanley's 'Lectures on the History of the Eastern Church.'

The English-reading public are to be congratulated on having an early translation of Düntzer's 'Life of Goethe,' by far the most valuable life yet produced. The task has been accomplished by Mr. Thomas W. Lyster, of the National Library of Ireland, who has proceeded in a very intelligent way, exercising considerable freedom in improving upon the original—as in quoting literally where Düntzer paraphrased—supplying foot notes which add decidedly to the value of the work, and a choice Goethe bibliography. Above all, he has furnished a copious index, which Düntzer, *more Germanico*, had neglected. The original illustrations are retained. The whole makes a plump 12mo volume of nearly 600 pages (Macmillan & Co).

Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., has put forth a new (third) edition of his "College Fetich," with supplementary matter in confirmation of his views derived from a speech to Yale Alumni by Mr. George S. Merriam, a paper by Prof. E. J. James, in the *Popular Science Monthly*, and from editorial articles in the same magazine.

In *Science* for February 1, Mr. Samuel Garman, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Cambridge, pictures a shark newly found in Japanese waters, which he is inclined to regard as typical of a new order, if not the possible "sea serpent" whose existence has given rise to so much controversy in our time. The head and shape of the body (which is less than four inches in its greatest diameter) make this a plausible suggestion, though the length of the individual in question is only five feet. Mr. Garman gives a fuller description of it, with a larger plate, in the Bulletin of the Essex Institute.

The *Art Interchange* of January 3 has a tasteful repeating design of Azaleas, which follows a happy mean between the realistic and the Morris types of decorative flower work.

The 'Plant Studies' of Mr. Haité, which we noticed some weeks since upon the prospectus, as an English publication for the use of artists (London, Quaritch), has in the first number quite justified our deprecatory prevision. The plates are poor realism and worse design, needlessly coarse in execution (considering the facility of getting good reproductions at present), and as a whole not so good as any second-rate draughtsman could do for himself.

Parts 95-100 of the new Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon (New York: L W. Schmidt) are double numbers, and, for an exception, have no maps, but the usual plates—on fowls, galvanism, garden tools, gas-machines, ordnance, etc. They carry the work well into the letter G. Among the longer articles are Prisons (*Gefängniswesen*) and Free-Trade, in which latter we find the following statement about our own country, to be denied or confirmed by those who think the task easy in the present condition of parties: "Since then (1861-67) the American tariff has, despite numerous changes, maintained a high protectionist character; and though a counter free-trade current is not lacking, the majority of the people are friendly to the protective system, because they see in it the basis of a special American political economy." Under Birth Statistics some suggestive comparisons between Germany and France occur. In 1872 the number of living births in the two countries was respectively 1,626,037 and 966,000. In the next eight years Germany never fell below its figure, France never equalled or surpassed its own but once, viz., in 1876, when 966 682 were born, against Germany's 1,757,701 (also a high water mark). Since that year France has steadily and alarmingly fallen off, in 1880 producing only 920,177. Four pages, or eight columns, are given to Galileo, which exceeds the space devoted to Frederick the Great. Gambetta (whose name Léon is said to stand for Napoléon) is disposed of in five columns, and Garibaldi in four and a half. Both characters are fairly judged, but the Italian, notwithstanding his anti-German filibustering in 1870, more sympathetically. Gallia is the chief geographical article. Fremont, Margaret Fuller, Fulton, Garrison, and Garfield are among the American names. The late President is commemorated as the "dark horse" of the convention of 1880, and just censure is passed upon his attitude toward civil-service reform in the closing year of his life.

The current number of the *Réforme Sociale* states that the correspondence of Le Play with M Charles de Ribbe, a prominent disciple of the founder of the school called "de la Paix Sociale," will shortly be published by the latter, who will prefix a study of M. le Play. In the same number we read that on moving day in Paris (January 8), 4,500 families went out of the city to 3,200 that came in—a hopeful sign, thinks the editor.

The *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, organ of the French school at Athens, for December, reaches us late. It has a double heliogravure of a pedimental series of Myrina statuettes, and one of a bas-relief found at Peiræus, with its usual *récolte* of inscriptions, articles on the Myrina discoveries by Pottier and Reinach, and inscriptions from Asia Minor, with a very interesting dissertation on the worship of Zeus Milichios (Baal Milik), by M. Foucart, head of the school.

Ferdinand Avenarius's 'Deutsche Lyrik der Gegenwart seit 1850' (noticed in No. 907 of the *Nation*) has deservedly reached a second edition. Owing to the limited scope of this anthology, no considerable accession to its list of poets was to be expected in a second edition; still, it is rather surprising to find it richer than the first by only two names and about twenty-five pages or poems. This slight addition hardly bears out the publisher's claim of "greatly enlarged" (*sehr vermehrte*); nor does it represent pure gain, for the admission of Wolfgang Kirchbach cannot be considered a compensation for the omission of Ernst Eckstein, who appeared in the first edition, and whose rising fame as a romancer may be supposed to stimulate interest in his poetry, entitled to recognition on its own merits. Wilhelm Hertz, the other new writer admitted, has deservedly found a place in this collection. The extract from his "Bruder Rausch" awakens a desire to see more of it—an unusual sensation in the case of the humorous pseudo-mediæval epic so successfully created by Scheffel, but worn threadbare by imitators. Herr Avenarius the editor has shown some not unpardonable partiality for Herr Avenarius the poet, three of whose poems are given in this edition, whereas the first contained only one. The two new ones are neither better nor worse than most imitations of Heine. Herr Avenarius has also given the biographical data concerning himself modestly withheld before. He is but twenty-eight years of age, and is, we believe, a nephew of Richard Wagner.

—We referred lately to a paper in the *Revue Historique* on Napoleon's scheme for making San Domingo the keystone of the French colonial system. Cromwell, before him, had built some hopes on the seizure of the same island, and had seen his expedition, too, end in failure. The story is retold in the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, by Mr. G. D. Scull, of Oxford, Eng., apropos of Edward Winslow's share in the expedition as one of three commissioners appointed by the Protector. This number of the *Register* is exceptionally rich in interesting matter. Mr. Dean's memoir of the late Col. J. L. Chester adds considerably to our knowledge of the career and character of this indefatigable antiquarian. His successor, Mr. Henry F. Waters, furnishes another batch of "Genealogical Gleanings in England," a large part of which relate to Maryland and Virginia, and have been annotated by a local authority. While many of the names are obscure, we meet with the Lees, of Virginia; Gov. Sir George Yardley, of that colony; John Rolfe (whose son Thomas, by Pocahontas, has numerous descendants in England); a collateral ancestor of Nathaniel Hawthorne; and Jose Glover, of the Harvard Class of 1650, "who was much beloved of the most if not all, and his departure much lamented of the most if not of all." That these "Gleanings" are beginning to bear fruit, is shown by the communicated "notes on abstracts already printed." Under the head of "Historical Intelligence" we read that Mr. Lyon Gardiner Tyler, of Richmond, a son of the ex-President, has ready for publication the 'Letters and Times of the Tylers, Father and Son,' a work in two volumes, 8vo, obtainable by subscription.

—The latest report of the Boston Record Commissioners, their ninth, contains every entry of birth, death, and marriage recorded for that city in its own records and in those of the First Church from 1630 to the close of the century—the two often overlapping and checking each other. This task has been admirably performed by Mr. William S. Appleton, and the mass of names is made available for research by a full index, in which all the eccentricities of spelling are preserved, as, Mirack, Mireck, Mirecke, Miriack, Mirick, Miricke, Myrick. Occasionally, but not as a rule, the occupation or station of the deceased was recorded, as, "Paul Mitchell a fisherman living at Crafthold in England," "Richard Done neger servant to Capt Robt. Keayne"—that Keayne to whose generosity Boston owes her Old State House. The relationship was now and again quaintly indicated, as, "Ruth of John Ruggles husband to our sister Ruggles sometime wife of Nicholas Phillips." The clergyman's name frequently occurs in case of marriage, or the magistrate's, as, "Mr. Richard Mather Pastor to the Church of Dorchester & Mrs. Sarah Cotton widow were married 26th—6th month by John Endecott Govr." (1656); or, "Samuel Veazey & Mary Virgoose [the name has been sought to be associated with Mother Goose] were married by Saml. Sewall Esq. Assist. Nov. 25" (1691). Sewall's own rapid progeny may be traced here. So we find the birth record of "Cotton of Mr. Increase & Mariah Mather born Feb. 12" (Feb. 15, First Church baptismal date), 1662; and of his first child, "Abigail of Cotton & Abigail Mather, born Aug. 22" (1687); and find him already uniting others in wedlock in 1692, "Stephen Cross & Mary Lawrence" appearing to be the first couple. The volume affords endless scope for excursions like these, and is an invaluable aid to those who derive their descent from the early settlers of the Bay capital.

—The knowledge of the excellence of American manufactures is permeating the world. Poole's Index, for instance, has found an Italian admirer. Sig. Chilovi, librarian of the Marucelliana at Florence, has reviewed it (under the title "Una Curiosità Bibliografica") in the *Nuova Antologia*. After some just remarks on the utility of indexes, he sketches the history of Poole's, paying a compliment, on the way, to the "interest, originality, and practical wisdom" with which the contributors to the *Library Journal* have studied "the most intricate problems of the management of large libraries." He commends the execution of the Index, only wishing that when there were several entries under a single heading they had been arranged more scientifically, and that, in the preliminary list of reviews indexed, more bibliographical details had been given for the sake of foreigners not familiar with English and American periodicals. Sig. Chilovi of course turns to the Italian names, where he finds enough, both in the index and in the monthly supplements, to interest his countrymen. (He objects, by the way, to the entry of two articles about 'Niccolò de' Lapi,' one under Niccolò and one under Azeglio.) But his greatest wonder is excited by the success of the coöperative method. That nearly fifty libraries of the most diverse character, and stretching over a vast continent, should combine voluntarily to execute a work which no one of them could have undertaken single-handed, seems to him a fact worthy of note and imitation. But he despairs of seeing anything of the kind undertaken by the Italian libraries. One might, indeed, suppose that it would be much easier for them than for Americans to accomplish such a work, being all under the control of the Government. But it is not so. Europeans feel the inconveniences of centralization, and do not yet know its advantages; they have no initiative, because they expect everything to come down to them from above, so that their organization cannot effect as much as the American independence. Moreover, the Italian libraries, he complains, have not as yet even the periodicals to index. Only one has a periodical reading-room. They are, it appears, rich in materials for the study of the past; they offer few facilities for learning what is now going on in the world.

—Mr. Paul Lindau enjoys the reputation of being the cleverest literary man Germany has produced since Heine, so that the reader might fairly expect something exceptionally amusing and penetrating in the observations on this country which he has recently published in his magazine, *Nord und Süd*. The reader, however, who takes up the article in the expectation of finding something akin to Heine's remarks on England, will be disappointed—not, we fancy, from any inability on the part of Mr. Lindau to write a piquant article, but simply from the reticence natural to a courteous man who has eaten the salt of Mr. Villard's countrymen. This is to be regretted, for while we have been favored with an endless variety of British judgments, and a considerable number of French, intelligent and readable German criticism has been rare. Some of the national features which struck Mr. Lindau—such as the vast scale of our public works and the intense commercial energy of the American character—have so often been remarked as to make comment needless. But after these, he thinks, our predominant characteristic is hospitality, the enjoyment of which is marred, if marred at all, only by the necessity of paying for it. It is not, of course, vulgar, material payment which Mr. Lindau has in mind, nor yet personal flattery; but the appreciation of everything American demanded, not by individual, but, so to say, by corporate vanity. Our essayist seems almost painfully conscious of the obligation imposed by hospitality received, and could not be more careful to avoid saying what might prove disagreeable. But in view of the fact that he obtained recognition at home by his amusing satire on *Kleinstädterei*, viewed from the standpoint of a *Weltbürger*, it is probable that he would privately attribute this feature of American life, which he here explains by the newness of the country, to the want of corporate self-respect and individual *savoir-faire*. Of politics and literature, Mr. Lindau has nothing to say—he did not look even upon the outside of Washington and Boston, though he has a good deal to say of Kansas City. But he thinks our sleeping cars vastly inferior to European, and regards the existence of the elevated railways as a proof of the maladministration of justice, whose guiding principle seems to be that individuals have no rights as opposed to the interest of the community. He appears, indeed, to agree with the recently-expressed view of Herbert Spencer that the tendency of democratic government is not toward liberty, but toward despotism under another name.

—The English universities have of late years been roused to greater activity (or at all events to a greater semblance of activity) in philological work, as distinguished from mere schoolbook manufacturing. Those who know the constitution of those extraordinary complexes find excuse enough for scant production in the distracting engagements of boards, tutorships, syndicates; but German professors, when they once attain to high position, have at least as many entanglements. Ritschl complained, in the high tide of his professorial life, that he had only a couple of hours a day for philological work proper, and the same complaint is made by teacher after teacher at all the great universities. The Germans must make better use of their vacations than do English and American scholars. But, however this may be, it is pleasant to see that there is some philological activity at the great centres of English university life, and the second volume of the Transactions of the Cambridge Philological Society (1881–1882) gives a fair sample of the work that is done at one of these centres. To be sure, the most considerable paper, by Prince L. L. Bonaparte, on "Words in Latin and the Neo-Latin Dialects connected with the Vine," does not belong exactly to the Cambridge sphere, and is published in concert with the Philological Society of London. The others are nearly all scrappy—notes on points or authors; materials that one likes to put in print as a preparation for an extended work, or comments that one likes to save from the oblivion of the class-room. The reviews are an especially valuable feature for those who have not access to the many German journals. Mr. Leaf discusses Homer in 1881–1882; Mr. Hicks, Plato in England for the same time; Mr. Nettleship, Virgil; Mr. Postgate, Propertius—all approved specialists. English Etymology is written, as we should expect, by a German, Professor Zupitza.

—Everybody has read of the wonderful proficiency in the languages of the East of the late lamented Palmer, Lord Almoner's Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge, who explored and described the 'Desert of the Exodus,' and was finally murdered by the Arabs of the desert. Few people, comparatively, know that the former Lord Almoner's Professor of Arabic in the University of Oxford, and late chief editor of the London *Times*, Thomas Chenery, whose death was announced last week by the cable, was an equally rare linguistic phenomenon. Newspaper readers, unfamiliar with the circumstances, who heard at the close of 1877 that a Professor of Arabic had been chosen

to succeed Mr. Delane as manager in chief of the "Thunderer" may naturally have doubted whether the Lord Almoner's chair at Oxford had not been occupied for some years by a sham Orientalist. The very contrary, however, was the case, of which there is living—one might almost say, monumental—evidence in Chenery's Oriental publications, including his translation from the Arabic of Al-Hariri's 'Assemblies,' with notes, historical and grammatical (1867), and his edition of Al-Harizi's Hebrew translation of the 'Assemblies,' entitled 'Machberoth Ithiel' (1872). The introduction, partly in what we may call mediæval Hebrew rhymed prose, prefixed by Mr. Chenery to the latter work, is a masterpiece of imitative style, entirely worthy of the famous mediæval Hebrew translator himself, and, as the production of a non-Jew, has no parallel in all Hebrew literature. The consummate skill with which he there handles the mixed Biblico-rabbinical idiom of which the Jewish writers of Spain, in the best Moorish times, were the great masters, equals that displayed by Rückert in translating the same Arabic poet ('Die Makamen des Hariri') into the most surprisingly playful strains of his own living tongue.

—M. Auguste Vitu has followed up his considerable work on the house in which Molière died by a slighter one on the theatre in which he first acted in Paris. 'Le Jeu de Paume des Mestayers' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern) is thus the second volume of a series of books on the "Archéologie Moliéresque," of which a description of the houses in the Halles or Market where Molière and Régnard were born is to be the third. M. Vitu notes (p. 57) that in the general reconstruction of Old Paris, and its transmogrification into the spick-and-span American paradise, many interesting landmarks have disappeared, and that the buildings which sheltered Molière between two hundred and two hundred and fifty years ago have now nearly all disappeared. In the present beautifully printed little book, as delightful in its typography as are all of M. Lemerre's publications, M. Vitu succeeds in showing that the tennis court in which the little company of actors, amateurs, and professionals who called themselves magniloquently the "Illustre Théâtre," acted from December 31, 1643, to December 14, 1644, occupied the space now covered by Nos. 10, 12, 14 Rue Mazarine and 11, 13 Rue de Seine. Sufficient attention has never been paid to the influence on the development of the theatre in England and France exerted by the places in which the stage was originally set up, and from which the theatre as we now know it has been slowly evolved. In England the theatre began in the open court of an inn and got itself a roof only in Shakspere's time. In France, it was put up inside a tennis court, and the effect of the oblong parallelogram may be detected in many French theatres to the present day. According to M. Vitu, the last theatre in Paris made out of a tennis court was the Théâtre Déjazet, which is still standing.

—The programmes have been arranged for the three Wagner concerts which will be given at the Metropolitan Opera House, under the direction of Mr. Theodore Thomas, on April 22, 24, 26. The soloists will be the three leading vocalists of the Vienna Imperial Opera—Frau Materna, Herr Winkelmann, Herr Scaria—who were chosen by Wagner to create the principal rôles in "Parsifal" at the Bayreuth festival, and who may therefore be considered the best living interpreters of the Wagnerian vocal art. Besides these Miss Emma Juch, Miss Emily Winant, Messrs. Theodore Toedt, Franz Remmertz, and others, will take part in the performances. The orchestra will be the Philharmonic, augmented to 150 musicians. The choruses will be sung by the New York Chorus Society and Liederkranz. The programmes contain the musical gems of Wagner's best operas and music dramas, and have been arranged with Mr. Thomas's usual skill and tact. *Brünnhilde* is Wagner's most perfect character, and Frau Materna the best interpreter of the rôle; and it is therefore of interest to note that those who attend the three concerts will become familiar with her whole career. In "Die Walküre" *Wotan* puts her to sleep and surrounds her with magic fire on the Rock of the Walkyries. Here *Siegfried* finds her in the drama following, and she becomes his wife; while in the last act of "Die Götterdämmerung" will be heard the wonderful music accompanying the self-immolation of *Brünnhilde*—a musical synopsis of the whole trilogy. At the first concert will be given the overture and Bacchanale, first three scenes, march and chorus of the second act of "Tannhäuser"; Ride of the Valkyries, *Wotan's* Farewell, Magic Fire Scene, from "Walküre"; Finale of Act III., "Siegfried" (the famous duo of *Brünnhilde* and *Siegfried*). At the second concert: Centennial March; Love Duo, from Act II. of "Tristan and Isolde"; "Die Meistersinger," the greater part of Act III., including prize song, choruses of guilds, quintet, etc. Third concert: overture, "Flying Dutchman," and Introduction, Ballad, spinning chorus, Act II., Vorspiel and *Pogner's* Address from "Die Meistersinger"; Act III. of Götterdämmerung complete (*Siegfried* and the Rhine-Maidens; *Siegfried's* narrative; Murder Scene and funeral music; *Brünnhilde's* Self-Immolation). Most of the selections from Götterdämmerung," "Walküre," "Siegfried," and "Tristran" will be heard for the first time in America.

—The public of Boston appears to be agitated and divided on the advisability of the purchase of Regnault's "Automédon" for their Museum. If the public of Boston don't know what it wants, it will wisely postpone the purchase of this particular picture until it does, and if then it decides to purchase it, all that one can say is, *de gustibus non disputandum*. The picture is not indecent, which is, we opine, the best thing that can be said of it, and might safely be seen by the picture-seeing people in Boston; and if those who supply the money see fit to give the price demanded, which we believe is $12,000, why, Boston can afford it, though it seems an exorbitant price for a second-class work of a second-rate painter. If sums like $12,000 are scarce in Boston (which we do not believe to be the case if a really noble object is to be served), it seems a poor use to make of one to buy the "Automédon." It is no disparagement to the cities of America to say that æsthetic education has been carried further in Boston and on sounder principles (and this we say even remembering that the South Kensington drawing-school system was once established there) than anywhere else in America; and if the Bostonians cannot settle this question without outside help, we feel no little diffidence in expressing an opinion, and certainly shall not pretend to advise. But as to the abstract question of the position of the painter of the "Automédon" we have no hesitation in adding our word to the discordant discussion. Regnault was an uncommonly clever painter, clever especially in that executive power which is entirely unrelated to great thought, and which indeed never appears in men of the grave and large type to which Millet and Delacroix belonged. It is a superficial excellence, which a truly great painter would carefully avoid, if he had the capacity for it, as likely to divert attention from the essential qualities of his art. In the "Alhambra Execution" this power was carried to such a point that it becomes phenomenal and worth placing in any collection, as is any supreme attainment in any vein of art; but it belongs distinctly to an inferior grade of art if we judge it even by the greatest modern work. And the "Automédon" is far from the best work of Regnault—it is an academical study, melodramatic in conception and extravagant in realization. Whoever compares it with Homer's ideal can hardly perceive the difference between Homer and Poe. This Automédon has struck an attitude which even the unquestionably excellent drawing and brilliant execution of the painter do not make other than theatrical. The horses are phantasms—Automédon, a tamer of nightmares. As a whole, the picture is an ostentatious exercise of executive ability which, in a young painter, may be condoned, but which Regnault even, had he lived to his artistic maturity, would have deprecated and probably destroyed. The heroic death (from the French point of view) and brilliant brief career of Regnault have given him an *éclat* in the art world of his day which we do not believe his works will maintain. To mistake him for a master, even in the modern schools, would be unfortunate, but to reject his really good work from a collection of modern pictures would be a still greater error. If the "Automédon" were really one of his best pictures, Boston would be fortunate to have it.

SCHLIEMANN'S TROJA.—I.

Troja: Results of the Latest Researches and Discoveries on the Site of Homer's Troy, and in the Heroic Tumuli and other Sites, made in the year 1882; and a Narrative of a Journey in the Troad in 1881. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Hon. D. C. L., Oxon., etc. Preface by Professor A. H. Sayce. With 150 woodcuts, and 4 Maps and Plans. London: John Murray; New York: Harper & Brothers. 1884. Pp. xl.-434.

THIS volume gives us Dr. Schliemann's latest word about Troy. It is really a supplement to the author's larger work, 'Ilios,' published in 1880, and it resumes the descriptions and discussions where the earlier volume left them. Dr. Schliemann's work at Troy, as he reminds us, has already passed the period of ten years, "which has a fatal connection with the legend of the city," and it is now quite time to ask the decisive question, whether the new besieging army has really captured Troy, and can hold it against all attack from without. We propose here to pass by all lesser controversies, except so far as they affect the main issue; and to attempt to answer the real question which every reader of Homer is asking—What new evidence does Schliemann's work at Hissarlik in 1882 afford to justify his belief that he has found the city of Troy whose siege was the subject of the Iliad? As 'Troja' is a supplement to 'Ilios,' our review must be in many respects a supplement to our review of 'Ilios' in Nos. 815, 816 of the *Nation*. We there examined the evidence upon which "an historic existence" could be claimed for the Troy of Homer; and we came to the conclusion that, as the case then stood, Schliemann might fairly claim to have discovered a city which could be said to be the original of the Homeric Troy in the same sense in which the fortress in Argolis is said to represent the Homeric Mycenæ. We doubted, however, the sufficiency of the arguments by which he sought to prove that Troy never extended beyond the hill of Hissarlik.

The present writer visited Hissarlik in September, 1882, after Schliemann had finished his work there, but before the results of his last excavations had been published. It was difficult for one who had formed his ideas of the ruins from reading 'Ilios' to find his bearings within

the hill after the great changes which had been made during the preceding summer. These changes involved nothing less than removing the greater part of the remains of the third settlement, which in 'Ilios' is called the Homeric Troy, and uncovering the foundations of the second, which had now proved to be the only important prehistoric town on the hill. It was also perplexing that the great city walls of stone, which at once strike the visitor as the strongest proof of the identity of Troy, and the double gateway (which had become widely known as the "Scæan Gate" from being so called in 'Troy and its Remains'), all belonged to the second city, while this city was, according to 'Ilios,' only the predecessor of Troy. The double gateway itself, moreover, is not sufficiently imposing to have been the outer gate of a very powerful city; it is a great step from this to the Lion Gate of Mycenæ. But the saddest disappointment of all to those who visited Hissarlik under the influence of 'Ilios' was the "mansion of the Town Chief or King," a building about fifty-three feet long and twenty-three feet wide, whose lower walls (of which about four and a-half feet are now standing) were built of small stones and clay, like most house-walls in the modern villages of the Troad. This surely could not be the prosaic reality of which Priam's splendid palace, with polished corridors and fifty chambers of polished stone for Priam's fifty sons and their wives, is the poetic ideal! And the city of which this was the royal palace was confined to the little hill of Hissarlik, and was hardly large enough to house 3,000 inhabitants, even if the houses were six stories high ('Ilios,' p. 514; 'Troja,' p. 2). All these difficulties have been cleared up by the later excavations. Dr. Schliemann's reasons for his conclusions respecting the extent of ancient Troy, which seemed to us in 1881 to be an unnecessary and almost fatal obstacle to the acceptance of his great discoveries, are given in 'Ilios' (pp. 38, 514); the decisive proof seemed to be that he had sunk twenty shafts on the east, southeast, southwest, and west of Hissarlik in 1873, and had found no prehistoric pottery or house-walls, showing that the ancient city could not have extended beyond the hill. No one who reads Dr. Schliemann's argument on this point in 'Ilios' and his confession of error in 'Troja' (pp. 1, 2) can hereafter accuse him of stubbornness or unwillingness to be convinced of his mistakes. But no one who understands the true nature of the problem—certainly no one who has seen the confused mass of ancient ruins which fill the inside of the hill of Hissarlik—will deny that changes of opinion, even on such vital points as those just mentioned, are both justifiable and even creditable. The truth is, Dr. Schliemann has opened more serious questions than Science can answer in the next fifty years; and it is not a mark of wisdom to maintain fixed and exact doctrines about the details of these perplexing matters, or to expect them even of those most experienced in the discoveries themselves. He who makes the fewest positive statements about many of the points still in dispute will probably have the fewest mistakes to correct.

Dr. Schliemann was accompanied during his last campaign at Troy by two eminent German architects, Dr. William Dörpfeld, well known for his services at Olympia, and Mr. Joseph Höfler. Besides Dr. Schliemann's own account of his work in 1882, we have two letters of Dr. Dörpfeld, in the *Allgemeine Zeitung* for September 29, 1882, and March 30, 1883: the latter appears in English in the *Times* of March 22, 1883. These letters are valuable for their clear and concise statements of the results of the work at Hissarlik from an architect's point of view. We hope, indeed, that Dr. Dörpfeld has still much to say about Troy, and the world will hear it with interest.

We must here make a remark by way of caution, which may be needed by some who discuss the ruins of Hissarlik, but would suggest itself at once to every one who sees them. Many who talk of Schliemann's discoveries, and have a general idea of six or seven "cities" lying one upon another on Hissarlik, seem not to understand that there are great distinctions in the importance of the successive settlements. First, Dr. Schliemann, says of "the sixth or Lydian city": "All I am able to show of this city is its pottery; there is no wall of defence, nor even any house-walls which I could with any degree of probability attribute to it" ('Ilios,' p. 587). The other six settlements which Dr. Schliemann distinguishes have all left their ruins in separate strata upon the hill. Dr. Dörpfeld says (*Allgemeine Zeitung* of September 30, 1882): "All scholars who visited Hissarlik during the last excavations were convinced of the existence of the six distinct strata of ruins." But it must not be imagined that there is now any one place where six layers of ruins can be distinctly seen in a perpendicular line, at least by the untutored eye. The lowest stratum of all, resting on the native rock, 52½ feet below the later summit of the hill, contains ruins of a very ancient town, of which we have very little knowledge, as its remains are mostly covered by those of the second city, and cannot now be examined except where they appear at the bottom of the great central trench dug directly through the hill from north to south. Dr. Schliemann thinks "its length does not exceed 46 metres and its breadth can hardly have been greater," although he thinks it probably had a lower city on the plateau besides its buildings on the hill ('Troja,' pp. 29, 30). Of the second city we shall speak below. The third, fourth, and fifth settlements were, according to Dr. Dörpfeld, "little better than villages, containing only small dwelling-houses"; the third and fourth certainly never extended beyond the hill, and of the extent of the fifth our knowledge (as Dr. Dörpfeld says) is still imperfect. The topmost stratum belongs to the historic city of Ilion. This city was founded by Æolic Greeks at a very early period, probably before the seventh century B. C.; but it remained an insignificant town until it was enlarged by Lysimachus early in the third century B. C., who built for it a wall nearly five miles in circuit. It again fell into decay, was captured and burned by the Roman General Fimbria in 85 B. C., was soon rebuilt by Sulla, and was made into a large and flourishing city by the early Roman emperors. Dr. Dörpfeld, speaking as an architect, calls the upper stratum of ruins those of the "Roman Ilium," as the buildings there found *in situ*, so far as their age can be ascertained, all belong to the Roman period (*Times* of March 22, 1883). According to him, there are no remains of the Greek Ilion earlier than the Macedonian period (after Lysimachus) anywhere to be found *in situ* on Hissarlik; and it is impossible to determine the sites of the two temples of the Macedonian age, as their foundations have not been found, and only blocks from their upper parts remain.

We come now to the second settlement, which was large and strongly fortified and has marks of a rich and powerful city of great antiquity. Besides the historic Ilion, this great city is the only important town ever built upon Hissarlik; and it is but natural that these two should be the only cities on this site which have left their names in history or even tradition. One of the first results of the work of 1882 was the discovery that the second and not the third settlement was really the "Burnt City," to which belonged all the important prehistoric stone walls with their gates, which have always been considered parts of the second town, as well as all the treasures and most other articles of value which are assigned in 'Ilios' to the third town. The importance of this discovery was more and more apparent as the removal of the ruins of the third town brought those of the second into view. How, now, did so great a mistake occur? The error was not, as some have supposed, in ascribing the objects in question to the wrong stratum of ruins, but in ascribing the stratum of calcined bricks, on which the houses of the third town were built and in which most of the objects were found, to the third town rather than to the second. A slight inspection of the ruins makes this perfectly plain. The destruction of the second city was most thoroughly accomplished, first by fire and then by forcibly tearing down what remained of the buildings. Most of the large edifices on the acropolis were literally razed to their foundations, leaving just enough of their walls to show their plan. After this destruction the ruins of the city must have presented an irregular mass of rubbish, in which mounds here and there showed where a temple or other large building had stood. Three such mounds, all covering the ruins of one temple, are seen in Plan III. of 'Ilios,' marked H, being supposed to cover parts of the city wall. On this mass of burnt bricks and wood ashes, within which were buried the gold, silver, and pottery that belonged to the great city, the third settlers built their miserable houses, generally of clay and small stones, but sometimes of the material left by their predecessors. They made no attempt to level the heaps of ruins, or even the higher mounds, but built directly upon these, sinking their foundations into the rubbish below them. The broken and burnt bricks of the older city thus lay sometimes on a level with their floors and sometimes much higher. As the houses of the third town were apparently not destroyed by violence, they remained standing to a height of about six feet, and the whole presented the appearance of the ruins of a single town, of which the lower house-walls were standing, while the remains of the upper parts had fallen about them. It is this curious compound of the burnt bricks and ashes of the second town with the half-destroyed houses of the third, which figures as the "Third City" in 'Ilios.'

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Henry Irving: A Biographical Sketch. By Austin Brereton. Scribner & Welford. 4to, pp. 136.

Henry Irving, Actor and Manager: a Criticism of a Critic's Criticism. By an Irvingite. George Routledge & Sons. 16mo, pp. 80.

La Comédie à la Cour: Les Théâtres de société royale pendant le siècle dernier. Par Adolphe Jullien. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie; New York: F. W. Christern. 4to, pp. 321.

Les Curiosités de l'Opéra. Par Th. de Lajarte. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo, pp. 251.

THERE can be no better evidence of the firm hold which Mr. Henry Irving has on the theatre-goers of the day than the appearance almost simultaneously of four books in which his career as an actor and as a manager is sketched and his art criticised. Two of these books appeared before Mr. Irving arrived in this country, and have already been considered in these columns. They form a curious contrast to the two now before us, as Mr. Brereton does well what the anonymous author of the American biography of Mr. Irving did very ill, and as the criticism of the Irvingite is avowedly an answer to the acute and admirable criticism of Mr. William Archer.

Mr. Brereton's biographical sketch is excellent within its simple and modest limits. It is a plain and straightforward account of Mr. Irving's career from his birth to his departure from England for America. We have pointed out before now the great inconveniences of writing the biography of a living celebrity, and certainly Mr. Brereton has been hampered by them, yet less than we had supposed possible. His qualified success seems owing to the rigid restraint which he wisely imposed on himself. There is no attempt at fine writing or at the higher criticism; indeed, there is very little original criticism of any kind. The facts are set forth succinctly and in order, and without digression. There is a useful and instructive list of the four hundred and twenty-eight parts acted by Mr. Irving during his first three years on the stage. It is to be regretted that a full list is not given of the hundred and sixty parts he acted after leaving Edinburgh in 1859, and before appearing in London in 1866. The list of the parts acted in London since the latter date is given in the appendix, which contains also an ample report of the dinner given to Mr. Irving in London on the 4th of July last, at which Lord Coleridge presided and Mr. Lowell made one of his most delightful speeches. Mr. Brereton has further provided an index of twenty-six columns, made with greater care than we are wont to see in British books. Almost the only error we have noted in the text is the assumption (p. 57) that Mr. Irving was the first to discard Colley Cibber's highly-effective perversion of "Richard III."—an honor which belongs of right to Mr. Edwin Booth. The book is adorned by seventeen full-page illustrations. The best is a photogravure after Mr. Long's portrait of Mr. Irving as *Hamlet*, and the worst is a hideous caricature of Mr. Irving as *Charles I.* The portrait as *Vanderdecken* is taken, without acknowledgment, from a striking drawing which appeared in the *Century Magazine*, and which is, in fact, doubly American, since the bold photograph from which it was drawn was the work of Colonel Van der Weyde. Mr. F. Barnard's sketches of *Digby Grant* (in the "Two Roses") and of *Shylock* are characteristic, which is more than can be said for his sketch of Miss Ellen Terry as *Portia*. A slip of the pen, by the way, in the list of illustrations (p. xi.) promises pictures of Miss Terry as *Digby Grant* and as *Benedict*.

It is said that John Wilkes declared that he was never a Wilkite. We incline to the belief that Mr. Henry Irving is not an Irvingite, and that he will scarcely thank the zealous friend who has rashly hurried to the assault of Mr. Archer. It seems to be an open secret in London that "An Irvingite" is Mr. Frank Marshall, the author of a comedy called "False Shame," and coeditor with Mr. Irving of Shakspere. Already he has thought best to circulate a printed apology for having ascribed to Mr. Archer the authorship of anonymous articles which he called "vile and scurrilous." It is, however, only fair to say that the most of "An Irvingite's" criticism of Mr. Archer is courteous. Like Mr. Brereton's book, his is calculated exclusively for the meridian of London—*e. g.*, it credits Mr. Irving with the death of Cibber's "Richard III.," and declares that *Hamlet* and *Iago* had never been acted naturally and colloquially until Mr. Irving attempted them.

There are two books for which the shelves of every dramatic library are yawning, and for the making of which the materials are abundant. One is a history of scene-painting, with an account of the evolution and development of the manifold devices of scenic illusion. The other is a history of private theatricals, of which M. Adolphe Jullien has now brought together three chapters in the sumptuous and stately volume on the 'Court Comedy of France in the Eighteenth Century.' The author is the musical critic of the Paris newspaper *Le Français*, and on musical matters he speaks as one having authority. He is, moreover, an investigator of wide erudition and inexhaustible patience, as his frequent monographs on the music and the musicians of the past have already proved, and as we have seen in his excellent 'Histoire du Costume au Théâtre.' The present volume is a new edition, greatly elaborated and thoroughly revised, of three separate studies, each published in limited editions and now out of print and scarce. One was on the performances given on the grand nights at Sceaux, when the Duchess of Maine was aspiring and conspiring. The second was devoted to the dramatic essays and exercises of Mme. de Pompadour on the stage of the "Theatre of the Little Cabinets." The third set forth the history of the theatre of the Trianon under Marie Antoinette. Taking the three together, we have a good view of three typical phases of the Regency and of the reigns of Louis XV. and XVI. The only other private theatre in France during the eighteenth century which has any claim to rivalry with these three is that of the Demoiselles Verrières, and of this M. Jullien has already been the historian in his delightful little book on 'La Comédie et la Galanterie au dix-huitième Siècle.' It was the Duchess of Maine who brought out at Sceaux the first *ballet d'action*, as distinguished from the preceding ballets, in which there was much singing, and which, indeed, were not unlike the *ballet-opéra* reinvented by Scribe. It was at Sceaux, too, that Voltaire brought out his comedy "La Prude," imitated from Wycherley's "Plain-Dealer," which in turn was a rough-and-ready version of Molière's "Misanthrope." It was at the theatre of the Château de Bellevue that Mme. de Pompadour sang and acted divinely in Rousseau's comic opera, "Le Devin du Village," after the performance of which the composer fled in confusion to avoid a presentation to the King. It was at the little theatre of the Trianon that Marie Antoinette, despite the repeated protests of Maria Theresa, persisted in acting even in the "Barber of Seville" of the iconoclastic Beaumarchais.

M. Jullien's book is illustrated with the lavishness and the skill we expect in all works published by MM. Firmin-Didot. There is a chromolithographic frontispiece representing a ceiling painted by Lebrun at Sceaux. There are etchings and photogravures and woodcuts in abundance, some of them being large folding plates. Add the graceful head and tail-pieces copied from contemporary decorative suggestions; an etching after Boucher, representing a ballet of Mme. de Pompadour's, and a heliogravure after Cochin, showing both the stage and the auditorium of Mme. de Pompadour's little theatre during a performance. Finally there is a most interesting photogravure of the Trianon theatre as it was in 1882. A portrait of Marie Antoinette after Bartolozzi has lost something in the transfer to wood.

M. de Lajarte is the second in command to M. Charles Nuitter in the care of the new library of the Paris Opéra, and the most entertaining and instructive of the half-dozen essays he has just put forth as 'Curiosités de l'Opéra' is his account of the inception and growth of this library, and of his own share in the rescue of the precious musical autographs, in which the Opéra was rich, but of which no one was taking any care. To M. Lajarte, also, we owe the accurate and exhaustive catalogue of the operatic scores now in this library. From the treasures of the library of the Opéra he has drawn the illustrations of his pleasant volume, most of which are facsimiles of musical autographs, of play-bills, or of title-pages. After the first essay and another on Spontini and his "Vestal" and "Fernando Cortez"—in the second of which was introduced a charge of Spanish cavalry represented by horses and men from Franconi's Circus—the most valuable paper is one on historic dances, in which M. Lajarte gives us an account of the dances of society and of the stage as they followed and borrowed from one another.

Coöperative Housekeeping. How Not to Do it, and How to Do it. A Study in Sociology. By Melusina Fay Peirce. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1884.

THIS scheme of reform in the social status of women seems to us at once too wide and too narrow: it promises to women the monopoly of certain functions which they will probably have some difficulty in usurping, while it would exclude them from all other fields of activity. In other words, Mrs. Peirce's project is vitiated by the arbitrary spirit which pervades opinion on the woman question, and which here, as so often, assumes the form of a lingering desire to confine woman's activity within the boundaries of domestic life, although Mrs. Peirce's conception of domestic life has little in common with the old ideal. We are, in fact, inclined to doubt—monstrous as such a doubt would seem to Mrs. Peirce—whether there be any essential connection between the housekeeping problem and the woman question. We are inclined to think that this "Study in Sociology" itself unconsciously points to a near future in which housekeeping will indeed be relegated to the domain of organized activities, but in which it will belong to women as much as any other work that they are willing and competent to do, and no more.

Mrs. Peirce regards the division of labor, as applied to the labor both of superiors and subordinates, both of mistress and maid, as the fundamental desideratum of housekeeping. She claims, and her claim will be generally endorsed, that no housekeeper should be required, or can be expected, to master the three arts of "cooking, laundering, and sewing" (how about the fourth art of "fighting dirt"?) so as to practise them or superintend their application without a vast waste of efficiency. In order, however, to perfect the division of labor, both of workers and superintendents, the domestic economy of several families must be centralized, each branch of domestic labor being superintended by one or more persons who devote their attention to it.

So far the public is rapidly becoming prepared to agree with Mrs. Peirce; but is the coöperation of housekeepers the only or the most probable mode of attaining a division of domestic labor? To answer this question, we must consider what is meant by coöperation. Now a coöperative society of the kind described by Mrs. Peirce is practically an unprofessional body of retail middlemen, engaged in the supply of their own wants only; that is to say, a body of persons occupied in other pursuits who, in addition to those pursuits, combine to supply certain articles for their own consumption, in order to save their pockets the middleman's profits. Thus, by "coöperative housekeeping," Mrs. Peirce understands the business of conducting what are already well known as "coöperative stores," and the additional business of performing the collective cooking and washing of the coöperators' families. From the very nature of the enterprise—*i. e.*, from the fact that the coöperators are not experts in what they undertake—it is essential that at first, until they have learnt their new business, the whole work of superintendence should be done by

members of the association, in order that their want of knowledge and experience may not be abused by hired managers and subordinates; and subsequently, as in all enterprises, much personal attention must be given to insure success. In coöperative societies, as in most other joint undertakings, the main stress of administration inevitably falls upon a limited number of individuals; but Mrs. Peirce seems to us to injure her cause in speaking of the labor of these officers as a "sacrifice," and of coöperative undertakings as "the business of supply conducted by the few for the good of all." If coöperative societies are conducted on business principles, "the few" should be compensated for their extra exertions, and their labors should no more be regarded as a "sacrifice" than the labor of the officers of any corporation or joint-stock company. And here we must stop to notice the vein of communistic sentimentality which pervades Mrs. Peirce's writings, and which, with her professed adherence to Mr. Henry George's philosophy, is likely to prejudice many persons against her really useful suggestions. She remarks (Appendix C, p. 179), "The first grand demand of every kind of successful coöperation is SELF-SACRIFICE. To coöperate successfully we must be actuated by that love for others which can 'smite the chord of self' and 'make it pass in music out of sight.'" Now, except this statement by Mrs. Peirce, which savors more of sentiment than science, we do not know of any evidence that the successful coöperative efforts to which she refers have had any other motive than enlightened self-interest; and indeed we doubt whether any successful enterprise involving large numbers of persons has ever been based on other incentives than self-interest in the ordinary sense, or else some species of "other-worldliness." We are therefore of opinion that, in estimating the probability that such a scheme of coöperation as Mrs. Peirce describes will commend itself to a certain class, it is only necessary to consider whether the class in question would deem the pecuniary profit a compensation for the effort involved.

When, then, the class in question is the wealthy class of American women resident in large cities, we believe that they would not consider the pecuniary gain any offset to the requisite training and exertion. The ordinary fatigue and worry to which a woman who can command trained service is liable in governing her own house, are trifling compared to the exigencies of administering a large "laundering" or catering establishment. The majority of American women of the wealthy class are at present totally unfitted by their education and habits for such heavy responsibilities as Mrs. Peirce would impose upon them; and long before women of this class are likely to be prepared for wider functions, we fear that remorseless Man (who has already, as Mrs. Peirce mournfully records, usurped the spinning and weaving, "the making of women's and children's dresses and underwear, the laundering of shirts, collars, and cuffs, the canning of fruits and vegetables, the preparing of soups and pressed meats, together with twenty such trifles as the roasting and grinding of coffee, the mixing of indigo with water for the bluing purposes of the laundry, etc.") will also seize the profits to be made by relieving the rich of the remaining details of domestic industry.

Unsuitable, however, as Mrs. Peirce's scheme is to the wealthy class of American women, it may well be extremely useful to the less affluent classes—to all classes, in fact, which combine with small means general intelligence and education, as well as practical skill in the domestic avocations. Especially to the dwellers in country towns, we can imagine that "coöperative housekeeping" would be a boon. To women in these circumstances, it would probably offer a positive decrease of fatigue, combined with pecuniary gain. To women of the agricultural class, coöperation can scarcely offer succor in the present sparsely-populated condition of the country. They have more to hope from the progress of mechanical invention, and, let us add, from improved physical habits. The practice of adequately ventilating dwelling-houses during the cold season, and of eating wholesome food, would go far toward saving the farmer's wife from fainting at her work.

To sum up the relation of "coöperative housekeeping" to the woman question, we should say that instead of being, as Mrs. Peirce would claim, a panacea for all the ills of woman's present lot, it is, at the most, a specific. The thought, however, which underlies the special scheme, is that which must eventually work the regeneration of the sex—we mean the organization of female industry in its fullest development by women. It is scarcely possible to estimate the effect upon the social status of women in general which might be exerted by a class of women comparable in many-sided intelligence and power to the class of men who rule the thought and industry of men; but such a class of women can only be created by equal opportunities of education.

It is to be regretted that Mrs. Peirce should not have entered more into detail with regard to her system of housekeeping apart from the woman question. She does not, for instance, consider the difficulties of serving meals hot from a common kitchen to scattered dwellings; and yet in large towns this would seem a very serious difficulty, since in large communities neighborhood has little to do with mutual acquaintance or with similarity of tastes and circumstances; while such associations as Mrs. Peirce recommends would more probably be formed, at least in the first instance, by persons between whom there was some social bond than between those whose only connection was local proximity. Again, with regard to the daily cleaning of houses, Mrs. Peirce's suggestions are confined to the case of a young married couple, for whom "a single neat-handed Phyllis could suffice to do up the dainty rooms." But how would it be when the family had expanded to eight or ten persons, and the "dainty rooms" of the young couple had become a "mansion"? Perhaps the collective housekeeping, if we may so term it, of the future will necessitate a different mode of building—an expansion of the apartment-house or hotel-cottage scheme, or perhaps rather of the plan of English college buildings; resulting in the erection of blocks or groups of dwelling-houses around central domestic offices with a common staff of servants. After all has been said, however, as to labor-saving devices, we fear that Americans will always be overburdened by the practical cares of life so long as the released energy seeks merely some fresh channel of material luxury and the "deceitfulness" of added riches.

Sepulture: Its History, Methods, and Sanitary Requisites. By Stephen Wickes, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.

THOSE in whom sentiment is warm are differently affected by the thought of death, especially the death of friends. To some minds the cemetery is in fact what it is in name: the dear one is "put to bed," reposes, sleeps. "Here rests," "Here lies," "*Requiescat*," often literally expresses the idea which for months and years leads the survivor to the place thus made sacred, as to a shrine; in his forlorner and more troubled moments, to long for the time when he can be laid by the side of the beloved object; and, meanwhile, to decorate, to lavish wealth and taste upon, the spot. But there are others, in whom sentiment is quite as strong, who shrink from the thought of a grave as from far more than death. To such it is not death, it is burial, it is exposure—alone, in the weather—that is so full of dread, for themselves as well as for those whom they loved. To others still, burial and the grave mean chiefly loathsome decay. To these three classes burial is of deep and enduring interest, and yet they rarely discuss it. It is too near to their hearts for ink and paper—too near, indeed, for common speech.

The sanitarian approaches the subject from another direction. He would let the dead bury their dead, only so far as they may not harm the living; and this harm, in one way or another, may happen whenever the two are in company. It is astonishing how death spreads death. The harvest of disease begins not only to be sown, but almost to ripen, as soon as the breath leaves the body. The specific contagion of special disease does not perish with the primary victim, but one may fancy it to envelop the body as a cloud, so baleful are some corpses while yet awaiting burial. With decomposition all bodies become noxious, and necessity, modified by sentiment, has controlled the disposition of the human dead from before the dawn of history. Caves, the soil, catacombs, and flames have been the principal means of preserving the living from the dead. The Egyptian embalmers undertook to secure a perfect and harmless receptacle that the wandering soul might reënter; but the earth and fire have been the most ordinary transmuting agents intentionally employed. A sparse population would naturally bury, and a crowded one would burn; but to the latter course there are remarkable exceptions, notably in China. That singular bundle of conservatism takes into its bosom the remains of even its non-resident sons; and, curiously, the affectionate reverence bestowed upon its multitudinous graves is a powerful obstacle to the introduction of modern ideas. It is sacrilege to remove the ancestral tombs, and railroad surveys find them blocking every line.

Burial in church and churchyard had its origin in the belief that proximity to the altar, or to the holy man resting near, would benefit the sinner. But there is no such catalytic action, and the sinner continues his career of mischief, and, dead, poisons air and water, as, living, he polluted the moral springs. What is left of the saint after death is even more pernicious, for his slow decay and exhalation go on under the very feet of the worshippers. It is doubtless what may be called the mechanical theory of the resurrection that is responsible for much disease in Christian lands. Forgetting that there are celestial bodies and bodies terrestrial, there has been an almost universal effort to commit the physical frame to the earth in the unacknowledged but cherished belief that corruption will inherit incorruption. The alternative reading in Job, "out of my flesh," is forgotten, and upon the text "in my flesh shall I see God" many build an article of faith. Numerous epitaphs make it plain that the subjacent corpse expects to rise in its proper form from that spot at a day of judgment; and growing out of this sentiment is the unconscious feeling that another disposition of the dead is tampering with immortality. Devout people who are sensible have no fear that accidental death by flame or flood creates a flaw in their title to eternal life; but the superstitious shrink from voluntarily transmuting into ash the combustible frame. And yet only fire or chemical action completely solves a problem that affects both health and

sentiment. In the one direction burial fills the soil with the ordinary hurtful products of animal decay, and frequently with the special seeds of virulent diseases, which, in defiance of time and frost, lie in wait year after year to reproduce the fatal crop. In the other, the fervent heat of the furnace, clean and potent, speedily volatilizes the tenantless body into invisible and harmless gases. But the way to the best is travelled slowly, and the public advances with faltering steps. Meanwhile, fortunately, suburban cemeteries are generally substituted for the intramural burial places of earlier years. But, in our villages, graves and dwellings have a too frequent proximity, and many a well is charged with solutions of animal débris, while the air above the misnamed God's Acre and the soil itself are poisoned. On the Continent in many burial grounds there is no pretence that the body will remain in either solitary or perpetual occupancy of a grave. Such resting-places are but partial and temporary. Other tenants invade them, and time, instead of strengthening the possessory rights, weakens the claim, until finally a rude eviction into an uncertain limbo is all that is sure. From such a certain uncertainty cremation is a definite and plenary relief. It is the modern realization of the old Hebrew vision, in which the ecstatic prophet exclaimed, "My father, my father, the chariot of Israel and the horsemen thereof!" By fire, indeed, does corruption put on incorruption.

The book that has brought out these remarks leads up to but stops short of advocating the furnace. Written with the laudable and public-spirited motive of warning against the dangers of interment, it presents in a desultory way many historical facts, and fairly depicts the evils to the living from the burial of the dead, but inconsequentially concludes that an innovation upon the traditional sentiments of the people is not now demanded, whatever may be required in the future. But its very last paragraph is the foot-note: "In Modena, Italy, excavations made through a part of the city where the victims of the plague were buried three hundred years before, caused an immediate outbreak of the disease in the neighborhood." Are we, to whom yellow fever and cholera are not strangers, to say nothing of typhoid and scarlet fevers, and others that are always with us—are we to await the plague before we purify instead of poisoning our surroundings? On another side this work has been written so as to leave, unfortunately, the impression of feebleness or of inexactness in many parts. It opens with a speculation upon the burial of Abel's body by Cain (if he did bury him), and other Biblical history is used freely and devoutly, but not always with proper care. For instance, the author speaks (p. 16) of Saul as buried under trees, and two pages later cites his as a body that was burned (misprinted "buried"). Saul's case, in fact, is a multiple example. After his suicide his enemies first fastened his decapitated body to the wall of Beth-shan; his friends took it thence, and, having burned it (whether in honor or for security does not appear), interred it under a tree at Jabesh; and ultimately it was laid in the sepulchre of his father, Kish, at Zelah. In describing the Towers of Silence, our author quotes Monier Williams as writing from Calcutta so as to imply that this peculiar cemetery is near that city. Really, as the final paragraph (three pages later) shows, it is at Bombay, where the Parsee population of India centres. The prototype of these towers is used by the Guebres, near Ispahan. Again, referring to the law of the twelve tables, Dr. Wickes explains that the enacting Decemviri flourished "A.D. about 200." But the real date is A.U.C. 300, or B.C. 450.

Aboriginal American Authors and their Productions; especially those in the native languages. By Daniel G. Brinton, A.M., M.D., etc. Philadelphia, 1883. 8vo, pp. 63.

In the body of this little volume, Mr. Brinton has given us a partial list of aboriginal American authors, together with a brief summary of what they have accomplished in the several walks of literature. In its original shape, it was prepared and submitted to the Congrès des Américanistes, at the meeting held last summer in Copenhagen, for the purpose of calling attention to the existence of "a number of relics of aboriginal American literature," and of bespeaking "the aid and influence of that learned body in the preservation and publication of these rare documents." Since then the work has been entirely rewritten, and in giving it to the public in the form in which it now appears, Mr. Brinton not only makes it the occasion of renewing his appeal for the perpetuation of these records, but he seems also to have intended it as a proof of "the existence of the literary faculty in the native mind."

Of the importance of preserving these documents there cannot, we imagine, be much doubt, and so far as this little volume is designed to serve that end it is well-timed and has our hearty approval; but when we are asked to go further, and regard it in the light of an argument, soberly and seriously made for the purpose of demonstrating the Indian's capacity for "literary culture," we begin to hesitate. As well might we be expected to listen patiently to a refutation of Parson Jasper's theory that "the sun do move." As a matter of fact, the proposition is undeniable and needs no proof. A hundred years or so ago, when the Indian was regarded, by saint and sinner alike, as anything but a man and a brother, things were very different, and an argument of this character then would have had its uses; but to-day, with Indian schools and newspapers flourishing among us, it is an anachronism, and, so far as we know, is not warranted by anything that has been recently said by any advocate of evolution whose opinion is worth the paper on which it is printed. But even if this were not the case, and a discussion of this subject were still possible, a question might arise as to the soundness of that portion of the argument which classes a writer like Garcilaso de la Vega among the aborigines. So far from being an Indian, he was, as is well known, of mixed (Spanish and Indian) blood, was educated a Catholic, passed the most of his life in Spain, and his works are written in that language; and to speak of him as an aboriginal author, or as proving the Indian's capacity for literary work, is to extend the system of classification beyond all legitimate bounds. Carried one or two steps further, it would make an Indian of John Randolph of Roanoke.

In speaking of "the literary efforts of the aborigines of this continent" as furnishing the material for "a chapter in the general history of literature hitherto wholly neglected," our author is not as clear as might be wished. If he means to say that these efforts, taken as a whole, have never been treated as forming, by and of themselves, a literature, using that word in the sense that we do when we speak of English or French literature, he is probably correct. At all events, except the history of Maya literature referred to on page 30, we do not know of any work in which they have been so considered; neither do we see any urgent necessity for treating them in this manner. But if our author intends us to understand, as the language would seem to imply, that these works, or a majority of them, as well those written in a native as in a foreign tongue, were unknown or unused, or that many of them have not been discussed and described much as they are in this volume, then he is very wide of the mark, as must be apparent to any one who will examine the book itself. Literally speaking, there is scarcely a page that is not full of references to writers who have treated this subject in some shape. To say nothing of bibliographers like Field, or historians like Hubert H. Bancroft, who certainly record the names of many of the native writers mentioned by Mr. Brinton and indicate the character of their works, we must not forget that Bandelier has delved in the same field, and that, a century or more ago, Clavigero covered more or less of the same ground, and, all things considered, did it well.

Aside from these imperfections, which are not necessarily connected with the subject-matter of the volume, and may be passed over without marring its harmony, we have none but words of commendation for this little book. It is not exhaustive and does not profess to be, but it is sufficiently complete to satisfy the demands of the average student. It is, withal, well arranged and so thoroughly indexed as to make a reference to these forgotten worthies and their works comparatively an easy matter. If to this we add that its real purport is to enlist the aid of "scholarly men, of learned societies, of enlightened governments, of liberal institutions and individuals, not only in our own country but throughout the world," in the preservation and publication of these records, enough will have been said to show our appreciation of the work and our sympathy with its object. As an act of justice to Mr. Brinton—and we make the acknowledgment with pleasure—it must be said that, of all our American scholars, he is the one from whom this appeal comes with the best grace. When made by him we know that it is not the perfunctory statement of a platitude, but that it is the earnest cry of one who understands the importance of the object for which he strives, and who has repeatedly given proofs of devotion to the cause for which he pleads. In the publications which, from time to time, he has made, and is still making, in the "Library of Aboriginal American Literature," he has not only ventured into an unusual field of literary activity, but he has set an example of scholarship and, we may add, of enlightened liberality which, it is to be hoped, will not lack followers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avenarius, F. Deutsche Lyrik der Gegenwart, seit 1850. 2d ed. Dresden: Louis Ehlermann; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Brownson, H. F. The Works of Orestes A. Brownson. Vol. V. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse. $3.
"Cavendish." The Laws and Principles of Whist. Fourteenth edition. Scribner & Welford.
James, H. Portraits of Places. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Johnston, R. M. Old Mark Langston: a Tale of Duke's Creek. Harper & Brothers.
Johnson, F. The Dies Iræ: an English Version in Double Rhymes, with an Essay and Notes. Cambridge, Mass.
Köstl'ng, K. Der Weg nach Eden. Epische Dichtung in fünf Büchern. Leipzig: Ernst Günther; New York: Westermann.
Lea, H. C. An Historical Sketch of Sacerdotal Celibacy in the Christian Church. Second edition, enlarged. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Mead, E. D. Martin Luther: a Study of Reformation. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.25.
McLean, Sarah P. Some Other Folks. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Nichol, J. Tables of European History, Literature, and Art, from A. D. 200 to 1882; and of American History, Literature, and Art. Macmillan & Co.
Otté, E. C. A Simplified Grammar of the Danish Language. London: Trübner & Co.
Peirce, Melusina F. Coöperative Housekeeping. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Reed, I. G. Erring, Yet Noble. The Story of a Woman's Life. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.25.
Richardson, Dr. B. W. The Field of Disease. A Book of Preventive Medicine. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Son & Co. $4.
Roman, A. The Military Operations of General Beauregard in the War between the States; including a brief Personal Sketch and a Narrative of his Services in the War with Mexico, 1846-8. 2 vols. Harper & Brothers. $7.00.
Russell, W. C. Little Loo: a Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Ruskin, J. St. Mark's Rest. John Wiley & Sons. $1.
Ruskin, J. Sesame and Lilies. John Wiley & Sons. 50 cents.
Schliemann, H. Troja. Harper & Bros.

Fine Arts.

THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.—II.

THERE are in the exhibition of the Water-Color Society a few drawings which it is impossible to classify and not easy to characterize. The chief of these is the life-size drawing by Weir, "Sunday Morning," a half-length female figure in a peasant's Sunday costume, apparently just setting out for church. While not free from *pose plastique*, it is largely drawn, and, while qualified as an "illustration," is more ambitious in size and treatment than as an illustration it need be, but not so thorough as its scale demands. It is hardly an excuse for the flimsiness of the background that it was intended for an illustration, since a drawing the size of an octavo page would answer every purpose and enable us to overlook many technical defects. This negligence on a large scale is a greater fault than when *in minimis*, as the only reason for painting a gallery picture, and especially a water-color, large, is the desire to get more ideas or finer expression of them than is possible on a small scale. There is a popular misapprehension and misestimation of small works of art like those of Meissonier, based on the erroneous notion that this minute painting means refinement of delineation, greater delicacy of execution, or finer sense of truth. The fact is, that if we should reduce any first-rate portrait by Titian or Raphael, perhaps even Velasquez, to the small size of a Meissonier, we should see that the great masters had a finer perception of the value of detail than Meissonier, and had given more of it. To attain such minuteness of execution as his is not an artistic quality but a physical one, and the true standard compels an idea to be valued not by its scale of representation but by its intellectual and artistic quality. Both the ambition to paint smaller, and that to paint larger, than the full and facile expression of the idea requires, are equally affectations and executive vanities, of which, however, that to paint large is the more pardonable, as the success implies a broader and better artistic training. This alone stands Mr. Weir in stead, for his large figure might just as well have been put on a board of 8x10 inches. It is able; but the affectation of negligence as to method (*vide* the girl's collar rubbed through and making a hole in the drawing, with false shadow) is a weakness. Mr. Weir's position and talents ought to make him avoid all such examples of affectation of manner. It is well to know that he can do work on such a scale, but he might have learned at the same time that large thoughts are requisite for large forms.

Mr. Millet's "Cymbal Player" is in an excellent vein of art, and is marked by a genuine mastery over action, which is one of the most valuable qualities in figure painting. To catch a fleeting action is as much rarer a gift than the simple posing of one well and gracefully, as shooting on the wing is more difficult than shooting at a target, and is a quality *sine qua non* in the highest range of design.

There are two good water-color studies of the orthodox style by Walter Paris, the "Church of St. Laurent" and "A Bit of Sussex." A naïve and really clever, though not in any commensurate degree effective, drawing is "Mommy and Her Old Man," by Alfred Kappes. There is nothing conventional, nothing borrowed even, in quality or treatment in this bit of negro life, which is humble and rustic without being vulgar; and realistic, as such a subject demands, without any pretension or exaggeration. The essential element, the character of the two negroes, is well given, and if there is a little crudity in the make-up we may well pardon it in the face of so much sincerity.

Two drawings by Charles E. Dana, "St. Malo, Brittany," and "Study from Nature, near Lenox, Mass.," are notably good work. So is the large drawing by Walter Satterlee, "Two Sides of a Convent Wall," a monk with his breviary in the shadow of convent wall, looking out with a tinge of melancholy, thinking, doubtless, "what might have been" as he sees two lovers playing with the grapes that hang in the sun on the other side. The literary idea which is the basis of this work is better put into artistic form than is generally the case with such fancies, but Mr. Satterlee has gone to his present limit of work with such evident ease that we cannot refrain from asking him why he did not go further, not merely in realization of fact, but, which is far more important and worthy study, in the realization of the color his drawing only gives a suggestion of. An excellent "Study of Trees" by Mr. Sonntag, No. 50, is more thorough than some of that painter's work we have seen lately. Mr. Fredericks's fantastic and weird Rip Van Winkle is, as design, original and imaginative and makes its mark, but as painting it depends too much on methods which cannot render the best qualities of water-color, to be fairly put in comparison with works in which color is chief. On the contrary, a drawing by Mr. Seymour, "The Sunset Gun," shows an extraordinary sense of color, borrowing somewhat from Turner's laboratory, keeping the tints pure and well contrasted as colors, but showing a most un-Turnerian want of valuation of light and shade. The sea which reflects the sunset sky would be one broad blaze of the reflection of such a conflagration, while the painter has broken it up into petty wave forms on which the sky has exerted no influence to correspond with its character.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1884.

The Week.

BOTH National Conventions are to be held in Chicago this year. In imitating the Republicans in selecting that city, the Democratic Committee is said to have been animated by various and conflicting motives. The contest was between Chicago and St. Louis. Much pressure was brought against the latter city by nervous Democrats who were sure that, if the Convention were held there, the delegates would be stampeded for the old ticket of Tilden and Hendricks because it was originally nominated there. There are Democrats, however, who do not believe that the Tilden peril has been averted by going to Chicago. The *Sun's* quondam candidate, Mr. Holman, is of the opinion that the old ticket is the strongest which the party can select, and that it would be certain of success at the polls. He expects to see a majority of the delegates arrive in Chicago animated by the same belief, and predicts that Tilden will get the nomination if he will accept it. Other authorities believe that Tilden will at the last moment turn over his following to some other man; but who this will be, no one of them is able to predict. The situation is strikingly like that of four years ago. Then Mr. Tilden was so unsuccessful in his efforts to convince his most intimate friends that he was really not a candidate, that nobody knew when the Convention met whether he wished a nomination or not. All were agreed, however, that he could name the candidate if he would, but though he wrote a letter which half the Convention took for a declination, and the other half could not understand, he gave no indication of his preference for any other candidate, and the Convention was obliged to proceed without his advice.

In 1880 both Conventions met in June, the Republican on the 2d and the Democratic on the 22d. This year the Republicans will come together on June 3 and the Democrats on July 8. Probably the latter have made their date later than usual in order to profit by any light which the action of the Republican Convention may throw upon the situation. This is the natural conduct of a party which has no principles of its own that it dares to avow, and which, in the language of its Committee's call, is openly in favor of nothing more specific than "pure, economical, and constitutional government." The first convention of the year will be that of the Greenback party in Indianapolis on May 28, and at this it is barely possible that General Butler may be nominated, although he is perceptibly much weaker as a candidate than he was a few months ago. There are many cheering evidences that his defeat in Massachusetts was even a more serious personal disaster than it appeared to be at the time.

Reports from the Southern States indicate that the delegates from that section to the National Republican Convention will be made up in the usual manner. They will be composed entirely of Federal office-holders and of negroes who will do as the office-holders tell them to. The Louisiana delegation will be headed by Senator Kellogg and Pinchback, and will be solid for Arthur, with Logan for second choice. Most of the other Southern delegations will be of the same disposition. The Southern delegates, in fact, occupy the same position in a national Republican convention as the Southern Democratic vote does in the Electoral College. Both are "solid," and one is about as much of an evil as the other. President Arthur's strength in the Convention will be made up mainly of this solid Southern contingency, which will not be able to give a single electoral vote for the Republican Presidential candidate. It will represent merely the Custom-houses, Post-offices, and other Government positions in the South, and will be as thoroughly mercenary a brigade as it would be possible to get together anywhere.

Those who are trying to make light of the recent conferences of the Independents in this city and in Brooklyn because similar movements came to nothing in 1872 and in 1876, would do well to remember that there have been a great many changes in the political world since then, and that it is not the Independents who have suffered by them, in this State at least. Nothing seemed less likely in either of those years than that an Administration candidate for the Governorship could be defeated in New York by a majority of 192,000, or than that Civil-Service Reform Acts could be passed both in Congress and in the State Legislature, or than that Mr. Chester A. Arthur would be found commending such laws, and at least pretending to execute them, or than that his organs would be found defending his Custom-house appointments on the ground that they were in the line of civil-service reform, or than that Mr. Conkling and Mr. Tom Platt and Mr. John F. Smyth would have retired from politics on the simple ground of failure and unpracticalness. The situation is, in fact, almost a wholly new one. It seems, moreover, almost providential that it should be acknowledged on all hands that the next Presidential election must be decided by the vote of the State in which the Independents are most powerful. They have not, in other words, to go searching for the Mikes, and Jakes, and Barneys all over the Union in order to tackle them. They have got them just where they want them, and where they can dispose of them with least cost and trouble.

Mr. Blaine has apparently been completely misunderstood again by a well-meaning but blundering friend. Congressman Bayne, of Pennsylvania, called upon the historian in his study a few evenings ago, and found him looking "remarkably well," his "bright eye, clear, strong voice, and vigorous activity in his arduous daily work, proclaiming him every inch the man he ever was." Mr. Bayne had a delightful chat, heard all about the "history," and the pleasure which its author was taking in writing it, and then, in a most unaccountable manner, had no sooner got out of the house than he began to nominate Mr. Blaine for the Presidency. An impartial and unsophisticated person, listening to Mr. Bayne's energetic talk, would suppose that the conversation which had taken place in the study was not on history at all, but on the best way of starting a Blaine boom. Mr. Bayne announced with the air of absolute authority that while Mr. Blaine is not a candidate, there is not the slightest danger of his declining the nomination if it is offered; that he is the only man who can be certain of making Maine "safe" in September; that he is certain to carry New York; that Pennsylvania is wild for him; that nobody anywhere is against him; that the people have twice been cheated in their desire to have him nominated, and that he is certain to be nominated now because he is unquestionably the choice of the masses of the party in all the States. It is very clear that Washington is not a favorable place for a retired statesman to engage in historical composition. His privacy is constantly invaded not only by annoying rumors and canvasses, but by officious friends who are unable to perceive the difference between a great history and an ordinary campaign document.

No change is to be noted in general trade during the past week. Some slackening, due to the Western floods and the extremely bad weather, was to be expected; but this is of course a temporary and accidental check. There is good reason to anticipate that when the weather improves we shall see greater activity in the movement of merchandise than has been felt during the past six or eight months. Wall Street speculation is still under the control of the large operators, who have marked up and marked down prices to suit themselves. The coal carriers (and especially Delaware, Lackawanna and Western) show a considerable advance. The remainder of the list, with the exception of Pullman Palace Car and Oregon Navigation, shows a small decline. The most important event of the week has been the advance of sterling exchange to a point where gold shipments have become necessary. The movement of specie has been small thus far, but it may assume very considerable proportions. This seems to be apprehended by the Secretary of the Treasury, who caused a verbal inquiry to be addressed to the Clearing-House Association, the purport of which was that, inasmuch as the Government's gold balance might be drawn down to a dangerous point, it would be well to know how the Clearing-House would regard the employment of silver dollars in the settlement of its (the Government's) balances. The answer of the Clearing-House Committee (according to the *Financial Chronicle*) was that they must first receive the thirty days' notice of intention to pay silver, as stipulated when the Sub-Treasury became a member of the Association. As this matter involves the question of a change in the

standard of value, its settlement is looked forward to with the deepest interest. There is, however, no cause for immediate alarm, since Congress may at any time put an end to the crisis by suspending the coinage of silver.

It appears to be agreed among our morning newpapers that there has been no official communication between the Treasury and the Clearing-House on the subject of silver payments, but that everybody should act as though there had been. How people will act if the thirty days' notice is given by the Government of its intention to pay in silver—or *when* it is given, for it is only a question of time—can be easily foreseen. Everybody who has any money will want to get it into such shape that it will remain at par with gold regardless of the action of the Government or of the banks or of both combined. This can be done by drawing gold or gold certificates, and locking them up in the safe-deposit companies, or by buying sterling exchange or gold-bearing bonds. Already a discrimination has been noticed among investors in favor of securities specifically payable in gold. The fact that depositors will look out for their own interests when the time comes, will prevent the banks from accepting silver, however much they may be inclined to do so. They can within thirty days possess themselves of every dollar of gold which the Government holds, and no silver man can object to their doing so; and with this stock in reserve they can probably maintain gold payments so far as they and their customers are concerned. The suggestion has been made that the Treasury need not give the thirty days' notice which Secretary Sherman agreed to when the present arrangement with the Clearing-House was made The agreement having been made (and made at the instance of the Government), a violation of it would be an act of repudiation and perfidy which, it may fairly be presumed, neither Secretary Folger nor any successor of his in office would ever be guilty of.

The telegraphic synopsis of Senator McPherson's bill to suspend the coinage of silver dollars till January 1, 1886, and to make gold and silver bullion legal tender, differed in an important particular from the text of the bill, which provides that silver bullion shall be legal tender only at its value as compared with gold. In other words, both gold and silver bullion are to be legal tender for what they are actually worth. This is unobjectionable in principle, although the practical operation of the bill would be attended with difficulties arising from the fluctuations of silver. If Mr. McPherson's bill in any sense represents the present attitude of the Democratic party in Congress as to silver, it gives a more hopeful view than we have ventured to entertain. At all events it will serve to bring on a discussion of the silver question, than which nothing is more desirable at this time.

The Copyright Bill is very nearly reached in the House, and the enemies of the measure intend when it comes up to move an amendment requiring manufacture in this country. We learn from Washington that its friends are very confident that it will pass as it comes from the Committee. The "protectionists" are evidently very much afraid to come out against it. In ordinary cases they can insist on fostering American manufactures without allying themselves with people who openly advocate direct robbery of the producer. They therefore attempt to gain the friendship and vote of the pirates by advocating the bill in public, and privately declaring their intention to kill it by a "long fight."

We are requested by the Copyright League to state that, until the Dorsheimer bill is either passed or defeated, it will be represented at Washington by Mr. James Lowndes, of that city. Mr. Lowndes's standing as a lawyer in Washington is well known, and his instructions are that the League, which now has the support of five hundred names, desires the passage of a simple authors' copyright bill, which will give English and American authors exactly the same rights everywhere that they now have at home, free from any limitations or restrictions as to the place of manufacture, whether proposed in the interest of publishers, paper manufacturers, or pirates. The Dorsheimer bill was framed with exactly this intention, but as critics, friendly or hostile, have found flaws in its phraseology, the League is especially desirous that every one who thinks it worth while should forward to Mr. Lowndes, or to it, any suggestions with regard to the form of the measure, and promises that they shall receive due consideration. The enemies of the bill are endeavoring to defeat it by delay, the only vote thus far taken in the House having shown a majority of fifty-seven in favor of the measure.

Mr. Belford, of Colorado, is a terrible but illogical fellow. He made a ferocious attack on the West Point Academy last week, because it does not admit very ignorant boys, and exclaimed with what he thought was destructive force: "What in God's name has grammar to do with fighting battles?" He has since then had a quarrel with Mr. Cobb, the Chairman of the Public Lands Committee, of which he (Mr. Belford) is a member, in the course of which Mr. Cobb expressed a desire to have "the gentleman from Colorado shut his jaw, or he would shut it for him." To this "indecent remark" Mr. Belford makes answer that he "will not allow any man to bulldoze him, and especially a man who would spell Rhode Island with a little *r* and leave out the *h*." He further adds "that he is prepared for Cobb now, and that if he ever attempts to shut his jaw for him, the Committee on Public Lands will require a new Chairman." But, we ask, what in thunder has spelling to do with shutting jaws? Why should Mr. Belford allow a man who spells Rhode Island correctly to shut his jaw for him any more readily than a man who begins with a small *r* and leaves out the *h*? Is not this a disgusting concession to the claims of knowledge? When a man feels in this way about spelling, what security can we have that he will not soon truckle to grammar or even arithmetic? Our rule would be to allow no man, however gifted or accomplished, to shut our jaw for us.

The text of Prince Bismarck's despatch returning the Ochiltree resolution has been published. It is more dignified in tone than we were led to expect, and has also more reason in it. What he objects to is, it appears, the passage which asserts that Herr Lasker's "firm and constant exposition of and devotion to free and liberal ideas had materially advanced the social, political, and economical condition" of the German people. We presume Herr Lasker's friends would maintain that this was strictly true, but then, as he passed his parliamentary career in opposition to Prince Bismarck's policy on domestic questions, it is perhaps hard to expect Bismarck to admit it, on the motion of a foreign Legislature, and it would be very unlike him to accept meekly the implied rebuke which it contains. Nevertheless, a larger-minded and better-tempered man would have let it pass in a eulogy, from whatever quarter, on an opponent whose lips were forever sealed. Prince Bismarck's right to withhold the resolution from the Reichstag is a question which we must leave to German publicists. On one point, we confess, the Chancellor has clearly the best of the controversy. He says with much modesty:

"I should not venture to oppose my judgment to the opinion of such an illustrious body as the House of Representatives if I had not, by more than thirty years' active participation in the internal policy of Germany, gained an experience which justified me in attaching a certain value to my judgment in questions of home affairs."

It is undoubtedly true that he knows more about the domestic affairs of the German Empire than our House of Representatives. Over Colonel Tom Ochiltree, who really got up the resolution and procured its passage, his advantage in this respect is simply beyond computation.

The petition for the impeachment of Judge Locke, of Florida, throws a new light on an old subject—the connection between the character of judges and their salaries. Judge Locke has been United States District Judge in Florida for twelve years, on a salary of $3,500. According to the petition for his impeachment, which is accompanied with full specifications, affidavits, and the names of witnesses, he has found it necessary to eke out his scanty income by pawnbroking and usury, by illicit dealing in tobacco, and even by keeping a wrecking schooner at work along the Florida coast. His seat on the bench gave him, it seems, peculiar facilities for wrecking, as he was able, sitting in admiralty, to decree himself entitled to salvage for property which, as owner of the good ship *Pelican*, he saved from the perils of the deep. This is by no means the whole of the story, however The Judge is accused of having at election time improperly approached voters and attempted to influence them in behalf of himself and his friends. One witness swears that in a campaign some years ago Locke sent for him, asked him to get as many votes as he could for a State Senator, and handed him some money which he, the witness, used among the "boys." This little fact should be considered in connection with another circumstance of a political nature—that on May 22, 1883, a few

months after the passage of the Civil-Service Act, Dennis Eagan, Internal Revenue Collector for Florida, received a letter from H. C. Rogers, Acting Commissioner of Internal Revenue at Washington, proposing an assessment of $46 88 against the salary of Judge Locke, and requesting him to report why this assessment should not be made.

All this reads like a burlesque written to illustrate the consequences of the treatment of its judges by our Government. First we have a judge appointed and given large powers in a remote, half-civilized district, where he can easily make himself a petty tyrant, then given a salary which is very much less than a lawyer fit to have such a place could make at the bar. Then we see his salary suddenly taxed by the officers of the Government which appoints him, in violation of a law just passed to prevent such exactions, and to "help the party"; and finally we are told that the judge has been recouping himself by bribery and corruption, and illicit trade, and will have to be removed. Judge Locke may be a very bad man, but how are we ever to get good Federal judges with such a system?

Mr. Frederick Douglass's marriage at the age of seventy to a white woman has excited a considerable amount of odd debate. Colored critics generally condemn it as a sort of unfaithfulness to his own race. The *Independent* of this city, however, commended it as a benevolent and patriotic enterprise, inasmuch as Mr. Douglass's example will probably encourage other colored men to marry white women, and thus lead to that amalgamation of the races which is to be the only true and radical solution of the negro problem. Against this startling view the Rev. Dr. Crummell, the colored pastor of a colored church in Washington, lifts up his voice in a very shrewd and forcible sociological essay in the *Independent*. He contends that the advice of the *Independent* is substantially advice to colored men to neglect colored women, already the most forlorn class in the community, and leave them without husbands, for white men will not marry them. If any considerable body of colored men took unto themselves white wives, there would be a corresponding number of colored women left, not in single blessedness, but, according to Dr. Crummell, in a condition of discontent which would end in great immorality. Our advice to both disputants is, however, not to become excited over the matter, for we are sure the discussion is strictly academical. We do not believe, in other words, that any number of colored gentlemen worth mention will succeed in procuring white wives in consequence either of Mr. Douglass's marriage or of the *Independent's* article. Mr. Douglass has exceptional advantages, both in personal appearance, history, and social position, and then he married his amanuensis, or, in other words, a member of a very susceptible class. Nor do we think the writer of editorials in favor of mixed marriages takes on himself any very serious responsibility. White women will always read such compositions with a certain distrust, when presented by black suitors, no matter how powerful the argumentation. It must be remembered, too, that women rarely marry for the public good, or as a contribution toward the solution of a political problem.

W. B. Cash, one of the two hopeful sons of the "Colonel" Cash who killed Shannon the lawyer in a duel two years ago, and was acquitted by a South Carolina jury, has just murdered two men in the street, one of them the policeman who had arrested him the day before for being disorderly, and the other an innocent bystander. He has since fled, after spreading "gloom" through the community, and parties of lynchers are in pursuit of him. This man is one of the great multitude of drunken armed ruffians who pass as "gentlemen" and descendants of Cavaliers at the South, and are the curse and scourge of her society. The father, the Colonel, is of course the worthy parent of such offspring, and yet so strongly does the diseased public opinion of the region bolster up such people, that Shannon, an elderly lawyer in good standing, and a peaceable and respectable man, felt obliged to meet old Cash in a duel to give him satisfaction for language used in court in the conduct of a cause, and was killed by him in the presence of a large crowd. The whole Cash family, in a really civilized community, would long ago have been serving out terms in some well-regulated penitentiary, for crimes of violence. In South Carolina they run loose till they commit deliberate, unprovoked murder, and then the whole neighborhood has to chase them on horseback, as if they were some kind of wild animal.

One of the good signs at the South is, however, that the local press begins to denounce particular murderers with courage. Formerly they used to confine themselves to denouncing murder in general in such vague terms as not to offend any one of the always numerous local murderers, knowing well that if they did, a street fight would probably be the result. There is at least one such paper in South Carolina, the Charleston *News and Courier*. In Florida, which is more and more sought every year by Northern visitors and colonists, the drunken blackguard "Cavaliers" are making themselves scarcer and scarcer, but there are still traces of their presence, as was shown the other day by the deliberate murder on a hotel piazza of the proprietor, by a man who informed him after shooting him that he had been insulting his wife, which was the first the poor victim knew of it. The Florida *Times-Union*, published in Jacksonville, is making there a good fight for civilization, by preaching, strange as it may sound here, the duty of newspapers to denounce specific murderers, in order to make up for the ignorance and remissness of jurors. Its theory is, that the ordinary Southern murderer is much more sensitive to newspaper criticism than he is to the action of the law. He does not mind being prosecuted, or even convicted, knowing that nothing serious will come of it, but editorial denunciation he winces under, probably from its association in his mind with the horrors of "posting." One of the grotesque customs of the fighting world down there is that if one ruffian calls another names on a piece of dirty paper, and sticks it on a tree or gate post, the other is bound to feel, or pretend to feel, unutterable pain and indignation, and run around after him with a knife or pistol, and have no sleep or appetite till he "cuts" him or shoots him.

The *American Literary Churchman* makes some very useful comments on the proposal to try the Rev. Heber Newton for heresy, which some of his clerical assailants can hardly read without benefit. It points out that he would have to be tried, under the Church law of this State, in case the Bishop directed a trial, by a court composed of five clergymen chosen by the accused out of a list of twelve nominated by the Bishop. Of these five, three would constitute a quorum, and a majority would be competent to decide all questions submitted to them, so that Mr. Newton might either be convicted or acquitted by two clergymen, or, in fact, by one clergyman having a casting vote. But such conviction or acquittal would mean the decision by this one clergyman what was or was not the doctrine of the Protestant Episcopal Church touching the authority of the Scriptures, and not only this, but whether Mr. Newton had or had not contravened this doctrine in a large number of sermons. Of course the vote of one clergyman on such a point, though it might condemn Mr. Newton, would have no weight whatever as an expression of the opinion of the Church. Nor, if the whole five concurred, would their dicta be accepted as the opinion of the Church. Moreover, no counsel would appear at the trial unless the accused chose to employ them. The *Literary Churchman* contrasts this with the elaborate arguments of leading members of the bar which accompany the trial of all important ecclesiastical causes in England, and concludes with an expression of devout thankfulness that Bishop Potter has been vouchsafed the wisdom and discretion to let the Rev. Heber Newton alone.

General Graham's force, numbering, it is said, about 4,500 men, has moved out of Suakim to attack Osman Digma, and a battle will probably take place on Friday if Osman stands his ground. If he does stand and is defeated, all will be well. But the danger is that he will not stand his ground; that is, that he will retire into the desert and do what he can well afford to do, but his adversaries cannot—wait. Should he adopt this policy, General Graham's position will be a very awkward one—for pursuit would be madness. Moreover, it is rather alarming to hear that the camel-drivers of the force are to be mutinous or cowardly Nubian soldiers, who have refused to fight. This is serious, because the tactics in the fight—if fight there be—will have to be precisely what Lord Chelmsford's were in Zululand, and what Hicks Pasha's were in the Sudan, and what the tactics of small bodies of regulars acting against swarms of light-armed barbarians must always be. The British will have to receive the Arabs in a square, and the camels and camel-drivers will have somehow to be got inside of the square, or form one side of it, and if they stampede or "cut up" in any way there might be a catastrophe of some kind, and a British disaster would be really a serious matter.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS

[WEDNESDAY, February 20, to TUESDAY, February 26, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate on Monday passed the McPherson Currency Bill by a vote of 43 to 12. Its essential feature is "that upon any deposit, already or hereafter made, of any United States bonds, bearing interest in the manner required by law, any national banking association making the same shall be entitled to receive from the Controller of the Currency circulating notes of different denominations, in blank, registered and countersigned as provided by law, not exceeding in the whole amount the par value of the bonds deposited; provided, that at no time shall the total amount of such notes issued to any such association exceed the amount at such time actually paid in of its capital stock."

The House Committee on Banking and Currency on Tuesday morning instructed Mr. Wilkins to report the McPherson bill, and on the third Monday in March to ask, under a suspension of the rules, that a day be set for its consideration. It was especially stipulated that this action should not be considered as an adverse expression of the Committee on the Potter bill, now before the Ways and Means Committee.

The House bill for the relief of Gen. Fitz-John Porter has been favorably reported in the Senate and made the special order for March 12.

The Shipping Committee of the House on Monday voted six to three to report adversely the bill to admit foreign-built ships to American registry free of duty.

Representative Belford has prepared a bill for introduction in the House, providing for the establishment at West Point of a preparatory school for candidates for admission to the Military Academy.

There is pending before the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives a very stringent bill by which it is proposed to amend the Chinese restriction act, and to provide more exacting regulations as to the passports which are given to certain classes of Chinese. The Chinese Government, through its ambassador in Washington, has just sent a communication to Congress, in which it says that, in view of the agitation of this subject by the American Congress, it has determined not to give any certificates to Chinamen of the classes referred to, and not to permit any to embark for the United States. The bill which the California members, therefore, are so persistently urging before the Committee, if enacted, would be aimed at a man of straw.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs decided on Saturday to take no action in regard to the Lasker incident for the present, until all the documents in the case arrive.

Speaker Carlisle has received a letter addressed to him personally by several of the most prominent members of the Liberal Party in the German Reichstag, expressing their appreciation of the action taken by the House of Representatives in memory of Herr Lasker.

The British Government has presented to the United States, for the use of the Greely Relief Expedition, the *Alert*, which was the advance ship of the expedition under Sir George Nares. The President has accepted the gift with the thanks of this nation. The Senate, also, on Tuesday passed a resolution thanking the British Government for the *Alert*. In the House, "Richelieu" Robinson objected to the consideration of the resolution.

Chief-Engineer George Melville will accompany the Greely Relief Expedition as engineer of the advance ship *Thetis*, commanded by Captain Schley.

The steamer *Frisia*, with the bodies of De Long and his comrades of the *Jeannette* expedition on board, arrived at Hoboken on Wednesday. On Friday they were conveyed to the Brooklyn Navy-yard, followed by an imposing procession of military organizations. Public funeral services were held in the Church of the Holy Trinity, in this city, on Saturday, and the bodies, with three exceptions, were afterward interred at Woodlawn Cemetery. Friends have charge of the other bodies, and they were interred at different places.

A call for $10,000,000 3 per cent. bonds was issued by the United States Treasury Department on Thursday.

President Arthur on Thursday renominated Mr. Burchard to be Director of the Mint.

The Secretary of State received a despatch from Minister Foster, at Madrid, on Monday, announcing that James R. Partridge had committed suicide at Alicante, Spain, where he was residing on account of ill-health. Mr. Partridge was for many years a diplomatic representative of the United States in Honduras, Brazil, and Salvador. He was appointed Minister to Peru in 1882, and was recalled by Secretary Frelinghuysen in the early part of 1883 because of his unauthorized action in uniting with the diplomatic representatives of Great Britain, France, and Italy in Peru in a joint memorandum, asking that their Governments should request Chili to make peace on certain terms.

United States Minister Hunt is dying in St. Petersburg, Russia.

The investigation of the Danville (Va.) outrages has been in progress at Washington during the week, and of the Copiah (Miss.) outrages, at New Orleans. There was a great deal of testimony to prove the intimidation of the negroes by the whites on the one side, and their insolence on the other. The House Committee investigating the charges of ex-Speaker Keifer against Gen. H. V. Boynton, a newspaper correspondent, was also in session for several days at Washington. No report has yet been made.

The National Democratic Convention is called to meet at Chicago on July 8. The Territories are invited to send delegates, subject to the decision of the Convention as to their admission. A National Greenback Convention is called to meet in Indianapolis on May 28.

About 300 Independent Republicans sat down to a Washington's Birthday dinner in the Assembly Rooms of the Brooklyn Academy of Music on Friday evening. There were representatives of this city, Brooklyn, Boston, Philadelphia, Buffalo, Albany, and other places. Speeches were made by Frederic Cromwell, Carl Schurz, President Seelye, of Amherst College, and others. The tenor of the remarks was entirely against Machine methods and sectional agitation. Mr. Schurz sounded the keynote of the meeting when he said: "The real element of strength for the Republican party is the popular belief that it contains the elements of reform in sufficient preponderance to direct its policy. The views that shape administrative reform will be the issues of the coming campaign."

On Saturday morning a large body of representative Republicans, called together for a conference in regard to nominations for the Presidential contest, met in this city. Speeches of a similar tone to those at the Brooklyn dinner were delivered, and resolutions were passed as follows: That it is indispensable to the success of the Republican party that the character, record, and political associations of its candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States should be such as to warrant entire confidence in their readiness to defend the advances already made toward divorcing the public service from party politics, and to continue these advances till the separation has been made final and complete; that no interference with the free choice of delegates to the National Convention by Congressional districts should anywhere be tolerated; that the interests of the Republican party imperatively demand that the management of the State and national campaign be confided to men whose character and record are such as to command the unhesitating support and confidence of all members of the party; and that a committee be appointed to carry out these views.

The New Jersey State Republican Convention is called to meet in Trenton on April 23.

Mr. Roosevelt's bill to give the Mayor of New York city the sole power of appointing heads of departments was passed by the Assembly on Wednesday by a vote of 70 to 51.

The Prison Labor Commission sent in a report to the Assembly on Wednesday representing that the time accorded to make a report is insufficient, and requesting that ample time for an examination of the whole matter be conceded them. In the meantime they think the subject should not be in any way complicated by a renewal of the existing contracts or awarding of new ones: let these wait until the report is ready. The Commission is informed that no contracts except one small one will mature for two years.

On Thursday the Comstock bill, which prohibits the making of further prison labor contracts, was passed by the Assembly with only one negative vote.

The Judges of the New York Court of Appeals wore for the first time on Monday silken robes, in accordance with a recent request from the State Bar Association.

George William Curtis has accepted the invitation of the city of Boston to deliver a eulogy on Wendell Phillips in Tremont Temple on April 16.

The Dartmouth College Faculty has refused to adopt the resolutions for the regulation of intercollegiate athletics.

Salmi Morse, the author of the "Passion Play," which he tried to produce in this city last winter, was found drowned in the North River on Friday. He had lately been depressed in spirits on account of ill-health and business troubles, and it is supposed that he committed suicide.

A terrible explosion of fire-damp occurred in a coal mine four miles from Uniontown, Pa., on Wednesday. Nineteen miners were killed.

Reports were received on Wednesday of a great tornado on the previous day in Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, Kentucky, and other Southern States. The loss of life in some localities was very great. Serious floods were also reported from Southern California.

FOREIGN.

General Gordon has been carrying on his work of reform at Khartum successfully. Unjust debts have been cancelled, and prisoners were released. The clause regarding slavery in his recent proclamation is: "I desire to restore your happiness, and so I have decided to permit slave traffic. Every one having domestic servants may consider them his property and dispose of them." After the full restoration of order at Khartum, General Gordon will proceed to Kordofan, where he will interview El Mahdi in order to learn the fate of Hicks Pasha.

Khartum was reported to be tranquil on Tuesday. The market is full of Arabs daily, who freely bring in their produce on foot. The price of vegetables has fallen one-half since General Gordon's arrival.

General Gordon's recent proclamation is losing its effect. El Mahdi is marching on Khartum. Gordon has published another manifesto, in which he informs the insurgents that the Sultan, the Commander of the Faithful, intends to despatch a great army to conquer their country. General Gordon exhorts them to accept his offers of peace in order to preserve themselves from a Turkish invasion. He has asked the Khedive to issue a decree confirming the independence of the Sudan. On the other hand, the Porte has warned the Khedive to maintain its

integrity. This dilemma has led to fresh rumors of the Khedive's abdication.

Great uneasiness was felt at Cairo on Monday at the report that the powerful Beshareen Arabs had revolted. They occupy the territory between Khartum and Wady Halfa and eastward as far as Berber. If this is true, General Gordon with Khartum and the other garrisons is cut off.

It was positively asserted in Constantinople on Monday that El Mahdi and King John of Abyssinia had signed a convention to the effect that King John should remain neutral, and in return receive a port on the Red Sea and a large accession of territory.

The Tokar Relief Expedition consists of about 6,000 men, including all branches of the service. Twelve hundred of them were at Suakim and 4,300 near Trinkitat on Friday, preparing to advance simultaneously to the relief of the besieged town. On that day news was received that the garrison at Tokar had surrendered. The Governor of that city had a conference on Wednesday with Osman Digma, the result of which was that he accepted the rebel's terms. One account says that only those of the garrison who had wives surrendered; the remainder were trying to reach Suakim. It is not believed that the rebels put the population of Tokar to the sword. The greatest excitement prevailed in London over the news. On Saturday Admiral Hewett, Baker Pasha, and General Graham started for Trinkitat. Osman Digma was on that day reported at Teb, eager to fight.

The whole British expedition landed at Trinkitat on Sunday. Rebels could be seen on all sides. It is estimated that there are 18,000 of them in the immediate vicinity. The British Secretary of War on Sunday ordered an immediate advance to be made from Trinkitat. The news of the surrender of Tokar spread throughout the Sudan as an English defeat, and had a great effect on the rebels.

One thousand British troops advanced four miles on Tuesday from Trinkitat, and occupied Baker Pasha's fortifications. The enemy retired waving their spears. It is expected that a battle will take place on Friday, and that the point of attack will be three miles northeast of Trinkitat.

The men-of-war at Suakim fired during Monday night to keep the rebels at a distance. The condition of affairs there is critical.

In the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Labouchere moved an adjournment in order to discuss the position of the troops along the Red Sea. Several attacks were made on the Government policy in Egypt, which was defended by Mr. Gladstone and the Marquis of Hartington. The motion was defeated. A Parnellite motion to appoint a standing committee on Irish affairs was rejected, 100 to 40.

Mr. Vincent, the financial adviser to the Khedive, is going to England to urge a scheme of Egyptian financial reform. The outlines are as follows: The suspension of the sinking fund provided for under the liquidation law; the reduction of the interest on the Suez Canal bonds held by England to 2 1-2 per cent.; the taxation of resident foreigners, and the reduction of the army and civil administration. The total which it is estimated will be realized by these reforms is over $5,000,000 yearly.

A meeting of the Suez Canal bondholders, representing 25,000 shares, was held in Paris on Friday. It was unanimously resolved that the agreement made by M. de Lesseps with the British shipowners was unacceptable.

Sir Edward Thornton, British Minister at St. Petersburg, has been directed by his Government to ask of the Russian Government a full explanation of their annexation of the Merv Oasis. Minister Thornton is at the same time to protest against this action as a breach of the assurances given to England by the Czar Alexander. It was stated in St Petersburg on Monday that Russia had voluntarily offered England a pledge to stop at Merv, and to use her influence with the Khans of Bokhara and Khiva to facilitate English commerce. It was further stated that the Russian Government had invited England to join in constructing a canal from the Sea of Aral to the Indian frontier.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday Mr. John O'Conner Power, Home Ruler, resumed the debate upon Mr. Parnell's amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech, and made a severe arraignment of the Parnellite party. The Parnellites had, he said, been pursuing a policy adverse to the interests of Ireland since the Land Act was introduced. It was in consequence of this that he had separated himself from the Nationalist movement, which had impeded beneficial legislation, and had imposed upon Ireland three years of the most stringent and hateful legislation which had ever been imposed upon any country. The speech caused a great sensation in the House, which was crowded. Messrs. Healy and Justin McCarthy replied. On Friday the House rejected the amendment by a vote of eighty-one to thirty.

The Conservative members of Parliament met on Thursday morning. They decided to support the election of Mr. Arthur Wellesley Peel, the Government candidate for the Speakership. Speaker Brand announced his resignation on Friday. On Monday, when he formally retired from the chair, Mr. Gladstone made a motion which was carried, eulogizing his course. He has been raised to the peerage with the title of Lord Hampden.

Sir Arthur Wellesley Peel, youngest son of the late Sir Robert Peel, was on Tuesday unanimously elected Speaker of the House of Commons.

The House of Commons on Thursday reaffirmed its previous resolution forbidding Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath, by a vote of 226 to 173. Mr. Bradlaugh says if the courts decide against him he will resign his seat and not seek a reëlection.

The House of Lords on Friday passed a motion to appoint a commission on the housing of the poor. The Prince of Wales made a speech upon it, and was appointed a member of the commission.

Mr. Gladstone has offered Mr. Goldwin Smith the Professorship of History at Oxford. In case Mr. Smith declines, the position will be offered to Dr. Edward A. Freeman.

It is rumored that Henry Irving will be solicited to contest a Parliamentary constituency in the Liberal interest in the next general election.

A terrible dynamite explosion occurred in a cloak room at the Victoria Railway station in London about 1 o'clock on Tuesday morning. A large portion of the roof was blown off and nearly all the glass-work in the station was destroyed. Extensive damage was done to surrounding property. All trains had ceased running and only a few persons were in the station. But two persons were injured, and they slightly. The deed is attributed to the same persons who caused the explosion at the Praed Street station of the Underground Railroad several months ago. The damage caused is estimated at about $20,000.

The Berlin *Official Gazette* published on Wednesday the communication of Prince Bismarck to the German Minister at Washington in regard to the Lasker resolution. In it he said: "I should have gratefully accepted the communication made by Minister Sargent, and should have asked the Emperor to empower me to present it to the Reichstag, if the resolution had not contained an opinion regarding the object and effect of Herr Lasker's political activity which was opposed to my convictions. According to my experience of the political-economic development of the German people, I cannot recognize the opinion as one which events I have witnessed would justify. I cannot determine to ask the Emperor for the necessary power to communicate the resolution to the Reichstag, because I should have officially to advocate before the Emperor an opinion which I cannot recognize as correct."

Bismarck's organ, the *North German Gazette*, said on Thursday that the request addressed to Prince Bismarck by Minister Sargent was of such a remarkable character that it could only be explained by his ignorance of diplomatic usage. It amounted to nothing less than asking the Emperor to endorse the vote of a foreign body and to hand it viséed to the Reichstag, for Prince Bismarck's duty is simply to execute the commands of the Emperor. Prince Bismarck is not in the employ of the international democracy, but of the German Emperor.

The Berlin *National Gazette* said: "Prince Bismarck's decree is deprived of all sting for Congress and the American people because the whole affair is made entirely a matter of internal German policy. It is doubtful, however, whether it would have been necessary to trouble the Emperor regarding such a purely formal matter as handing the Lasker resolution to the Reichstag."

The London *Times* says of the Lasker incident: "At last Prince Bismarck has obtained an opportunity to show his dislike of the country which annually robs him of thousands of conscripts. Congress was ill-advised in sending the resolution; Prince Bismarck was ungracious in returning it. Granting, however, that Prince Bismarck was right in refusing to praise Herr Lasker, his organs are wrong in reviling Minister Sargent. The latter was only obeying his Government."

The London *Standard's* Berlin correspondent, in a telegram on Monday, said: "The independent papers are bitterly complaining at the dishonorable semi-official attacks upon Minister Sargent, who has never been popular in official circles here. The inspired press pretends that he is unpopular because he is merely a politician, and not a scholar, like his predecessors. The real reason, however, is that Mr. Sargent does not regard his position as a sinecure, but energetically fulfils his political duties, which fact often occasions difficulties."

The recent interviews at Berlin between Prince Dolgoruki and Prince Bismarck have resulted in the assent of the latter to a meeting in the spring between the Czar and Emperor William.

A Commission of the Russian General Staff is elaborating a vast scheme of reform in the administration of the Merv district. The Turcomans are urging the retention of native institutions.

M. Clémenceau has recently returned to Paris from a visit to London. He expresses himself as much pleased with the tenement dwellings of workingmen in London. He was horrified, however, at the slums, which surpass in degrading filth and wretchedness anything to be seen in Paris. The infiltration of socialism into English politics struck him as a remarkable sign of the times.

M. Benjamin Ulmann, the French painter, died on Tuesday at the age of fifty-five. He had often exhibited at the Paris salons and had received three medals. The decorative paintings in the Court of Cassation and other public rooms were the work of his brush.

François Bonheur, a brother of Rosa Bonheur, and a painter of some celebrity, is dead at the age of sixty.

The death is announced of the distinguished French Generals Emmanuel Félix de Wimpffen, aged seventy-three, and Jean Paul Adam de Schramm, aged ninety-five.

Prince Krapotkine, the Nihilist, is dangerously ill in Clairvaux Prison, France. His doctors say that he will die unless removed to more healthful quarters.

The French General Millot, commander o the land forces in Tonquin, has left three battalions at Sontay and three at Haiphong, and is preparing to operate against Bacninh with 9,000 men.

THE SILVER CRISIS.

THE announcement that the Treasury Department has intimated to the Clearing-House Association that it may become necessary to pay the Government's balances in silver, is fraught with very momentous consequences. The thing to be decided is, whether the business of the country shall be conducted on the gold standard, or on the silver standard, or on two standards simultaneously. The Silver-Coinage Act, and the incessant piling up in the Treasury of a kind of money which cannot be used, have at last brought us to the edge of a crisis which has been foreseen and predicted from the beginning. It is better, far better, to meet the issue now, while the amount of silver on hand is a manageable quantity, than to wait till it reaches unmanageable proportions. The Secretary of the Treasury is not to be censured for the step he has taken. On the contrary, he is entitled to the thanks and commendations of the business community for precipitating an issue which could not be postponed much longer in any case, and which must find its ultimate solution not in a war of words, but in the clashing of facts.

A brief explanation of the mode in which the Government conducts its business is needed in order to appreciate the significance of the step which has been taken. New York, as the financial centre of the United States, the place where the bulk of the country's exchanges are effected, and where the larger part of the customs revenue is received, is the most convenient place for the Government to make its general disbursements. In order both to receive and to pay out money in the large sums which it has to handle, in a speedy and economical manner, the Sub-Treasury meets the banks every day at the Clearing-House, passes in the checks which it holds against the banks, receives those drawn upon itself by the Treasurer at Washington, and which have found their way hither through bank channels from every part of the country, and either pays to or receives from the Clearing-House the balance resulting from a comparison of the two accounts. In other words, it acts and is acted upon, so far as the "clearing" goes, just like any other member of the association. Clearing is a mechanical operation, which the Government avails itself of as a labor-saving machine.

The Sub-Treasury might leave the Clearing-House and go back to its old system of making all its payments and taking in all its receipts over its own counter, but while it remains there it must obey the rules of the Association, as it has agreed to do. One of these rules provides that all balances shall be paid either in gold or in United States legal-tender notes. The resolutions adopted by the Association, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, on the 12th of November, 1878, have kept, and will continue to keep, all the money on deposit in the banks of New York at par with gold, whatever may be done by the Government or by banks elsewhere. The Boston Clearing-House passed resolutions similar to those adopted here, but no action was taken on the subject in other cities.

We do not understand that any step has been taken further than to obtain the opinion of the Clearing-House as to the effect of the Government's giving notice (if it should be forced to do so either by financial or political exigencies) of its intention to pay silver dollars, instead of gold or greenbacks, in the settlement of its debit balances. It can do so —that is, it can abrogate the rule so far as itself is concerned—by giving thirty days' notice, but not before. While, therefore, it has only made an inquiry, and may do nothing more at present, yet the situation and the inquiry both point to action of some kind, and it is well that the step is taken before the silver crisis becomes utterly disastrous. The amount of silver in the Treasury now is only one hundred and twenty millions, or little more than one-half the amount usually held by the Bank of France. The quantity in France, however, is a fixed quantity. It cannot be increased, because the Government refuses to coin any more. Ours is an increasing quantity, and no limit, not even the limit of the public demand, has been placed upon it. No time for grappling with such an evil can be deemed too early. Congress has had abundant opportunity to consider and act upon it, but has neglected to do so. It is plain that another year could not be allowed to pass without so reducing the Government's gold balance that it would be forced to pay out silver for its current requirements. It is by all means advisable to take this step while Congress is in session in order that legislative remedies may be applied if there is any disposition to apply them, and that the responsibility for not applying them may fall where it belongs.

The straight issue is, whether the money of the country and the standard of value shall be gold or silver. This will not be decided by speeches or votes, but by the action of the business community. Will any bank, can any bank, receive from depositors silver worth eighty cents to the dollar, and pay out gold on depositors' checks worth one hundred cents to the dollar? Will any depositor deposit gold or gold value in a bank where he may expect to receive silver or silver value in return? These questions answer themselves. If any bank should be so far forgetful of its own interests as to distribute its capital to its customers by taking in 80-cent dollars and paying out 100-cent dollars, it would very soon be without either customers or capital. Such a course of procedure is unthinkable from a business-man's point of view. There is no way to make two unequal things equal to each other. There is no way to compel the business community to esteem silver as highly as they esteem gold. Therefore no legislation can cause the silver dollar and the gold dollar to pass on an equality, either inside or outside of the banks, unless the Government redeems the silver dollar as it redeems the greenback dollar at the Treasury.

The political consequences of the silver crisis, if it is to come now, or whenever it does come, will be very important. It is quite evident that the silver craze which raged with such violence in the West and South a few years ago has died out except in the silver-producing States and Territories, where the Silver-Coinage Act is looked upon rightfully as a measure of "protection to American industry"—in other words, as a means of securing a steady market for the product of the mines, at good prices. In the Eastern States, and especially in New York, no other issue would so surely wreck the Democratic party as any disturbance of business resulting from that party's neglect or refusal to suspend the coinage of unused silver, the existing mass of which constitutes the most serious menace to the prosperity of the country.

THE REGULATION OF COLLEGE SPORTS.

THE resolutions of the recent intercollegiate athletic conference have called out a chorus of disapproval from several quarters, and it is evidently more than doubtful whether five colleges can be got to approve them. Harvard and Princeton have adopted them. Brown will probably refuse. There is no chance that Yale will accept them, and even if Columbia and Wesleyan should, the defection of Yale will make any attempt at union nearly impossible. Whether we call Harvard and Yale universities or only colleges like the rest, they are so much larger, and their stake in the matter is so much greater, and the competition between them so much keener, that for the success of an intercollegiate athletic code the support of both is required.

The discussion as far as it has gone (and it will no doubt be renewed) has brought out one or two points of considerable interest. The first of these is, that the idea prevails among a considerable body of students, that the regulation of sports is something with which the faculties of colleges have nothing to do. This is all the more remarkable because it is only within a generation that sports have obtained any recognition in American colleges. Fifty years ago the idea that athletics were a branch of education, or that competition in them was to be encouraged, was unknown in American colleges, and any attempt to foster it would have been quickly stifled by the faculties. These bodies, which were then composed of teachers of a somewhat ascetic type, looked with coldness upon, if they did not actually resist, the great modern athletic revival, which, in and out of college, has become so marked a feature of our time; but no one ever dreamt till now that they had nothing to say about it. They must have a voice in it as long as they have a voice in college discipline at all. The health of students, the occupation of their time, and their morals are all affected, and unless the colleges are going to abdicate all their disciplinary functions and convert themselves into lecturing and examining machines, they will always have to exercise some supervision over sports. To take what may seem to some readers to be an extreme case, but is really not so, if a college nine were to "take the road," as theatrical companies do, under the management of a professional, and play through the country against all comers, for money, the transaction could hardly fail to raise the question whether the money and the scores were a sufficient offset to the degradation of college sports involved.

But there is a wide difference between the exercise in each college of a general supervisory power over sports, and the attempt to establish an intercollegiate code, as a glance at the resolutions themselves will show. They bring out very distinctly, the moment we examine them in detail, the fact that there is so great a dissimilarity, first, in the circumstances of the colleges, and second, in the character of the sports themselves, that any attempt to make up such a code will be attended with enormous if not insuperable difficulties.

The first resolution is, that any "director or instructor in physical exercises or athletic sports" must be appointed by the college and his name announced in the catalogue. There is no objection to this resolution, apparently, and we only mention it here because it emphasizes the fact that the function of physical education is already recognized generally by the colleges. The next resolution is, that "no professional athlete, oarsman, or ball player shall be employed either for instruction or for practice or preparation for any collegiate contest." This, of course, raises the question what is a "professional," as to which, as many of our readers know, there is a vast body of learning in existence, but as yet no common agreement. Assuming that the word is here used roughly to denote any one who is not an undergraduate, and who rows or plays ball as a matter of business, it seems rather hard that a college nine or crew should not have a right to get themselves coached by such a man. The objection mentioned in the resolution is that the crew or nine with a professional coach would have an advantage over crews and nines having no coach; that, therefore, professionals would be employed, if at all, universally, and that this would tend to assimilate the "tone" of undergraduates with that of professionals, whose character is often low and whose motive is mainly mercenary. But why? Coaching by professionals cannot of itself make the motive of undergraduates mercenary, and nothing can prevent the motive of undergraduates being the desire to win, if possible. It seems, too, that it is a mistake to suppose that the employment of a professional coach by one college forces its rival to employ a professional. In rowing, the introduction of the "English" stroke was due to the discovery of it at Oxford, and all sorts of experiments with professional coaches have failed to induce a belief that for college races any professional stroke can be found that is better.

The next resolution, with its reasons, is as follows:

"Much of the expense and loss of time attending the practice of college sports is occasioned by playing games at a distance; yet for various reasons it seems advisable that intercollegiate contests in these sports should be continued. They develop strength and executive ability, as well as courage, presence of mind, and other important elements of character. They give students an opportunity to measure their physical powers with others, and, when conducted in the right spirit, tend to make friends of rivals and to subordinate class feeling to college unity. For these reasons, these games ought to be more generally played in college. Class nines and foot-ball teams should be formed as well as class crews; and the university teams should depend more largely upon these organizations for practice. If the base-ball nines of one college practise with expert amateur clubs because such clubs exist in their vicinity, this compels the nines of other colleges, not so favorably situated, to practise with inferior amateur organizations, regular professionals, or, what is more to be regretted, with undisciplined semi-professionals. Therefore,

"3. Resolved, That no college organization shall row, or play base-ball, foot-ball, lacrosse, or cricket, except with similar organizations from their own or other institutions of learning."

This prevents all play with professionals; and it is obvious that there is a difference between play with professionals—which may be likely to lead to a lowering of the "tone" of sports—and coaching by professionals. But here there is a difference again, arising from the character of the sport. There is never likely to be much trouble about rowing with professionals, because professional rowing men always beat college amateurs, and there is a certain absurdity in contests between them. In base-ball, we believe this is not so; and in the smaller colleges, where it is difficult to get up more than one good "nine," unless this nine is allowed to practise with professionals it cannot practise at all.

The sixth resolution, that no game shall take place except upon the home ground of one or other of the competing colleges, is designed to break up the practice of playing match games in large cities, and drawing crowds for the sake of gate money. But are not great crowds drawn to Yale and Harvard for gate money? And what are we to say of Columbia, whose consent to these resolutions is asked, which is situated in a large city, and which has no home grounds?

The seventh resolution forbids boat-races longer than three miles. The important ground for this is the danger to health from a four-mile race. But if there is any such danger, any college which recognizes it will have to stop four-mile races whether other colleges do or not. If Harvard and Princeton believe that four miles is too long a course, and it can be proved by medical authority, Yale and other colleges will almost certainly have to come to the same conclusion.

The fourth resolution provides for a standing committee of the colleges to supervise all contests and approve of all rules and regulations. This, of course, goes vastly further than all the others put together, and if they prove impracticable, it is much more so. It involves the transfer of the whole development of sports from the students to the faculty, and this not to the faculty of one college, but of several, different in circumstances and position and resources. This appears to imply a view of the right of faculties to interfere quite as extreme as the undergraduate notion that the students must be left altogether to themselves.

If we are right in what we have been saying, the difficulty with the present movement lies in its having attempted too much, and consequently a revision of the regulations, with a view to confining them to a much smaller field, and possibly to fewer colleges even than five, seems necessary.

HOW THE SUDAN GOT INTO ENGLISH POLITICS.

THE rapidity with which the affairs of a barbarous and remote African province, which England has never owned or thought of owning, have become the great concern of English opinion, and probably a powerful influence in English politics, is a striking illustration of the part played by the unforeseen in an empire with huge foreign interests. Indeed, it ought to serve as a warning and example to every state which is not yet blessed or cursed with foreign dependencies or protégés.

How came England to get into the Sudan troubles? As usual, she did not sail into them, but drifted into them. Omitting details, the story is shortly this: The Mahdi, or Prophet, had begun to make progress in the Sudan before English authority became practically supreme in Egypt by the battle of Tell el-Kebir. The Egyptian Government could not make up its mind to abandon this vast region to him or to chance, while at the same time it had neither the moral energy nor the material force in men and money adequate to resist him, and reconquer the territories which were yielding to him, or at least escaping from their control. They despatched some troops thither, and placed them under an English officer named Hicks. The representative of England at Cairo, first Lord Dufferin, then Sir Edward Malet, the Consul-General, then Sir Evelyn Baring, was instructed by the English Ministry not to interfere with the action of the Egyptian Government in the matter. Advice was sometimes given; more frequently it was not given, but whenever the subject was mentioned an emphatic declaration was made that England had nothing to do with the Sudan, and that the Khedive and his ministers must act on their own responsibility. Neither Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, nor Sir E. Baring, now their mouthpiece in Egypt, seems to have doubted for a moment that the proper course was to abandon the Sudan altogether, and withdraw the Egyptian frontier to a place called Wady Halfa, or even to Assuan, being led to this view not only by perceiving how great a drain upon the resources of Egypt proper the holding of these vast and almost barbarous territories was, but also by the vices, the incurable vices, of Egyptian rule there, which had largely contributed to the revolt of the Sudanese peoples.

That they refused to force this opinion on the Khedive was owing to their resolve to make their occupation of Egypt purely temporary, and let the Khedive's Government stand alone as soon as it was possible for it to do so. And this resolve was in its turn owing partly to Mr. Gladstone's strong aversion to increasing the liabilities and responsibilities of England anywhere in the world, partly to the language he had held in Parliament when the expedition of 1882 was despatched under Sir Garnet Wolseley—language intended to remove the apprehensions of that section of his supporters which considered the expedition a piece of aggression that would lead to annexation; lastly, to the assurances which his Cabinet addressed to the other European Powers

for the sake of disarming their jealousy of English action. These pledges had been so numerous and so explicit, and coincided so fully with the intentions which he had himself entertained when despatching the expedition, that it would have been hard to escape from them even when circumstances changed and events showed the difficulty of leaving the tottering throne of the Khedive to stand unsupported. There is, however, no reason to think that Mr. Gladstone and Lord Granville wished to escape from them, or changed their views as to the propriety of quitting Egypt at the earliest possible moment.

In November the catastrophe came. Hicks's army in the Sudan was annihilated. It was plain that Egypt could not, of herself, reconquer the country—could not even defend the city and fortress of Khartum, whose position, at the confluence of the Blue with the White Nile, gives it an especial importance. The question arose whether England should intervene by sending English or Indian troops either to reëstablish Egyptian authority and hold Khartum, or at least to insure the safe withdrawal of such garrisons as remained in the country. Fearing that to send troops would involve the permanent occupation of part of the Sudan, and the creation of an English empire in Equatorial Africa, Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet refused to do so, but went so far as to advise the Egyptian Ministry to withdraw its garrisons and abandon the Sudan. When, after much delay, it appeared that the Egyptian Ministry would not follow this advice, England went a step further, quitted her attitude of irresponsibility, and, early in January, told the Khedive that if his ministers would not comply with her wishes he must dismiss them. He did so, and the present Ministry of Nubar Pasha came in to obey her directions. But meanwhile time had been lost. The position of Khartum had become much more perilous. Although the Europeans there have no claim upon England, since they went out either in the service of the Egyptian Government or as traders on their own account, public sympathy was roused on their behalf, and the feeling grew stronger and stronger that the British Government ought to take some steps to rescue them.

The newspapers cried out for this, as they generally cry out for some sort of action. The humanity of many persons who held that, as a matter of mere obligation, the Government had nothing to do with the matter, was aroused, and the accounts which came of the terrified and disorganized condition of the refugees in Khartum told daily on their hearts. That large class who had all along desired that England should strengthen her hold on Egypt, and proclaim a formal protectorate over it, swelled the cry for intervention in the Sudan, because they saw that the more she committed herself there the less could she forsake Egypt. They, in fact, desired an energetic interference for the very reasons which made the Government recoil from it. There was soon a cry for the despatch of General Gordon, the one Englishman whose knowledge of the country as well as his military gifts and personal daring, pointed him out as the man for the crisis. The English Government proposed to the Egyptian Ministry to employ him, but the objections raised by the latter took some time to overcome, so that it was not till the end of January that he started. Meanwhile a new source of anxiety started up on the coasts of the Red Sea. Baker Pasha commanded a body of Egyptian troops there. In leading them up from the coast to relieve an Egyptian garrison, he was attacked by a band of natives, Mohammedan Sudanese, half black, half Arab in blood, who had come down from the Mahdi's main forces, and so crushingly defeated him that he had to escape to the port of Suakim, where the guns of British vessels give some protection. The news of this defeat reached England on the very evening when Parliament met, and clouded the spirits of the Government. It was quite unexpected, for his force was supposed to be more that a match for any antagonist; but it seemed to seal the fate of the Red Sea garrisons, who were now left without prospect of relief. Impatience and irritation rose higher in England. The defeat and the impending destruction of the garrison were attributed to the sluggishness or timidity of the Government, which ought, it was said, to have long ago despatched troops from India to the Red Sea coast and prepared to relieve Khartum by a forced march across the desert. The gloomiest prophecies of General Gordon's fate were in every mouth. He was almost alone; his route lay through open and secret dangers; the news of Baker's defeat would embolden the tribes to attack him.

This was the state of feeling which encouraged Sir Stafford Northcote to move his vote of censure. The tension was a little relieved by the intelligence of General Gordon's arrival at Berber on the Upper Nile, from which he ascended the river to Khartum in safety. But it was increased by the subsequent news of the fall of Sinkat, one of the posts near the Red Sea coast, and the slaughter of its garrison.

The effect of all this has been to produce among the Liberals a feeling, made up both of mortified pride and impatience, which has grown keener and keener as week after week has passed without decisive action on the part of the Government. They are vexed that a responsibility which the Government has eventually assumed should not have been assumed sooner, when the misfortunes which have befallen might have been averted. They do not much sympathize with its anxiety to abstain from every possible assertion of authority in Egypt, and are, in fact, pretty well pleased to stay there. They think that it has been too late in recognizing and acting upon patent facts. And they do not like that the troops of a country which is, for the time being, under the ægis of England, should be destroyed and its territories torn away. Such feelings, it is true, do not exist equally in all sections of the party. They are much stronger among the aristocratic and plutocratic sections, telling far less on the bulk of the middle classes. But the fact which is for the moment important is that they fall upon the ministerial party in the House of Commons, and shake the loyalty of some of its members. The feelings of the Conservatives it is hardly necessary to analyze. They imply hold that things are going the way they foretold—namely, that the ministerial want of courage and vigor would sooner or later bring disaster both at home and abroad.

The situation as indicated by the latest news is simply this: England is actually committed to the task of bringing to action some large body of the Mahdi's troops and inflicting on it a signal defeat. Unless she accomplishes this, it is difficult to see how she can escape great discredit and prevent her hold on Egypt itself from being seriously weakened or maintained at great increase in cost. If the Mahdi now defies or escapes her, the army of occupation in Egypt will have to be greatly increased, and the entire work of governing the country assumed by English officials. The most hopeful view is that Osman Digma, the Mahdi's lieutenant outside Suakim, is so elated by his recent successes that he will meet General Graham in a stand-up fight, and try the luck of his spearsmen on the British squares. But if he should adopt a Parthian policy and retire into the desert, the result would be most embarrassing.

OFFICIAL INDIGNITIES TO LASKER.

BERLIN, February 7.

THE funeral of the late Edward Lasker has furnished an inside view into some political and social ethics of our public life. While Mr. Lasker well deserved the homage lavished upon him by the community at large and the most prominent representatives of science, art, commerce, and trade; and while his political friends, as well as the Liberals of all shades, vied with each other in honoring the deceased statesman, our Government was not officially represented at the funeral ceremonies, nor at the burial itself, nor at the public meetings, at one of which Deputy Bamberger delivered an eloquent and in every respect admirable address on Lasker's public services and character. It would show an uncommon degree of simple-mindedness to suppose that there was no design in this absence of our ruling classes. To put it bluntly, Prince Bismarck did not wish that the Government officials should appear in the funeral cortége of a Liberal political man. He did not command them, but he stood silently aside, and his wishes were anticipated by his subordinates.

I very well remember the time when the Chancellor treated Lasker with the utmost attention; when at his receptions he conversed for hours with him, and when he submitted new bills to him, anxious to get the approval of the most influential parliamentarian. As a practical, matter-of-fact statesman, Bismarck holds all idealistic tendencies in utter contempt, and regards only material and mechanical conceptions as entitled to consideration. To him a political man like Lasker is utterly incomprehensible; he scorns him as an idealist, while he hates his support and aid the more as he cannot, or at least could not, realize his aims without his help. Men of practical purposes are comparatively easily won by lending or promising them assistance; idealists, however, cannot so easily be governed, for they are too unselfish, and don't care for a special interest. Their support as well as their opposition is therefore reluctantly borne, and for this reason Lasker never was a favorite with Bismarck. Besides, parliamentarism is not at all liked by our leading statesman. In the present instance it could not better be humiliated than by ignoring or officially for-

getting that one of its most prominent exponents had died. There are not hundreds, there are thousands in Germany who look at parliamentarism as an evil, perhaps merely as a necessary evil. Those who entertain this opinion know very well that they cannot abolish the Reichstag, but they injure it as much as possible, and try on every occasion to discredit and lower it in public estimation. The inner reason, therefore, for this animosity toward a distinguished member of the Reichstag is that with us a small but powerful class of society think themselves privileged claimants of the higher Governmental offices, and try to keep off the parliamentary intruders. To understand the tendency and influence of this coterie, which very adroitly identifies its personal interests with the prerogatives of the crown, let me remark that the Prussians more than any other people are rooted in their dynasty, and that the Hohenzollerns for more than four hundred years have taken the legislative initiative, while our so-called parliamentarism is not yet forty years old.

When in any other constitutional country a public man dies who for years has exercised a controlling influence on the legislative business of the land, even those who during his life-time had been his bitterest opponents unite with his friends in honoring the dead as a man who has deserved well of his country. With us, however, not a single member of the German and Prussian Government saw fit to attend Lasker's funeral; they were remarkable only by their absence, and confounded the dead patriot with their living antagonist. The President and one Vice-President of the Reichstag were present, but the President of the Prussian Landtag, a Mr. von Koeller, did not come. He even declared, a few days before the funeral, that he did not feel disposed to render the last honors to Mr. Lasker, and gave as his reason that some arrogant and anonymous German-American Turners and radicals of Cincinnati, Louisville, and other cities had, in rather unbecoming terms, entreated him to show sufficient courage to take part in the proceedings. He did not even deign by a single word to inform the Landtag, of which Lasker for more than fifteen years had been a most conspicuous member, of his death, nor did he move for resolutions to the memory of the deceased. Sticking to technicalities, Mr. von Koeller justified his conduct by the excuse that Lasker, at the time of his death, had ceased to be a member of the Second Chamber; of the great state man he did not seem to have any knowledge at all. The present rector of the Berlin University, a certain Professor Kirchhoff, added insult to injury by returning the Mayor's card of invitation to the religious services, with the remark that he did not wish to make any use of it. Now, Mr. Lasker had been made honorary Doctor of Law and Philosophy by the Universities of Leipzig and Freiburg, for his merits as a legislator and writer, so that it would have been no more than right that the leading university of the country should be officially represented by its rector. Professors Mommsen, Gneist, and Beseler came. Neither any present minister of state nor a single military officer appeared. Of former state ministers I saw only three—Messrs. von Bernuth, Delbrück, and Camphausen. Mr. Achenbach, who, when entering upon his duties as Minister of Commerce, had recommended himself to Mr. Lasker's good-will and kindness, kept away and did not send a word of excuse. Of foreign diplomatists, only the ministers of the United States and of Greece were present.

Finally, as to the Geheime Räthe (privy councillors), of whom we have several hundreds in Berlin, they were almost all—to use an English-American judicial Latin phrase—"non inventi." As the better part of valor is discretion, they held aloof and did not dare to provoke a possible browbeating from their master. It is owing to the pernicious influence of the present personal régime that our Government's higher employees do not dare to act when they do not know from what quarter the wind blows. Thus gradually they more and more become the pliant tools of their superiors, and the old Tacitean "ruere in servitium" is the order of the day. An old Geheimer Rath complained the other day that he would most cheerfully do what his superiors required of him, if they would only give him directions. "It is always dangerous," said a typical old reactionary, Herr von Gerlach, "to leave our conservatives to their own inspirations (!). These gentlemen require positive directions." "Our country squires and conservatives," said Bismarck, "have no idea of their duties toward the state; they reverentially front their dunghills, and turn their backs to the Government."

Let me state, in conclusion, that the resolutions of your national House of Representatives, as well as the kind sentiments of Messrs. Schurz and White, have been gratefully received by Mr. Lasker's friends, and have stirred a responsive feeling in the hearts of our educated classes, which I am sure will not disappear with the present occasion. † † †

ANTICIPATIONS OF THE PARLIAMENTARY SESSION.

London, February 4.

The session of Parliament which opens tomorrow is universally expected to prove a strong one, and this prediction is made by those who have, like Æolus in Homer, the power of fulfilling it by themselves raising a tempest—that is to say, the active spirits of the Conservative Opposition. During the last four months they have been filling the country and newspapers with invectives against Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, invectives which have increased in vehemence as the hour of Parliamentary conflict approaches; and they now announce that the leading measures of the Ministry are to be resisted, and its foreign policy, particularly in Egypt, formally arraigned. There has been no time, even during the last eight troubled years, when the air was so redolent of battle.

What is the reason for this? To the eye of an ordinary observer there is a strange contrast between this political heat (for the Liberals have been replying to the Tory fire all along the line with equal vehemence) and the condition of the country and her people. We are at peace with all the Powers of Europe, and a peace which seems unlikely to be disturbed. At home there are no problems of a social or economical kind demanding instant solution. Trade is dull, but not duller than it has often been of late years. There is no distress among the working classes, whose condition, as Mr Giffen's interesting statistics show, has been steadily improving for the last thirty years. The socialistic movement, though it causes some disquietude, is repudiated by both parties alike, and cannot be deemed a factor in our politics The measures announced by the Ministry are not alarming, nor can any one suppose that a Cabinet including such Whig or semi-Tory magnates as Lord Hartington, Lord Granville, Lord Derby, contemplates any interference with the rights of property. Our position in Egypt is ill-defined and anxious, but it involves no substantial dangers for England, which can do whatever it pleases there without risk of interference from other Powers. Whichever way one looks, one finds it hard to discover an adequate cause for this extreme bitterness of political feeling, which is likely to make the coming session a troubled and unprofitable one.

Causes, however, there must be, and the two following are perhaps as near the truth as any others. The first is to be found in the personal hostility of the Tory party to Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Chamberlain. Mr. Gladstone is hated not only because he is the triumphant leader who lately and unexpectedly ejected the Tories from a possession of power which they counted on long retaining, but also because he is conspicuously the virtuous statesman, whose friends are fond of pointing to his virtues, and contrasting them with the inferior moral level of other politicians. Moreover, Mr. Gladstone has two qualities which irritate opponents. Although perfectly gentlemanly in controversy, and indeed too proud to descend to personal attacks on his enemies, he has a way of trampling on them in argument, of leaving them not a leg to stand upon, which tries their temper. He is also, notwithstanding his great caution and tendency to qualify general statements and avoid committing himself positively to any course, a lover of general principles, and apt to enunciate some sweeping proposition which seems revolutionary to ordinary minds, and indeed would be revolutionary if it were to be carried out without those restrictions and qualifications which practical statesmanship imposes. Mr. Chamberlain, who now draws most of the fire of the moderate Whigs, as well as of the Tories, is hated even more bitterly. He is a new man, a successful manufacturer; and the intrusion of new men into high political office is still resented by the social cliques which used to monopolize it He is, more distinctly than any person of equal consequence has been before, the leader of popular radicalism. Mr Bright, who was assailed twenty years ago with nearly as much fierceness as Mr. Chamberlain is to-day, was after all rather a champion of the middle than of the working class, and was moreover eminently a man of opposition, who only took office even in 1868 because it was forced upon him, and therefore appeared less dangerous. There is a cool resoluteness about Mr. Chamberlain's attitude which makes men think that when once he gets the helm into his hands, he is capable of steering the ship anywhere, right into the whirlpool of pure democracy.

This brings one to the second reason. The Tory party believe that we are, if not on the eve of, yet at least rapidly approaching, great political changes, and are determined to resist the tendency before it has grown irresistible They concede that the borough franchise must soon be extended to the counties, but they insist that this admission of nearly two millions of new voters must be accompanied by precautions to prevent them from swamping the influence of the upper classes. They believe that a general attack upon property and its holders, and especially upon landed property, is being planned by the radical party, and are prepared to fight hard, if not for their hearths and altars, yet for their parks and deer forests. Those preachers of land nationalization, and other forms of communism, who are now discoursing to the working classes, seem to them merely the advanced guard of a radical army. It is bent on levelling; it will destroy their influence in the counties; it will destroy the Established Church, in which their brothers, sons, and nephews hold livings, and to which many of them are attached on religious grounds also; it will abolish the game laws, and one by one extinguish all the pleasures which they value in life. These are apprehensions which have no doubt been often felt before. They were felt before the extension of the borough franchise in 1867, which placed political power in the hands of the working classes. The working classes did

not, however, at first seem to realize their power. The more complete system of party organization which has lately been created has now made the more numerous party more formidable, and they are aware that they must usually expect to be in the minority. Hence the anxiety to delay any further constitutional changes, or to grasp, if possible, the opportunity of so making them that they shall not seriously disturb the existing control of the wealthier classes.

To these reasons for the militant spirit of the Conservative party, one may perhaps add the fact that many of them feel that more fighting ought to have been done in the last three sessions, and that the Ministry, which was several times in grave difficulties, ought to have been more hardly pressed. Slight reverses might have been turned into routs, whereas the enemy was permitted to draw off in good order. This is an error they are resolved to commit no more. "Was it really an error," some one may ask, "or could they have done no better?" Probably they might have once or twice gained a little by a more sudden and vigorous onslaught, but on the whole their fault has lain not so much in failing to charge the enemy as in failing to detach the waverers in his ranks, who might perhaps have been won by more skilful tactics.

Before these lines reach your readers, the programme of Government business for the session will have been set forth in the speech from the throne. The two most important measures it is intended to introduce are the County Franchise Bill and that for establishing one municipal government for the whole of London. Both of these will be fought, but apparently in different ways. The Conservative leaders do not object to the extension of the same franchise as exists in boroughs to householders in English and Scotch counties. What they declare to be dangerous is its extension in Ireland, and they promise to oppose the bill if it attempts this. They further argue that the redistribution of seats—a step obviously necessary when the county constituencies have been so greatly enlarged—is a matter which ought not to be separated from the extension of the franchise, and that Parliament is therefore entitled to have some security that the two subjects will be dealt with together. The Ministry may perhaps go so far as to present along with the Franchise Bill an outline of their scheme of redistribution. If they do not, the Tory leaders are pledged to oppose the former bill, which they will represent as a leap in the dark. If, on the other hand, the Cabinet does submit a redistribution scheme, it is involved in further difficulties. Should the scheme be a moderate and limited one, the Liberal party will be disappointed and its zeal damped. Should it prove bold and sweeping, the Tories will resist it vigorously, and be reinforced in their resistance by some of those ministerial members of the House of Commons whose seats are threatened. What with these two lines of objection to the measure, and with the numerous points of detail that may be criticised, there is room for plenty of debate and much expenditure of time. Nor is the Government of London Bill likely to prove an easier enterprise. It must necessarily be a very long and very complicated measure, which might be discussed at great length without the appearance of wilful obstruction. It is not, strictly speaking, a party question, but its defeat would damage, its passing would gain credit for, Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, while the present corporation of the city, who are its warmest opponents, are nearly all Conservatives who hold themselves entitled to receive help from their political allies. Among the other proposals of the Cabinet there are several which may easily be fought over, while the troubles in Egypt will furnish for some time to come a ground of attack on which the Ministry are not very strong now, and will be much weaker should any reverse befall General Gordon.

The present probability is that the Franchise Bill will pass the House of Commons by a good majority, but will be thrown out by the House of Lords. Much, however, will depend on the turn which things take before the Lords are called upon to deal with it. If there have been defections in the ministerial ranks, and still more if failures in Egypt and the Sudan have discredited the Government, the Lords will doubtless play for a dissolution of Parliament. If fortune smiles on Mr. Gladstone, they may be unwilling to provoke it, and even in rejecting the County Franchise Bill may interfere so little with other measures as to give the Government less ground for an immediate appeal to the country. Neither party seriously desires to have such an appeal this year. But passion and sudden impulses of hope often lead parties, as well as men, to disregard their sober calculations. Y.

ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, February 4.

THE recent ministerial crisis in Egypt affords a suitable opportunity for reviewing the political circumstances of this country under the English ascendency. A more full light on the English policy in Egypt will be thrown as soon as Parliament reassembles at Westminster. In the meantime, it is worth while summing up the elements of the situation with which either the Egyptian or the English Government, or both Governments combined, are called to deal.

In the first place, it is not fair to Lord Dufferin to impute to him that his scheme of reconstruction has broken down. He took care to point out that there were two alternative courses for the establishment of order and good government in Egypt. One course was such as could be carried into full effect in some five years by the "masterful hand" of the British Resident. The other was that of starting a number of beneficial institutions, lending a limited number of competent English officials to teach the Egyptians how to work them, protecting the country against internal disorder and external invasion, and, within as short a period as possible, abandoning the country wholly to itself. It was about May in last year that the British Government made a decisive election between these rival policies, and inaugurated the second of the two. From that time to this the history of Egypt has been one unbroken story of disasters and disappointments. It is true that the cholera distracted the whole attention of the official and non-official world during the summer, and that the discomfiture in the Sudan in the late autumn introduced new and unforeseen elements in the question. But if such problems had not presented themselves in the first year, they must have been looked for sooner or later, and it is the purpose of good political contrivances to be ready for such incalculable exigencies. Hence the utter breakdown of the frail structure initiated as a *pis-aller* by Lord Dufferin was not due to unfavorable circumstances, but it was fortunate that such circumstances presented themselves so soon that the structure was put to a severe test before any false confidence was reposed in it. If no cholera had appeared in Egypt last summer, and the Sudan expedition had been as successful as it was the reverse, it is possible the sores in Egypt might have been coated over and kept out of sight for a year or two, and only laid bare after the English army of occupation had left, and English influence in Egypt largely diminished. The result would have been that the miseries of Egypt would have been irreparable, or only to be repaired after another revolution, and, probably, another war.

But there are certain parts—and these the chief ones—of Lord Dufferin's policy which are yet on their trial, and which will have to proceed, in one form or another, whatever be the final relations of England to Egypt. These are the constitutional reforms and the organization of a new system of law and of new courts of justice. The constitutional reforms are the part of Lord Dufferin's system which have most attracted the unfavorable criticism of cynical observers. But it is probable that this is just the part of the system which has not failed, and which, if wisely conceived, cannot, in the end, by any possibility fail. The constitutional structure erected by Lord Dufferin, and which has so far shown no symptom of weakness, affords the largest amount of hope for the future political independence of the people; though, for the moment, it places the least possible direct power in the hands of the people while yet ignorant and politically incompetent. The method of election is so indirect, while the basis of the franchise is so broad, that, although every Egyptian is called to be, and act as, a citizen, the political rights of a citizen are, for the moment and by an unfortunate necessity, infinitesimally small.

The centre of the representative system is the Legislative Council, the product of three successive processes of election. Some 6,000 villages elect, each of them, a village spokesman or bearer of the village vote. This is election the first. Every Egyptian of twenty years of age has a vote, and the elections are by ballot and cumulative voting. The village spokesmen, or so-called "electors delegate," form a constituency for the election of a small body or provincial council (election the second), which is again a new constituency for the election of a member of the Legislative Council (election the third). The powers of the Legislative Council are limited to criticism of Government projects and to recommendations for legislation. It is said that the first elections, which took place a couple of months ago, are on the whole satisfactory, and the members of the Council have, at least, just shown their public spirit by declining to be paid their allowances during the present financial pressure. It will be some time—perhaps some years—before the value of the representative system can be tested. The whole administration is at present so lamentably out of gear, that it is only by despotic enactments and direct executive intervention from moment to moment that anarchy can be staved off. In the meantime, the existence of the new institutions is a silent lesson to the people that they are born for freedom and manly independence, and not for slavery; while the exercise of the art of voting will be constantly training them in the practice of a citizen's highest duty.

The other great reform to which Lord Dufferin addressed himself, and which also promises to be of lasting validity, was the inauguration of a completely new system of administering justice. Such a comprehensive experiment has probably never been tried before in any country, and it must be expected that it will be long before the new system can dispense with incessant (and perhaps root-and-branch) reformations. With the exception of the Mahommedan law applying to marriage, succession, and guardianship, the whole law of the country has been entirely recast and embodied in a series of codes; or rather, the old laws have been abrogated in their entirety and new laws introduced in their stead. The old courts, excepting the courts administering the Mohammedan law above mentioned, have been abolished, and new

courts, with a wholly different organization, have been established in their place. New judges, including a limited number of Europeans, have been substituted for the old, and the procedure is entirely new.

Whether the new judicial and legal system thus introduced is the best possible one for the country at the present time will be discovered sooner or later. The system, mainly, is that of France, and the new European judges, in all cases but one, are Dutch and Belgian. Whether the particular system of law, courts, and procedure survives or not, it is certain that Egypt will never be allowed to go back to the haphazard system of hand-to-mouth justice and injustice from which the country has been so valiantly rescued. Thus it cannot be said that, in this respect, Lord Dufferin's reforms were ephemeral, or so much as capable of being affected by the paralysis of Egyptian administration which followed his departure.

Whatever be the effect of the unhappy or culpable supineness of Egyptian officials, the actual state of the finances presents a problem which even the most skilled and willing hands find surpassingly hard to deal with. Owing to the provisions of the sort of international contract which expressed itself in what is known as the "Law of Liquidation," the Egyptian public debt is so regulated that excess of revenue in a certain part of the balance sheet must be applied to paying off the existing debt. The result is, that whatever the immediate financial exigencies of the country, that excess of revenue (if any) cannot be applied to its relief, but a new debt must be contracted on whatever terms may be possible. In the meantime, the demand for money is oppressing every part of the administration. Serious unpopularity is being encountered by the Government through the dismissal of hundreds of employees. The indemnities for losses at Alexandria already awarded to an amount exceeding £3,000,000 are unpaid, and the date of payment is unfixed. The Khedive and many of the highest officials are giving up part of their allowances to relieve the state burdens. Every legitimate effort is being made to increase the national resources. A stamp law is being introduced for the first time. European house property is to be taxed. Commercial treaties are being made which will liberate Egypt from its chain to the Turkish financial system, and, accompanied by customs reforms, discourage smuggling.

It will thus be seen that, in spite of the reluctance of England to assume the overt responsibility for the government of Egypt, yet, step by step, all the most crying evils of the country are being seriously and strenuously grappled with. The Board of Works, which, extending to the irrigation system, is scarcely second in importance to the Ministry of the Interior, is, together with the latter, in the hands of determined, competent, and practically despotic English officials of the highest repute. The "procureur-général" is an ex-English Indian judge. The Egyptian army, the constabulary, the Sudan, the prisons are severally in the hands of accomplished Englishmen, responsible more to the English Government at home than to the Egyptian Government at Cairo. In the meantime, the hand of Sir Evelyn Baring, Consul-General, is ubiquitous and incessantly active. The only difficulties come from the complication and indirectness of the governmental system, and from the slowness and too often the apathy, if not also the corruptibility, of the subordinate officials through whose hands all the work must pass. Time, education, and more favorable political conditions will alone cure this. A.

Correspondence.

ASSESSMENT, REAL AND PERSONAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The suggestions of Mr. Tiedeman in your No. 972, on the method of state taxation, are theoretically in the direction of justice, but utterly impracticable. Within the territorial limits of the authority of any assessor it would be impossible to ascertain the proportions that the average incomes from real and personal property bear to each other, upon any practicable system. Except in large cities, the great bulk of real estate consists of farm lands, the income from which depends upon so many contingencies that it is a most fluctuating and uncertain quantity. It requires skill, labor, rain, and sunshine, in due quantity and season, to realize a large income. The *assessment* is made before the extent of either of these factors of success can possibly be known.

But your correspondent, after starting downward, stopped short of the bottom of the subject. The real difficulty lies in the practical maladministration by the assessors of approximately just laws. The law requires *all* taxable property to be assessed, we will suppose, at its actual cash value. A owns a farm of one hundred acres, worth $5,000, and B has $5,000 cash, it may be idle in bank, or earning interest in the shape of bonds or notes. The farm of A is valued by the assessor at $1,500, or, possibly, $2,000, while the cash or notes of B (if assessed at all) are put down at a par valuation—$5,000. B sees the injustice of this method, and, if he can evade or *will* evade, he *does* evade taxation in whole or part. That the case supposed fairly represents the facts, is beyond dispute in this country. The real difficulty is in getting just assessments. The courts in the Western States hold such assessments void, when the question comes before them; but, generally, people who are assessed unjustly prefer to pay rather than litigate. If the people would see to it that the laws are even tolerably executed, we should not hear so much clamor for more legislation.

J. P. Strother.

Marshall, Mo., February, 1884.

COÖPERATIVE BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the request of several gentlemen, I venture, with your permission, to answer briefly the query of Emma G. Shaw in No. 972 of the *Nation* regarding Coöperative Loan and Building Associations. The kind of coöperation attempted by these banks is not that which strives for a visionary or unnatural end. It is found that people will save with the opportunity and *the motive* before them, and a sufficient motive exists in the desire to have a home of one's own. These banks coöperate to bring the opportunity and the motive near together. Through them the small savings of many are *regularly* combined into large ones and at once invested in homesteads.

About thirty of these banks are at present in operation in Massachusetts under a carefully considered statute. The men whose influence placed this upon the statute book are a sufficient guarantee that it was done advisedly. The Savings Bank Commissioners have a general supervision over these banks, while each is immediately cared for by a board of directors elected annually in open meeting by the stockholders or investors from their own number. These directors are men of business experience, who give, without other compensation than that found in the work, a few hours each month to making the loans and conducting the business. Those who invest must do so *regularly*. They can see the money loaned, know the character of the borrower and the genuineness of the security. They are thus taught the simple but sturdy ways of prosperity. The thrifty are helped on and the thriftless quickened by example. The present prosperity of these banks is unquestioned. A monument to their past may be seen in Philadelphia. The question of their future in Boston and elsewhere depends solely upon whether there will be a succession of able, honest men, who will give the necessary time and experience to their safe management, for the mere sake of doing good. On the assumption that this kind of altruism may be depended upon as a constant quantity, no better way can be devised for the investment of small sums. A complete idea of the work of these banks in detail can be obtained by attending their public meetings or consulting their officers.

Yours very truly, Walter C. Frost.

Newton, Mass., February 25, 1884.

A PSEUDO-BENJAMIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In speculating on the authorship of the Thurlow-Weed-Barnes-Benjamin letter, you suggest that the signature "Benjamin" is the only reason which has ever existed for supposing that Mr. Judah P. Benjamin wrote the letter. I know from personal experience that there were pseudo-Benjamins in those days. I happened to be temporarily in Richmond, Va., in April, 1861. I left it the day after the attack made on the Union troops while passing through Baltimore. An order had been issued by Governor Letcher that no one should leave Richmond by railroad without a passport. Compliance with this order delayed the departure of the train, so that when it reached Gordonsville *en route* to Alexandria, the connecting train had taken its departure, and a detention of two or three hours occurred in consequence. While we were halting at the station it was announced that Mr. Benjamin, of the Confederate Cabinet, was one of our fellow-passengers. Under the veranda of the building an individual obviously of Hebrew extraction, shabbily dressed, and of commonplace appearance, was attracting much attention from a throng of spectators around him. Presently a tall and portly gentleman clad in black broadcloth approached him, and, laying his hand on his shoulder, addressed him thus: "I understand, sir, that you represent yourself to be Mr. Benjamin, of the Confederate Cabinet. I know Mr. Benjamin well. I have seen him hundreds of times, and have had intimate personal relations with him. You are as much unlike him as one human being can be unlike another. You are either crazy or you are an impostor."

The pseudo-Benjamin made no reply. I heard a few minutes later that he had been arrested by the "home-guard" as a suspicious person, and that his case was to be publicly investigated forthwith. He was taken into the shed of the station, whither the crowd of loiterers soon followed him. Several exciting harangues were made by various distinguished local orators, and the rule was formulated that a man who would lie would commit any crime—treason, for example. "Mr. Benjamin," however, did not appear to be at all alarmed. "What," said he, "do you want? My life? Take it." But no one appeared to be capable of such an exercise of executive vigor as would have been implied in the summary execution of this traitor *in posse*, whose offence probably consisted in the fact that, being of the tribe of Benjamin, he was quite willing to confirm rather than correct the

erroneous impression that any one might entertain of his identity with the Confederate statesman.

Mr. Benjamin and baggage were (quite unnecessarily) searched; he took the evening train with us to Alexandria, and the next day, while walking through the streets of Baltimore, I saw him standing beside a clothing store, of which he was probably the proprietor.

I offer the above as a *mémoire pour servir* toward the discovery of the writer of the T. W. Barnes letter. B.

San Francisco, February 16.

THE FLOODS AND THEIR CAUSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Man's efforts to modify the action of nature's laws—to avail himself of them in the promotion of his own objects, or to run counter to them in the execution of his projects—are always attended with danger, and should never be ventured upon without careful consideration of the risks involved in their prosecution. The penalty may be so remote, and dependent upon such contingencies, that the connection between effect and cause is not immediately apparent, but is none the less inevitable when the contingency arises. The disastrous and unprecedented floods which of late years have prevailed in the valley of the Ohio, and especially in the States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, are directly traceable to man's agency, and especially to two distinct causes, both of which illustrate the truth of the above assertion.

One of these, the removal of the forests, has been fully and freely explained and commented upon, in the *Nation* and other papers, and is so well understood as to require no further remark, except the significant one, that although it may justly be cited as one of the undeniable causes, both of floods and droughts, there has yet been no such recent extended increase of forest-clearing as would suffice to account for the sudden and vast increase of the annual floods. For this we must seek another cause, and I submit the following facts, which have come directly under my own observation, as a sufficient explanation:

In conversation eight years ago (in 1876) with the Superintendent of one of the principal railroads in this State, he told me that the receipts for freight of grain on his road the previous year had fallen more than a million dollars below the average, solely on account of its having been a wet season, the effect of which might have been averted by proper drainage, if the farmers could only be induced to try it. After some conversation I suggested the preparation of a pamphlet or tract, setting forth as succinctly as possible the benefits of under-drainage, with an explanation of the rationale of its operation, to be gratuitously distributed among the farmers. He approved the project and arranged with me to prepare the tract, which I proceeded to do, and backed all my assertions by such testimony as could not be denied. About twelve thousand copies of this tract were distributed by the railroad officials. It was immediately republished in full by agricultural papers, and also by tile manufacturers, who issued it as an advertising pamphlet, till I am assured that more than 100,000 copies were distributed.

The next year the Secretary of the State Agricultural Department informed me that, according to the returns from the different tile manufactories, the sales of drain tiles had been more than four times as much as in any previous year, and the benefit was so immediate and obvious that, from that time onward, the demand has exceeded the supply, though manufactories have been established wherever material of good quality was to be had; and last year he informed me that he had been unable to get full returns from all the factories, but it was certain that "more than *fifty thousand miles* of drain tiles had been laid in the State since 1876." I have every reason to believe that my pamphlet was largely instrumental in starting this great work, which has been fostered and promoted since by conventions, addresses, and periodicals devoted to the subject of drainage. The fever has raged throughout Indiana and Ohio with equal violence, and though I have no official report of the work done there, I feel confident I am safe in stating that in the three States more than 100,000 miles of tile have been laid. Now let us consider the effects.

The general surface of this whole region is so level that it abounds in swamps, sloughs, and areas of low, wet land, of greater or less extent. There is hardly a farm which has not more or less of such land, which heretofore has been useless, but which, when drained, has proved to be the most productive land on the farm. These areas, consequently, have been everywhere the first to be drained, to the immediate and manifest improvement of the productiveness of the farm, and equally of the health of its occupants. But, on the other hand, these areas have heretofore been the reservoirs into which the rains and melting snows of all the tributary surface have slowly found their way by infiltration; and after days and weeks, during which evaporation was constantly in progress, the surplus or overflow has reached the river. Now they have been provided with artificial substitutes for nature's slow methods, and the immediate discharge is secured of all these natural reservoirs through the drains, which carry off in a few hours an accession of waters that would otherwise have reached the river only by comparatively small instalments, after percolating for weeks, or perhaps months, through sloughs and swamps, and losing a large portion by evaporation. This effect is perfectly obvious and undeniable; and, taking into account the almost incredible extent to which this work of drainage has been carried, is the result disproportionate to the cause?

But the work cannot be undone; in fact, its ratio of increase was probably never greater than now, for no one now doubts that underdrainage is the safest investment the farmer can make, and it has already added millions to the productive power of this State. Are the floods, then, to be accepted as a chronic evil? Or by what means can they be averted? Forest planting, or the construction of great artificial lakes, as was proposed, at the head of the Mississippi, to serve as reservoirs during the droughts which will be the necessary consequence of the floods, would seem to be the only artificial means of compensation for the violation of nature's laws of which we may consider ourselves convicted. Whether either remedy is practicable to a sufficient extent to be of service, is doubtful. It seems evident that for a long time to come the areas on the river shores which are subject to the floods will have to be abandoned to such uses only as are not liable to injury from that source.

H. W. S. Cleveland.

Chicago, February 13, 1884.

THE "PROTECTION" OF COPYRIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Librarian of Congress recently expressed himself in favor of international copyright, not only because justice demands it, but because our literature languishes for want of it. The small number and average poor quality of American books is, he thinks, largely attributable to uncompensated British competition, and we are permitted to infer that a large increase of meritorious native works would be the result of protecting honest dealers in the raw material of literature against the venders of stolen goods. International copyright has hitherto been urged chiefly by authors who had obtained some recognition abroad, and who would therefore instantly profit by the passage of such a law. But the Librarian, who, *ex officio*, knows more of American literature, so called, than any one else, appears to have in mind not these, but the as yet mute and inglorious Miltons who would be fostered into fame by national "protection."

Now, this view is based upon two assumptions which I think are false: first, that the production of good books is proportional to the pecuniary reward; and, second, that it is affected by extra-national competition. The experience of France, Germany, and Great Britain, whose authors are "protected," seems to me to show that the reward of native authorship depends altogether (aside from intrinsic merit or the want of it) upon local habits; and the first proposition involves the fallacy that writing books is a profession like law or physic, or even journalism. The truth is that two-thirds of the writers of books are amateurs, in the sense that they write irrespective of pecuniary gain, and that a much larger proportion of valuable works are produced by them than by those who write, so to say, to order. If there were everywhere to be found a relatively large number of lawyers and doctors—a number including many of the first rank—who were willing to do their best for the pure love of professional renown, few would recommend the bar or medicine as a safe means of livelihood, but it does not follow that able work would not still be done in these professions. Besides this, the production of a professional man requires the expenditure of a considerable capital; while literary men, as such, simply grow. It is true that they depend upon the teachings of experience, as often as on genius or innate power of thought; but the experience is almost invariably acquired in some other pursuit than literature.

It is to be remembered, also, that the literary man has to contend against the competition not only of domestic cheap labor in his own trade, and of the unpaid labor of foreigners, but against the volunteer work of men in the real professions and trades. Lawyers and doctors are constantly writing books (besides those relating to their professions), but we do not hear of literary men cutting them out with *their* clients or patients; nor can it be doubted that the goodness of the works whose survival from the struggle shows them to have been the fittest, is largely dependent upon the number which enter into the contest, so that protection against foreign labor would not improve the quality, any more than it would increase the number, of our native products. Finally, the fact that we always have had a number of authors whose works have brought them in a comfortable living, though by no means to be urged as an argument against any attempt to secure to them a pecuniary interest in foreign editions, proves that the home market is at least sufficient for their needs. If foreign books were given away, there would still be people enough who would be willing to pay a fair price for native literature, not from patriotism, but simply because they prefer it.

The dependence of literary men for profits upon local conditions is illustrated in the constant complaints of German writers against circulating libraries. We have never heard complaints of this kind here, although we have not only lending libraries of the German type, but others which lend gratis. Nor are such complaints heard in England, where whole classes

of books, such as novels and popular histories, are published solely with reference to the libraries. In France books are published at a price much smaller than that of our copyright books, but considerably larger in proportion to the cost of manufacture; so that the publisher can afford to give a much greater percentage as royalty, while the sale is three or four to one of similar books in the other three countries named. In England, books intended for the libraries are offered at a price so large that, though only the libraries buy, the receipts are amply sufficient for both parties. But in Germany books are neither cheap enough for the public nor dear enough to afford a profit with only a small sale. If, as is asserted, the Germans could not be induced to buy books, as the French and as we do, to read and throw away, the obvious remedy is to adopt the English plan. Instead of this, however, ingenious expedients are proposed for taxing the libraries and refunding the amount collected to the author, something after the Canadian custom-house copyright—to state which, one would think, would demonstrate their absurdity. But the real ground for the failure of authors in Germany is, I fancy—first, the popularity of serial publications; and, second, the comparative worthlessness of German *literary* books. It is not cheap foreign labor, for both the reprinted English books and the translations from the French have to pay a royalty to the holders of the copyrights; in short, the German authors are protected quite as much as an international copyright would protect us.

W. M. G.

February 19, 1884.

Notes.

A LIMITED large-paper edition of the works of Edgar Allan Poe will, under arrangement with A. C. Armstrong & Son, who control the Poe copyrights, be issued in eight octavo volumes by G. P. Putnam's Sons, bearing the name of the Amontillado edition, and illustrated by etchings by Gifford, Church, Platt, and other artists. A portion of the 300 copies has been bespoken for the London market.

No. 19 of the Rhode Island Historical Tracts, published by Mr. S. S. Rider at Providence, will be Part 1 of Mr. W. E. Foster's paper on Stephen Hopkins. Part 2 is nearly completed.

Among the newest periodicals we remark the *Jurnal ov American Orthoepy* (No. 1, January, 1884), published in a peculiar phonetic character by C. W. Larison, at Ringos, N. J., and the *Foreign Eclectic* (No. 1, February, 1884), published by the proprietors in Philadelphia. The latter monthly takes its selections from French and German periodicals, and reproduces them in these languages without translation. The proof-reading seems careful.

A magazine of popular philology, printed in the reformed spelling of the British and American philological societies, and entitled *Language*, is projected by Profs. F. A. March, of Lafayette College, and C. P. G. Scott, of Columbia. A *Journal of Agricultural Science*, proposed by the North Carolina Agricultural Station, appears to meet with favor. A meeting to put the enterprise on its feet was held yesterday at Washington, at the Department of Agriculture.

For the sake of investigating the migration of birds, the American Ornithologists' Union have divided the country into thirteen districts, and prepared a circular for the instruction of observers, who will of course be voluntary. An additional number is desired, and the circular may be obtained by addressing Mr. C. Hart Merriam, Locust Grove, Lewis County, N. Y.

The historian of the immediate past has special claims on our gratitude, and Mr. Justin McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times' (1837–1880) has proved a boon to thousands of readers and students. Such of these as were American must have wished that a similar summary view of the political development of their own country were available. Mr. McCarthy has now condensed his work into a compact duodecimo volume (as it appears in the Harper edition) of less than 500 pages, index included. In this shape it forms a really admirable text-book for our higher institutions of learning.

Mr. George Barnett Smith's 'Life and Speeches of John Bright,' now some three or four years old, might have been thought sufficient for the life-time of this distinguished statesman, but Mr. William Robertson and his publishers have thought otherwise, and we have an octavo volume of some 600 pages, entitled 'John Bright and His Times' (Cassell & Co.). It is distinctly a popular biography, inferior in literary quality to Mr. Smith's, but in general fuller of details, and of course adoing a large number of extracts from Mr. Bright's speeches. As books of reference neither quite excludes the other. An etched portrait accompanies the newer life.

The fifth and sixth volumes of the revised edition of Gardiner's 'History of England' cover in general the same ground as the two volumes of the original work entitled 'England under the Duke of Buckingham and Charles I,' extending from the return of the Prince from Spain in 1623 to the death of the Duke in 1628. During this period, the author says in his original preface, "Buckingham was the ruler of England." The ground covered, we say, is in general the same, and they end with the same event, the assassination of Buckingham, so that the six volumes now issued correspond precisely to the original six. But in the earlier volumes the correspondence is not precise, as the four first chapters of volume v. (chapters 43 to 46) belong to the earlier series, chapter 47 being chapter 1 of 'England under the Duke of Buckingham.' The work has been carefully revised; but, so far as we have compared the two, the changes are almost wholly in diction, and indeed the preface to each volume speaks of the alterations as being mainly verbal. The most important addition appears to be of about a page and a half (on p. 224 of vol. v.) describing the charges brought against Buckingham by the Spanish Minister Lafuente. These two volumes are of especial interest, as containing the history of the three first Parliaments of Charles I, the years in which the struggle was begun which, renewed after the eleven years of personal government, led at last to Charles's ruin. Mr. Gardiner's views with regard to this struggle are well known, and we do not find that in this revision they are changed in the least. Sympathizing heartily with the contest against prerogative, holding that the attitude of the Lower House was, "for the moment, the highest political virtue," he yet claims, in the words of his original preface, that it is now made clear how Wentworth "came to take service under the King without being an apostate." These original prefaces, by the way, we are sorry to miss from the new edition. Of course they could have no place in it in their present shape, but they afford so useful a key to the work that it is a pity their matter could not be incorporated in it in some shape. The recasting of the work has brought the two maps of Cadiz Harbor and the Isle of Rhé both into the sixth volume.

Mr. L. Toulmin Smith prints in the January *Antiquary* (J. W. Bouton) a letter written home by an English tourist in America during the operation of the Boston Port Bill (Sept. 7, 1774). Mr. Smith annotates it in a few particulars, but omits to point out a singular foreshadowing of the Concord fight of the following year. At New York it was newly reported that Boston had been bombarded on account of an émeute. "What gave rise to this, was said, was this: General Gage had ordered detachments of soldiers to seize the powder in a town some distance from Boston, whether the provincial powder or some secreted by the people I am not certain, which they did; but being opposed by the inhabitants in the carrying it away, they had fired, killed six and wounded others, and that this brought on the general uproar." The rumor was immediately contradicted, but not before an express had been sent off to Philadelphia, "and I suppose they would forward it still further southward."

The *Art Union* monthly for February comes late, but is none the less interesting as the mouthpiece of an organization of artists. It has a pleasant etching by Thomas Moran as frontispiece, and several process illustrations of the collection now in the gallery of the Art Union.

We mention elsewhere an important volume illustrating the material and political constitution of South Carolina. There is also on our table a very encouraging report of the first three years' experience of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Mississippi. This institution, for whites exclusively (the State having provided a separate college for black students), has been more frequented than all but one or two of its class in the entire country, and has wisely established its agricultural teaching upon a firm basis before attempting the mechanical. It has practically become an experiment station for the farmers of Mississippi. Apparently the greatest obstacle to be overcome is the hereditary laziness of the students—their indisposition to labor; but it marks the great change which has come over the Southern mind when we find in the catalogue a large cut showing white youths marching afield with picks on their shoulders, with the legend, "Students going to work."

A correspondent directs our attention to what he considers striking resemblances between Mr. Charles Reade's story in the March *Harper*, entitled "The Picture," and a novel, "Where Shall He Find Her?" translated from the French and published by the American News Company in 1867.

Prof. Sheldon Amos's 'Systematic View of Jurisprudence,' published by Longmans in 1872, has just received the prize awarded by Dr. Swiney's trustees once in five years for the best treatise on jurisprudence. This prize consists of a silver cup worth £100, and the same amount in money.

The Juvenile Literature Committee of the Teachers' Union of Frankfort has found how difficult it is to lead youth in the way it should go with respect to reading. Formerly they contented themselves in their 'Ratgeber für Eltern, Lehrer, und Bibliotheksvorstände' with recommending good books. But they have become convinced that this is not enough, and in their last yearly issue they give a list of not-to-be-recommended books, but discreetly put these in an appendix. The National Teachers' Conference of Silesia has similarly issued a list of "geeignete und nicht geeignete Jugendschriften." As the persons to whom these lists are addressed are of age, they are not likely to be harmed.

The etchings by A. Lalauze, after the aquarelle illustrations of the works of Alfred de Musset drawn by Eugène Lami, have now all been issued by the publisher, Damascène Morgand. High praise is bestowed upon them by the *Revue Politique*, and higher still by A. Dumas *fils*, who was instrumental in having the etchings made, in a letter designed for a publisher's advertising puff,

With this writer's irresistible tendency to bathos, he says that "every woman in France who merits the name of woman keeps a volume of Musset under her pillow to dream upon," and draws from the Musset cult a great hope for the future of France.

Ex-Governor Leland Stanford of California, during a recent visit to Athens, placed in the hands of Mr. Eugene Schuyler, United States Minister to Greece, five hundred dollars, to be expended in the purchase of books for the library of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Gifts of the same sort from other of our public-spirited citizens would do much toward placing the library of our school on an equality with those of the German and French schools at the same place. The great need, however, as Professor Goodwin stated in his report as Director, is an ample endowment fund.

—Very interesting is the large volume entitled 'South Carolina,' just issued by the Commissioner of Agriculture of that State. As a picture of "resources and population, institutions and industries," it leaves little to be desired, and its freedom from exaggeration and grandiloquence is especially gratifying. We must pass over the description of the several belts or regions of the State, as to their geological formation, soil, productions, etc. The section on population naturally arrests attention. We read on page 369 that there is scarcely a township "in which one or more families (chiefly negroes) are not found, showing the distinct traces of the Indian descent which they claim. If such half-breeds numbered 6-10 of 1 per cent. of the present population, there would be as much Indian blood in South Carolina to-day as at the date of its settlement by the Europeans." As for the intermixture of blacks with whites, "it would be difficult to find an assured specimen of pure African blood" (page 373). There is no evidence of a tendency of the colored population "to separate from the aggregate population, and to become localized" (page 380). Nor do they confirm the old theory that they were not adapted to colder latitudes. "The Northern and Western non-slaveholding States had less than 6 per cent. of the negro population of 1860; but they have nearly 10 per cent. of the much larger negro population of 1880." The total number of the foreign-born in South Carolina is 7,686, which is 2,300 less than in 1860, despite the efforts made to encourage European immigration. In chapter iii. is given a sketch of the history, government, institutions, and laws of the State; in chapter iv. a sketch, occupying 100 pages, of education. Other chapters contain a large amount of useful information concerning churches, occupations, manufactures (under the head of cotton, we are told that from 1850 to 1882 the number of mills has increased 44 per cent.), transportation, taxation and debt, towns, etc. A large geological map of the State, and numerous graphic charts increase the value of this volume, which does infinite credit to Mr. Harry Hammond, its editor, and to the present Government of South Carolina. It ought to furnish a great stimulus to the best class of immigrants, both workers and capitalists.

—At the meeting of the American Philological Association in Cambridge, in 1882, Doctor Isaac H. Hall, of Philadelphia, read a paper on the Greek Testament as published in America, which excited very general interest among Biblical students, and, by opening to him new sources of information, increased considerably the quantity of his material. He has now issued it, enlarged and amended, in book-form, under the title: 'American Greek Testaments. A Critical Bibliography of the Greek New Testament as published in America. With two facsimile illustrations' (Philadelphia: Pickwick & Co., 1883). Dr. Hall is well fitted for the useful work he has undertaken. He is the possessor of the largest collection, private or public, of Greek New Testaments in America; he is exact in scholarship and unwearied in research, and he has had long practice in the study of Biblical texts. The field he has entered is almost entirely new. O'Callaghan's book on American Bibles (Albany, 1861) mentions only sixteen editions of the Greek Testament ('Amer. Gr. Test.,' p. 5), and no one, before Dr. Hall, had continued the investigation. The latter has worked up the subject in a very thorough way, not merely enumerating the various editions, but arranging them by families, tracing their genealogies, and unveiling the secret of their construction. There are few more curious sciences than bibliography, and even the history of American Greek Testaments has its humorous as well as its commercial side. In some cases, as, for example, that of the "Emphatic Diaglott" (p. 31), the reader will wish that the author had gone more into detail, as he has described (p. 36) the spurious Leusden which is so popular with theological students. His contributions to bibliography are not confined to American books; see, for instance, his remarks (p. 38, and note on p. 60) on Scrivener's noteworthy blunders. And, as the subject necessarily involves repeated reference to the early standard New Testament editions, the value of the book would be increased by a short introduction giving a sketch of the history of the Greek text. America has as yet produced no critical edition of the New Testament; but Dr. Hall points out that American scholars have not been behindhand in contributions to textual criticism: notably, Ezra Abbott, of Cambridge, and C. R. Gregory, now of Leipzig, have been zealous and successful students. One result of the examination of New Testament texts is to show on how slender a foundation the *textus receptus* rests, and Dr. Hall takes occasion to protest against the folly of clinging superstitiously to it, in opposition to the attempt that scholars are now making to establish the true text. At the close of the book is given a chronological list of Greek Testaments published in America. Altogether the author mentions about 150 entire New Testaments, and 108 partial editions; but he does not hope that his list is complete, and begs of all persons interested that they will communicate to him the titles of editions known to them, and omitted by him. This little book (82 pages) is a beginning in the right direction of Biblical critical research, and it is to be hoped that the author will continue his investigations, and that others will be stimulated to independent work in such material as is found in this country.

—The Principal of the Boston Correspondence School of New Testament Greek is undaunted by the recent discussion concerning the value of the study of Greek. He believes that "God has something personal and private to say to every man through His Hebrew and Greek Word," that "God has written some things in the New Testament for *your eye alone*." (The italics are the Principal's.) The school offers three courses. One of these is a "Kindergarten Course," with cards "to be used by little children in learning the Greek alphabet," with rhymes to teach the pronunciation of the letters. For example,

> "*Alpha*, the first of this twenty-four set,
> Rhymes with the first of the word *alpha*bet."

The letters are also set to music with "a simple refrain." A "Kindergarten game" introduces "to the children some of the queer animals of the Bible." Cards are prepared with a red Greek letter on one side and a black English letter with a key-number on the other. "For example, the children select all the black letters on which is the figure 8. There is one which is a capital. They place that first. There is one which contains a period. They place that last. The order of the other letters must be guessed. At length the word is arranged, BULLFROG. By this time the children are somewhat excited, and are perhaps surprised as well as pleased to learn that bullfrogs are mentioned in the Bible. But they are more excited at the prospect of seeing the Greek word and finding the place in the Bible where the frogs are mentioned." By turning the cards the children's curiosity is gratified; they see the Greek word βάτραχος. "Above all they are anxious to have the story about bullfrogs which mamma or Aunt Emma has been reading in the key ever since she saw the children take up the first letter with an 8 on it. This key contains explicit instructions, with answers to every question which may arise during the game." How, in guessing at the order of the letters, the child is to make sure of putting the two λs in the right order and thus get βάτραχος and not βάρταχος, the circular does not tell us. The rapid progress which this system and school insure, is indicated by the fact that although there are but twelve lessons in the Kindergarten course, one of the things taught in it is announced as "8, a philological conception of New Testament Greek as God's chosen language for His words to man." The circular says that "nearly two hundred students are already successfully pursuing the courses of the school. . . . All are enthusiastic. There is not a cold student on the list."

—Dr. George Engelmann, a native of Frankfort-on-the-Main, died at his home in St. Louis on the 4th inst., after a short illness, and just as he had completed his seventy-fifth year. The oldest and most respected physician of his adopted city, Dr. Engelmann is best known to the scientific world as a systematic botanist of a high order. His publications are not numerous or voluminous; yet, judged by the standard of permanent value, they must be placed with the best work in American botany. The earliest appeared as long ago as 1832, when he printed at Frankfort, on the eve of his departure for the United States, an inaugural dissertation, 'De Antholysi Prodromus,' written in Latin, and illustrated with his own analytical drawings. His botanical studies, thus early begun, were continued without intermission up to within a few days of his death, which overtook him busy with his botanical correspondence and in suggesting and planning new work. Dr. Engelmann was a slow, careful, and thoroughly conscientious investigator, who has left little for successors in his chosen fields to gather. He studied only a few groups, and always such difficult ones as other botanists hesitated to attack; and years were often given to the study of a single genus before his critical mind allowed him to publish anything in regard to it. In this way he studied and elucidated North American Cuscuta, Juncus, Euphorbia, Quercus, Abies, Pinus, Vitis, Agave. The Cactaceæ occupied his attention for nearly thirty years. He described and figured the plants of this order collected by the different expeditions, public and private, which have explored the boundary region of the United States and Mexico, and was long everywhere considered the highest authority upon this family as well as upon the Pine, on which he published, a few years ago, an elaborate memoir. Such engrossing and difficult studies were carried on in the moments snatched from a large professional practice, to which he joined, too, careful and elaborate meteorological observations. These he conducted for more than forty years, publishing the results from time to time. At his death Dr.

Engelmann was one of the oldest, if not the oldest meteorologist in the country. To his zeal the St. Louis Academy of Science owes its origin and reputation. Always its firm supporter, he was its first president, serving it in that capacity at different times during many years. Dr. Engelmann is worthily succeeded in his professional practice by his son, an only child, Dr. George J. Engelmann.

—Upon the news of the death of the late Wendell Phillips, the London *Times* was ready with an obituary notice which well illustrates the penalty paid by the reading public for insisting on having such reviews served up hot. For example, they were told that the abolitionists, Mr. Phillips among them, "declared that the only way to effect the emancipation of the slaves was by dissolving the Union," whereas, in reality, they declared dissolution the only way to free the Northern conscience from the guilt of complicity in slaveholding. Then follows this extraordinary statement:

"Their agitation was in the first place directed far more against the maintenance of a single authority, which they considered to be a distinct infraction of the rights of each separate State than against the slave-owners themselves, although they hoped to strike the latter by destroying the former. When, however, they attained their best object by the capitulation of Richmond they found that they had contributed to solidify and strengthen that very Union which they had denounced so vehemently as 'an immoral bond.'"

This, if it means anything, implies that the abolitionists were nullificationists on purely constitutional grounds, without reference to slavery; and that "the capitulation of Richmond" was their own defeat. Of course the immorality of the "bond" (national slaveholding), was wiped out by that event, and the Union which remained was the Union they had always desired and never opposed. But worse befalls when the *Times* comes to speak of Mr. Phillips's Lovejoy speech at Faneuil Hall:

"His first speech that has been preserved was made at the end of 1837, in reference to the execution of a religious minister who had upheld the liberty of the Press in discussing the Constitution of the country. He appears on this occasion to have been impelled to speak by certain observations of the Attorney-General in favor of the sentence, and, interrupting the official pleader from the body of the hall, he had the personal satisfaction of carrying the mass of the audience with him."

From this the *Times's* readers will naturally infer that Lovejoy suffered judicial execution, in Massachusetts, and that Attorney-General Austin was appealing in behalf of the majesty of the law against popular outcry!

—The English translation of Professor J. J. Rein's 'Japan Travels and Researches' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) is before us, and those who have waited for the very best general work on Japan have now the opportunity of purchasing their full money's worth. Gathering the best of all previous scholarship and research on the subject, the author has added his own valuable contributions. With tireless German industry and enthusiasm, he improved every moment of two years' travel and residence in Japan during 1874 and 1875. As he was under the patronage of the German Government, numerous special facilities were afforded him, and the assistance of foreign scholars, notably that of Mr. Ernest Saton, was freely accorded. As we have before reviewed at length the German work, we here content ourselves with a brief note on the quality of the translation and bookmaking. The text before us is more than a translation, it is a revision of the original work, and hence an improvement upon it. Every line has passed under the eye of the author. We have marked a number of the sentences which gain decidedly in clearness and force by rearrangement of clauses and excision of superfluous or weak words. Slips in English grammar, however, occasionally occur, and in the use of pronouns one is needlessly burdened at times to discover lawful parentage. The original German term, as for instance, "cockade" for crest or badge, is sometimes left unimproved. These slight defects are, however, really few, as compared with the excellences of the work as a whole, which is better in its English than in its German dress. The publishers have done their part handsomely, and give us all the merits of the European edition. The paper is thick and white, of first quality, with fair margins, the page being by two dimensions a half inch larger than in the original German. For the 630 pages of the latter, we have 534 pages in the present edition, with all the superb illustrations, two large maps, and an index. We commend the work as the best general hand-book of Japan, and the most complete yet presented to the English-reading public.

—No scheme of city reconstruction nowadays can afford to omit subways; indeed, few try to. They are a prominent feature in the pamphlet which Mr. W. Westgarth has published as an explanation of the series of prizes offered by the Society of Arts for the most practical essays on (*a*) the "rehousing of the poorer classes of London," and (*b*) the "sanitation, street realignment, and reconstruction of the central or more crowded and insanitary parts of the City." Lighting, water, sewage, and, perhaps, heating and force should all pass through these subways, which would apparently fill the whole width of the street, and the adjoining cellars would be valuable for business storage. Ordinary traffic, and even rapid transit, could be provided for in the streets if a terraced promenade, having very many connections by bridges, were carried along the second floors. Steam power for locomotives does not meet Mr. Westgarth's approbation. Electricity, or at any rate some silent and smokeless motor, must be insisted upon. The buildings should be immensely lofty, and the upper stories reached by constantly moving elevators. The roofs, all on the same level, might be recreation promenades, parks, gardens. These, as Mr. Westgarth's reconstructed city is to have no smoke, would be delightful, and the upper stories of his new buildings might be sought as homes in the very heart of the city. We confess we do not see, even if the bold projector succeeded in devising means for cooking and heating without smoke, and so prevented his new City from producing London's great plague, how he could keep the smoke of the surrounding unregenerated districts from pouring in and clouding his skies. The whole of the City is to be laid out anew and rebuilt; an extraordinarily wide street to connect the Bank and St. Paul's, and all thoroughfares to radiate from those two foci. And this magnificent scheme he imagines could be carried out by a joint-stock company with a capital of only ten millions sterling, the present owners of property to have the option of coöperating with the company, and so retaining the property, or of giving it up to the company at a valuation. He is confident that the increased rents would pay the cost of the scheme. To prevent fear of misuse of the vast powers with which it would be necessary to intrust the company, it is provided that no step whatever shall be taken without the concurrence of the three representatives of the Government, the Municipality, and the Board of Works, who are to be members of the Managing Board; and he would have the other members of the Board to consist in large part of men of reputation in engineering, building, sanitary science, and the housing of the poor. The proposal seems at first sight wild, and likely to be rejected at once. But, conservative as John Bull is, he sometimes adopts very magnificent projects, and great waves of public opinion sometimes carry him to very unexpected decisions. All England is excited now over the cry of outcast London; it is a matter that comes much nearer home than the cry of Egypt cast out of the Sudan. It is not utterly beyond belief, therefore, that some Haussmannization, so to speak, may improve the English metropolis.

—In a recent work ('Zur naturwissenschaftlichen Behandlungsweise der Psychologie durch und für die Völkerkunde,' Berlin, 1883), Dr. A. Bastian points to the fact that the real principles of ethnology are of a psychological nature, and that to discover them the psychology of nations has to be treated as an inductive science, a science of nature. His volume contains seven treatises, averaging nearly forty pages each. The subjects are of paramount interest to ethnologists, and are illustrated throughout by the new discoveries made by the author himself in the most distant parts of the globe. They are as follows: "Psychology on an Ethnologic Basis"; "Scientific Controversies on Various Subjects"; "The Andaman Islands"; "From Polynesia"; "The Youth's Initiation at the Time of Puberty"; "Religious and Legal Customs"; "On Easter Island." The sketch of the Andaman Islands contains an abstract of a recent article published by E. A. Man in the Journal of the Anthropological Institute for August, 1882, enlarging on the anthropology, government, ordeals, laws, narcotics, adoption, relationships, and initiatory ceremonies of these cannibalistic islanders. In the sixth article, the Creation myth of the Iroquois is given *in extenso;* and a curious list of the Roman genii, male and female, is added, of whom a large portion presided over agricultural pursuits. The article on Easter Island and its mysterious statues is chiefly compiled from recent English publications. The superabundance of ethnographic material presented in this book is marred by many typographical errors, especially in Latin and Greek quotations; and Bastian's method of quoting authors by their names, without mentioning the volume and page, is anything but satisfactory.

—Mr. Theodore Thomas and his orchestra gave at Steinway Hall on Sunday afternoon the first of a series of concerts for the benefit of working people and their families. It is proposed to give one of these concerts every month, the tickets being distributed among a respectable class of people whose income and engagements do not allow them to attend high-class entertainments. The plan of giving these concerts was originated several years ago, and the execution of it was rendered possible through the generosity of the late Mr. Julius Hallgarten and the efforts of Dr. Felix Adler, Mr. Theodore Thomas, and several other gentlemen, among whom especial mention is due to Mr. Steinway, who has added the free use of the hall to his numerous previous donations in behalf of musical culture. The scheme is certainly an excellent one, the only objection that has been urged against it being that the concerts are free. But, as Dr. Adler remarked, this is an unreasonable objection, which would equally hold good in regard to public schools, free libraries, or banquets to which guests are invited. The arrangement of the programme was a matter which required especial tact and experience, and the result of the concert was a great triumph for Mr. Thomas over those who continually underrate the musical capacities of

audiences, including the Philharmonic. Mr. Thomas's principle has always been not to stoop down to the popular taste, but to elevate that taste to a higher level. Given such a rare opportunity to acquaint a large number of people with works of a high order, it would have been a waste of valuable material to play a number of trivial and flimsy pieces such as may be heard every evening for a "quarter" at one of our music halls. When art galleries are thrown open to the public, they are not invited to look at cheap chromos. On the same principle Beethoven's Fifth Symphony was boldly placed on Sunday's programme, and it is gratifying to record that it was listened to with more attention and received more enthusiastic applause than anything else, excepting Wagner's "Rienzi" overture, which ended the concert. This began with the Abert arrangement of a Bach prelude, chorale, and fugue, and included, besides the pieces mentioned, Mendelssohn's overture to "Midsummer Night's Dream," Weber's Invitation to Dance, and two songs—Schumann's Two Grenadiers, and Schubert's "Am Meer," suitably orchestrated by Mr. Thomas—which were sung by Mr. Remmertz. The choice of Weber's waltz, as orchestrated by Berlioz, calls for special mention, as it gives fresh evidence of the spirit of liberality and common sense which gradually makes its way in this country. The time will come when the most bigoted people will recognize the fact that there is more true religion in a good waltz or polka than in a wretched hymn. Genius is always sacred, no matter whether it manifests itself in quick or slow rhythm.

SCHLIEMANN'S TROJA.—II.

Troja: Results of the Latest Researches and Discoveries on the Site of Homer's Troy, and in the Heroic Tumuli and other Sites, made in the year 1882; and a Narrative of a Journey in the Troad in 1881. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Hon. D. C. L., Oxon., etc. Preface by Professor A. H. Sayce. With 150 woodcuts, and 4 Maps and Plans. London: John Murray; New York: Harper & Brothers. 1884. Pp. xl.-434.

THE second city is the only settlement on Hissarlik, except the topmost one, for which the ground was levelled above the ruins of the preceding town before erecting new buildings. The settlers here raised the ground above the sloping débris of the first town by a layer of earth ten feet deep on the north and twenty inches deep on the south, and they built stone foundations for their large buildings through this new layer upon the more solid ground beneath it. The acropolis was fortified by a substantial stone wall, which is to be seen on the south and southwest sides. "It consists of quarry stones, on an average 0.45 m. long by 0.25 m. broad, which are somewhat irregularly joined in easily recognizable horizontal courses, without any binding material" ('Troja,' p. 54). The woodcut on page 55 gives a good view of a piece of this wall adjoining the southwest gateway on the west. "Here it is built at an ascending angle of 60 degrees; it has a slanting height of 9 m. and a perpendicular height of 7.50 m." (p. 56). Another piece of the same wall on the north side of the hill was destroyed by the great central trench in 1873. Another wall, which Schliemann assigns to a later period of the city, runs from the southwest gate, at first parallel with the older wall, then outside of it, and afterwards by itself on the southeast side of the acropolis, finally reappearing at the northeast angle, where it is nearly joined by a piece of wall supposed by Schliemann to be the beginning of the enclosure of the lower city on the plateau. These walls were built with towers, which stood at regular intervals of about 50 metres. The older wall, as it now stands, is built entirely of stone, and it is uncertain how its upper part was constructed (p. 54); the later wall has a foundation of stone and a superstructure of brick. Dr. Schliemann seems to think that the whole acropolis was at one time surrounded by a wall of this later style. He says (p. 61): "When the whole wall of the acropolis was still entire, and when the gigantic substruction wall was still surmounted by the brick wall crowned with numerous towers, it must have had a very imposing aspect, particularly on the high north side which faces the Hellespont; and this may have induced the Trojans to ascribe its construction to Poseidon, or to Poseidon and Apollo." The acropolis had three gates, one on the southeast, one on the southwest, and a third on the south. There may have been others in parts of the wall which are not now visible. When the level ground of the acropolis of the second city was laid bare by removing the houses of the third, it was evident that only a few large buildings of the second had occupied the hill, such as were likely to be found in the citadel of a great town. There were two which appear to be temples, described with plans and measurements in pp. 76–87. The larger of these was about 43 feet in breadth, and about 112 feet in length to the edge of the great trench, by which a part of its foundations were cut off. It contains a *naos* and a *pronaos*, the latter open to the southeast; it may have had another chamber behind the *naos*, where it is cut off by the trench. The smaller temple, which was about 76 feet long and 23 feet wide, had such a third chamber. Some pieces of the temple walls are still standing with a height of four or five feet, their thickness (4½ feet in one temple and 3½ feet in the other) having protected them; but they were all buried under the masses of rubbish upon which the third settlers built their houses. There were probably three other buildings within the wall of the acropolis, one of which seems to have been a large dwelling-house. Of the last Dr. Schliemann says (p. 89): "We recognize with certainty that it consisted of several halls, from five to seven metres long and broad, which were grouped around an interior rectangular central hall or court, 11m. long by 7 50m. broad." In removing the houses of the third settlement the largest one, which had been called the "Town Chief's Mansion," was wisely left as it was found, as a specimen of the poor architecture of the later town in contrast with the more substantial character of the earlier buildings.

The lower city, of which this second settlement on the hill was the acropolis, extended far out on the level plateau, on the southwest, south, and southeast of Hissarlik. Here must have been the real Troy, "with broad streets"; here were the outer walls with the Scæan Gate; here was the tower of Troy, from which Helen descried the Grecian heroes. The discovery of the undoubted existence of this lower city is one of the most important results of the excavations of 1882. Dr. Schliemann was not satisfied with the negative results of his investigation by shafts in 1873; and, therefore, in 1882 he undertook a systematic exploration of the plateau on the east, south, and west of the acropolis. He now dug three trenches, one about 200 feet, one about 130 feet, and one about 360 feet in length. In the first of these he dug to the depth of nearly forty feet before coming to the solid rock; and he found "very large quantities of Hellenic pottery, and, in the lowest layers, masses of fragments of those kinds of very ancient pottery which are peculiar to the two most ancient cities of Hissarlik" (p. 25). The second trench was dug where it was thought that the wall of the lower city must have stood. "In fact," Dr. Schliemann says, "I found there, at the exact spot where it must be supposed to have existed, the rock artificially levelled; so that there can can be no doubt that the wall once stood here; but not a stone of it remained *in situ*" (p. 26). In the third trench he struck the rock at a depth of from 6½ to 20 feet, and found Hellenic house-walls and Hellenic pottery, "but in the lowest layers of débris again a very large quantity of prehistoric terracottas of the first two cities of Hissarlik" (p. 26). He also sank a large number of shafts at various points around the citadel. The result is that there remains no doubt of the existence of a large lower city, which appears by its pottery to be of the same age with the two earliest settlements on the hill. It was of course impossible to make as thorough an exploration of the large plateau as was made of the acropolis, and we can hardly expect a more accurate report than this, unsatisfactory though it is, upon this most interesting and important question, with which we feel that the identification of the "Burnt City" with Troy is essentially connected. Dr. Dörpfeld says of the lower city, that its limits cannot be determined with certainty, but that its existence is established most decisively ("aufs bestimmteste"). The dotted line which marks its extent on Plan VIII. of 'Troja' is therefore in many respects conjectural, being determined in great part by the formation of the ground and by the presence of the more ancient pottery ('Troja,' p. 63).

These two results of the last year's work—first, the discovery that Hissarlik was only the acropolis of the second city, and that the greater part of the hill, at the time of that city's destruction, was occupied by only a few large buildings, apparently temples and dwelling-houses; and, secondly, the discovery of a large lower city of the same age, with which the acropolis was connected by at least three gateways—seem to us to strengthen Dr. Schliemann's original position in two most essential points, and to remove all reasonable doubt that he has discovered the city of Troy which was the historic basis of the myth of Troy. In accepting the same conclusion three years ago we did not accept the facts as they were reported, but based our judgment on a view of the facts which has now proved to be the correct one. If the walls and foundations of buildings now to be seen on Hissarlik had been exposed to view during the last hundred years, as the walls and Lion Gate of Mycenæ have been, it would hardly have occurred to any one to doubt that we had here the Homeric Troy in the same sense in which we had the Homeric Mycenæ. Troy and Mycenæ are both mythical cities—that is, the details of their histories are so mixed with fable and so embellished by the fancy of many generations of poets, that it is now generally impossible to separate the true from the false; but it is more reasonable to believe that the fables and poetic fancies clustered around real cities which had been famous in their day and generation than around purely imaginary creations of the poet's brain. And this presumption becomes all the stronger when we find important ruins which can naturally be assigned to the cities in question.

The new excavations have also made it more evident that the great prehistoric city of which we have been speaking passed through a mighty conflagration. No one can see the mass of burnt bricks upon which the third town was built, with the cracked pavements and the wood reduced to charcoal, and, above all, the gold and silver ornaments and articles of bronze found in the ruins, without being convinced that a terrible fire once swept over that fated hill. Dr.

Schliemann writes that these marks of heat are most striking on the bronze weapons. "Thus, for example, of the weapons found in the largest gold treasure, one bronze dagger has been completely curled up in the conflagration; a mass of lance-heads, daggers, and battle-axes have been fused together by the intense heat; there are, further, lance-heads fused to battle-axes, and a lance and battle-axe firmly fused to a copper caldron" (p. 58: with references to illustrations 800, 805, 807, 813, 815, of 'Ilios'). Here, however, a word of caution is needful, to modify much that has been said of the effects of this great fire. Not all the burnt bricks on Hissarlik, nor all the brick walls now standing with their surfaces glazed by the action of fire, are relics of burning Troy. The visitor, too, sees glazed walls which must be later than the fire which destroyed the great city. It now appears that the earlier settlers on Hissarlik built walls of crude unbaked bricks, and then baked them *in situ* by huge fires on both sides at once. The baking was often very imperfect, affecting only the outside surfaces, and chiefly those of the lower layers of bricks; but for more important buildings, like the two temples above mentioned, a more elaborate system was devised. In the larger temple there is in each fourth course of bricks a longitudinal groove from 10 to 14 inches deep and from 6 to 10 inches high, and at intervals of about 13 feet there are cross holes running directly through the wall; through these the fire permeated the wall more effectually. The arrangement of these grooves and holes may be seen from the illustrations on pp. 77 and 80. Dr. Schliemann supposes them to have been filled with wooden beams after the walls were baked.

It may perhaps be thought that this custom will account for all the marks of fire in the Burnt City, and thus make the great conflagration at least doubtful. But, though there may often be confusion on this point, there is no difficulty in distinguishing the two kinds of burning in the most important cases. No theory except that of a terrible fire will account for the state of the articles of gold, silver, and bronze above mentioned. No other will account for the charred deposits still remaining in many of the jars which are now standing in their places. In one of these we noticed a black substance with a level surface covered with apparent bubbles, looking as if it had been boiled and hardened. One of the most impressive sights at Hissarlik is the present appearance of the long, narrow passage-way, shown in fig. 18, p. 71 of 'Troja.' This must have been, at least in great part, a covered way leading into the heart of the acropolis from the great southern gate. It entered the hill at a level of about twelve feet below that of the second city, and it has been traced to near the middle of the acropolis, gradually ascending after it leaves the gateway. In the lower part of this way rows of wooden posts were once set on both sides at intervals of seven or eight feet, supporting some structure above. Each one has left a distinct impression of itself in the clay covering of the wall of the passage against which it leaned. These posts have disappeared, each leaving a heap of charcoal on the ground where it stood; and the clay in which they have left their impressions has been fused by the heat of their combustion. Those little piles of charcoal make the burning of Troy more real than volumes of argument.

Of course, nothing now remains above ground to show the nature or the extent of the destruction of the lower city on the plateau; but there can be no doubt that it shared the fate of the upper city. Strabo (p. 599) says that, as Troy was destroyed from its foundations, while the neighboring towns were only sacked and not entirely ruined, the stones of Troy were all carried away to rebuild the others. He adds that Archæanax of Mitylene walled Sigeum with stones from Troy. It is certain that the lower city was never rebuilt or fortified from the time of its capture by the Greeks until the time of Lysimachus, early in the third century B. C.; and even after that time the accounts of its condition are conflicting, and it long remained a place of little importance. It is thus literally true that, in the time of Æschylus and in that of the orator Lycurgus (330 B. C.), the site of Troy, *i. e.*, the real city of Troy on the plateau, had been for centuries an uninhabited waste, as it is described by these authors. The unimportant fact that small settlements had been made on the hill of the acropolis in the meantime was not likely to be known to the Athenian poet and orator, or to concern them if it was. This seems to be the simplest means of settling the vexed question about the references of Æschylus and Lycurgus to the deserted condition of Troy, without supposing that either had any belief that ancient Troy stood on any other site than that of the Greek Ilion, or, indeed, any theory about its site at all except the common idea that it was still uninhabited. The denial of the inhabitants of the Greek Ilion that the site had ever been entirely deserted or that the ancient city had ever wholly disappeared (Strabo, p. 600) is easily explained as referring to the little settlements on the acropolis, which were of more account to them than to the rest of the world. It will be noticed that Herodotus, in describing the visit of Xerxes to the temple of the Ilian Athena in 480 B. C., says merely: "He went up to the Pergamos of Priam, having a desire to see it, and when he had seen it and inquired about everything there, he sacrificed a thousand cattle to the Ilion Athena" (Herodotus, vii. 43). This shows that it was only a small place on the hill which Xerxes visited; it is not even called Ilion or spoken of as a town by the historian.

We have no space to discuss any of the other arguments for or against the identity of Hissarlik with the site of Homer's Troy. We merely remark that a passage of Plato ('Leg.,' p. 682 B.), which is often quoted in the discussion, is particularly applicable to the position of Hissarlik in the plain of Troy: "We say that the site of Ilion was changed from the heights, and it was settled in a great and beautiful plain, *on a hill which is not high* and has many rivers descending from the heights of Ida." The arguments in favor of this as the site of Troy are excellently stated by Grote ('Hist of Greece,' I. ch. xv.), who of course wrote in ignorance of any prehistoric ruins there: to his arguments must now be added all the strength which is gained from Dr. Schliemann's discoveries. We cannot doubt that every one who now visits the land of Troy will feel that, while there are a few allusions in the Iliad which it is hard to reconcile with the site of Hissarlik, this difficulty is not to be compared with the absolute impossibility of reconciling a far greater number with Bunarbashi, or with Strabo's impossible site of Troy at the "village of the Ilians." Dr. Dörpfeld gives the result of his five months' experience at Hissarlik in 1882 as follows (*Allgem. Zeit.*, Sept. 29, 1882): "For us architects who have concerned ourselves uninterruptedly with these questions for several months, it is settled beyond all doubt that the second city from the bottom, with its Pergamos and its stately buildings, which was completely destroyed by the hand of an enemy, and was restored in its ancient extent only by the Macedonians and the Romans, was the sacred Ilios of Homer, the city of Priam, which was captured and destroyed by the Greeks."

RECENT NOVELS.

To Leeward. By F. Marion Crawford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

An April Day. By Phillipa Prittie Jephson. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Great Heiress. By R. C. Francillon. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Canon's Ward. By James Payn. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Thirlby Hall. By W. E. Norris. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Millionaire. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Hero's Last Days. By the author of 'A Sequence of Songs.' Columbia, S. C.: W. J. Duffie.

Our Christmas in a Palace. By Edward Everett Hale. Funk & Wagnalls.

An Ambitious Woman. By Edgar Fawcett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Beatrix Randolph. By Julian Hawthorne. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

A Latter-Day Saint. Being the Story of the Conversion of Ethel Jones, related by Herself. [American Novel Series, No. 1.] Henry Holt & Co.

One False, Both Fair; or, a Hard Knot. By John B. Harwood. Harper & Brothers.

Diane Coryval. [No Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Old Mark Langston. A Tale of Duke's Creek. By Richard Malcolm Johnston. Harper & Brothers.

La Comtesse Sarah. Par Georges Ohnet. Paris: Ollendorf; New York: F. W. Christern.

THE tale Mr. Crawford has invented in 'To Leeward' to illustrate the dangers of drifting has been praised because "not immoral." By just so much as it is not immoral, it is not artistic, it is not true to life. The story of the seduction of a young wife scarcely out of the honeymoon, and of her death at the hands of her husband driven mad by her desertion, cannot be adequately told in a novel except in terms which, let us be thankful, our inherited instincts will not tolerate. A consciousness of the restriction should have forced the choice of a different subject, but Mr. Crawford has insisted upon his work in spite of it. We are spared scenes of exciting passion, but the effect is, that we never see in what lay the power of fascination, and therefore cannot believe in it. The story is cold and hard. The woman is silly; the man is a brute. If great genius could master such situations, it is beyond the power of the story-teller pure and simple such as Mr. Crawford. It is also said that there is a high moral lesson in the book because the punishment is so swift to follow the crime. A life in misery might be punishment, but death is not, unless future retribution is certain. Moreover, the wife's death is not made the death of a criminal. It is set in a sort of halo, for the spring to save her lover was the one unselfish act of her life. As to the man, so far as moral lesson goes, compare him with young Donnithorne in 'Adam Bede.' The book is more carefully, more solidly written than either of its predecessors. The author takes himself and his readers more seriously, but he has much yet to learn, for he is still capable of such a *bêtise* as, after telling in the person of a leading character, a pathetic little story and telling it well, then to add a foot-note: "The author witnessed the facts here described in 1880."

A good word can be said for four out of the five Franklin Squares on our list. As might be expected, Mr. Norris's work is the most substan-

tial. At the other end of the scale is 'An April Day,' which has but a feather's weight, yet is a pretty story—a little idyl, set, so to speak, to the old air of "Kathleen Mavourneen." The two fathers are the original figures in it, as unlike the conventional type as possible. 'A Great Heiress' comes to her own in disguise, and marks out the good and the bad, and rewards them accordingly in the summary way that is now somewhat old-fashioned. It would be a very fresh novel-reader who did not see through such a plot at once in these days. If the author has not succeeded in keeping his secret, he has made the most of his situation. Three-quarters of the book is so well done that it seems as if he might have contrived a conclusion without the intervention of a crime so shocking as the mill agent's. 'The Canon's Ward' is interesting, but it lacks harmony between the incidents and their surroundings. The characters fit well enough in the placid atmosphere of scholarly life. Elderly men and women with soft faces and voices, and, about them, ingenuous youth, all, old and young, devoted to one opening rose, make another of those gracious pictures by which English life has become so pleasantly familiar. Such a setting should belong to a very different plot. Sorrow comes surely even to such tranquil homes, but so strong is the feeling it could only come gently, that it is like a blow to meet a secret marriage at the beginning. The husband is at once drowned, and the secret is known to but one man, who uses it to force the Canon's ward to marry him. This leaves the story without a hero in the ordinary sense, for after such an outrage the reader can only detest him. The Canon is a suggestion of the dear old Warden, and he bears his reverses quite as patiently. But therein appears the superiority of the master-hand. The Warden is left in his patience, but the Canon's fortune is restored by one of the staple devices of the novel-writer.

Mr. Norris has chosen to try his hand, in 'Thirlby Hall,' upon a very old combination. A boy in love with the companion of his childhood, a young man fascinated by a finished woman of the world—the two phases in the same life have been often enough portrayed; but, from the very nature of the case, there always has seemed an injustice to somebody. We do not mean in the final decision, though it may be true enough there too, but in the characters assigned to the several heroines. The innocence of the girls becomes inanity, or the women, if nothing worse, are hard and chilling in their worldliness. Mr. Norris shows in Lady Constance Milner the selfishness which must be the ruling power in such a nature, but there is a candor about her, even in her judgment of herself, which saves something of respect for her. The book is less striking than some of the earlier ones; it is more direct in plot, and more even in execution. The characters are always well in hand, and there is not that division of interest, by running two or three parallel threads, which Mr. Norris has heretofore preferred.

'The Millionaire' appears to be an English tale, in which an omnipotent New York speculator plays the part that used to be given to the Indian uncle, and is the good genius of everybody. By way of balance to this most modern figure, we have one of the very old, the last of the strolling players. There is also an American lady, beautiful of course, and most amiable; but we fear that, before such flattering American portraits are accepted in England, they must be put into a story less patently imitated from Trollope, by an imagination not so commonplace and not so fond of cheap effects.

'A Hero's Last Days' is classed as fiction on the slightest grounds, for there is hardly a thread of a story. The writer has chosen the form only as a convenience for the record of the views of an honored friend upon social and political questions. Thrown into conversations between an old man and a young one, they show in an interesting way the point of view of two generations in South Carolina in those early days of the reconstruction known as the dark time. With so personal a motive, perhaps this was all that could be done, but the field is wider than the writer knew. South Carolina, with its marked distinctions between country and coast, with its unbroken traditions of England and of Huguenot France, offers to the novelist an opportunity only less fortunate than that which Cable has found in Louisiana.

'Our Christmas in a Palace' is a reprint of a dozen or more stories from magazines and newspapers. When Mr. Hale's stories are good they are very good, and it ought not to be surprising if not every one of these is up to his highest mark. We find more entertaining the little narrative in which they are interspersed. A party of people are snow-bound, a day's journey west of Council Bluffs, and beguile the time with story-telling—story-reading we should say, for Mr. Hale most ingeniously contrives that the right *Harper*, etc., shall be in somebody's basket or pocket: his conscience will not let the reader lose sight of the fact that they are reprinted. It is a pity he could not have made story-tellers, for surely our people have not lost the art.

No one who began 'An Ambitious Woman' as a serial could have failed to finish it, though it was difficult to form a judgment about it. In the present shape its merits lose nothing in themselves, but it is apparent that the story is not an organic whole. Taken separately, there are many remarkable scenes, many close studies of motive and character; but there is no coherence, no development of one from the other. As it stands, the contradictions prevent illusion. The best of the book is the picture of the heroine in the first flush of her success, but that perfection of person and of manner could never be the outcome of such a miserable girlhood. "A dwarfed and partial growth" carries the twist and the cramp to the latest day. The author would have us believe her beauty and her intellect an inheritance from her gently-born father, but that pushes too far the theory of hereditary traits, since his are only the negative ones, and the mother is a coarse virago. The author makes too much of his bad people. One quarter of the book is too much to give over entirely to sordid vulgarity of the meanest kind that could be honest. The fine ladies are too bitter in their rivalries. On the other hand, an ambition so deliberate and so heartless as the heroine's would have overpowered all sense of danger. It may be answered that her husband saves her; but the girl who could calmly plan her own career upon the basis of a loveless marriage would not, as a wife, have hesitated at any way of escape. The book is not a description of New York society, but only of a few people in it. The life of the very rich, its fastidious comfort, its insidious charm, is exceedingly well given; but beyond that there is no occasion for general inferences, even though there is not a noble woman in the whole story, and but two men who know what honor is.

'Beatrix Randolph' requires at the outset something of a pull upon credulity, or upon imagination, to accept the substitution from which the plot is developed. Thereafter the story is carried brilliantly on to certain fine and high issues which are never too common in these days of pessimism. So far as it goes, it does something toward answering the question what a high-minded American girl would do in a position of actual hazard, with nothing but her own traditions to aid her. Daisy Miller never had any traditions, and the Lady of the Aroostook was so carefully provided for (by the author) that no one ever knew what she could do. The story, brief as it is, is more of a description of society than 'An Ambitious Woman'; and the people, unlike Mr. Fawcett's (with the single exception of his hero), would be pleasant to know. Such a pair as the Dinsmores will offset a good many scheming parvenus and selfish exclusives.

'A Latter-Day Saint,' an anonymous society sketch, opens happily a new series of American novels. Though the confessions of Miss Jones can hardly be recommended as a guide to conduct for ingenuous youth, an ambitious débutante may glean from them invaluable hints. But before soaring, she must impartially weigh chances—all the physical and mental attributes, all the accidental circumstances, which may tell in her favor or against her. She must be absolutely unconscious of any heaven higher than that she sighs for, and if a single immortal longing disturb her breast, better she had never been born than that she should take counsel with Ethel Jones. This young woman was from her cradle *sûre de ses faits;* and before perpetuating in letters herself and her world, she had probed the truth at the heart of both with the cool hand proper to one who "always preserved a great contempt for emotion as a rule of life." As a story-teller, this gives her an advantage almost uniformly despised. She knows her subject, and, without wordy dissection of character or elaboration of motive, establishes from the first a cordial intimacy between her audience and her actors. She narrates her achievement of social greatness, and her subsequent life of "simple and unpretentious gayety," with the dispassionate directness and verisimilitude of Cæsar describing a campaign which he had planned and of which he was a part. She utters philosophy and sarcasm with a piquancy and good-temper which recall Thackeray's lighter manner without echoing it. Her language is as consistent as her scheme of life. Not once does she pander to that preference for literary elegance which is naturally part of the respectability of such people as those neighbors of hers, "who went away on account of what they called our scandalous behavior." She is mistress of the pointed, homely expression, of the metaphor drawn from every-day avocations, which stamp the caste of the Latter-Day Vere de Vere. If she is at once depressed and reckless, she "wants to go in and swipe, as the cricketers say." Wishing to define her way of consoling herself for a temporary dissatisfaction, she avoids metaphysical refinements and remembers "that little catchword of which Mr. Temple was so fond—'Patience, gentlemen, and shuffle'; I comforted myself and shuffled." The amusement afforded by the frank recital of a career glorious or inglorious according to the point of view, is heightened in that of the "conversion." The impregnable moral coming from such a saint is a delight to the soul of the sinner. For, if a politic woman who has lost her complexion and her hair, and almost lost her reputation, would still conquer worlds, she must approach them through abject propriety, judicious prayer (Anglican, of course), and a prominent place on the committee of an irreproachable charity.

The saying, of Oriental origin, "One thing is certain, the rest is lies," applies exactly to 'One False, Both Fair.' It is certainly rubbish. The ridiculous plot turns on the personation of a widow, Clare, Marchioness of Leominster, by her twin sister, Cora Carew. The Gordian knot is not tied by human skill aided by a god, but by

the effrontery of one head with a "twisted weight of golden hair" opposed to the fatuity of another head which is externally identical. Being tied, a five minutes' family council would have cut it as effectively as a hero's sword. But that method presupposes an ordinary family, whereas the author has provided only two extraordinary relatives, whom he has ruthlessly dragged from the quiet of a museum of curious antiquities. One is Lady Barbara Montgomery, the other, Sir Pagan Carew. Lady Barbara is variously labelled as the "Cat of Quality" and the "She-dragon of the Aristocracy." She responds to remarks from mild young gentlemen drinking tea, as a "war-horse to the trumpet call." Her personal appearance inspires a descriptive paragraph which may be definite, but undoubtedly is weird:

"She looked as a Montgomery might have looked when panting messengers came rushing to the stronghold on the steep to tell how the bare-footed, white-mantled Welsh were spreading havoc through the country, marching in force on Castle Vawr. . . . She would have been ready then with mangonel and arblast and falconet on the strong stone battlements to receive the onslaught of the furious clans from the West."

A firm foot on any sort of a battlement, and familiarity with awful, archaic implements of war, are obviously unavailable resources in the settlement of a modern mistaken identity case. And Lady Barbara's unfitness for such an emergency is only comparable to Sir Pagan's. It is positively asserted that he would have done great things under Effingham, against the Armada, but that "in the nineteenth century he was an anachronism, much as a sachem of the Pequods, in plumes and war-paint, would be in the bustling Massachusetts of to-day." The force of illustration, especially if one knows Boston, can no further go. Sir Pagan's natural disability is grasped. He could only preserve a masterly inactivity until wrong is made right by the production of the "nurse of ninety years" and the prehistoric strawberry mark.

'Diane Coryval' is a smoothly and pleasantly written story, the materials being largely drawn from what may be called a "general fund" for authors of slender resources. Impecunious lovers, callous fathers, and the all but deadly typhus are common enough in life. They are therefore legitimate stock-in-trade, and capable, as in 'Diane Coryval,' of being furbished almost to the freshness of a first appearance. Diane, though a victim of the hackneyed comparison with a lily, is an attractive figure, both in the artist-life of Paris and among her bucolic kindly kinsfolk in Picardy. She commands admiration by her struggle for self-support at the Pensionnat Gainber, and sympathy when she believes her lover, Réné St. Avon, faithless. But fondness feels ashamed when she marries Rupert Byasson. Not that Rupert is objectionable. He old and rich. He has the hands of a peasant, and wears his blouse; he has, besides, the honor of a chevalier and the simplicity of a child. He is a cherished figure in literature, and in reality must be as delightful as he is exceptional. Nevertheless, a sweet, pure, self-reliant young girl cannot marry him without exciting scepticism about her actual possession of those qualities with which she stands accredited. Diane is hardly redeemed by her later resistance against the returning and still loyal Réné. Indeed, their mutual victory over temptation seems less a natural and admirable development of character than a sop to the moral requirements of English readers. The most noticeable defects in the book are a vagueness of idea, an insecurity of method, which at times rouse the suspicion that the author has not borne in mind the thread of his story. The number of worthy people who die quietly in bed suggests either dearth of expedient or unconsciousness of the length of the death roll. When Réné tells Mme. Byasson that his promise to his perfidious father held him bound not to communicate with her for *two* years, the mind instantly reverts to the sixth chapter, where the agreement between father and son is made distinctly for *one* year. Though Réné is rather a shabby fellow, it is not fair to impugn his veracity. If the prefatory note, which excuses his abandonment of Diane in the first crisis, explained this discrepancy of statement as well, everybody would feel more comfortable.

If we were to meet Mark Langston and the other commonplace, pious settlers of "Dukesborough," in the flesh, we should feel bound by our traditions to respect them in silence. As they are presented to us in an alleged "tale," we can say freely that they are very dull, that they are bores. If such people did exist in Middle Georgia half a century ago, that is no reason why they should be thrust in all their rude mediocrity upon the novel-reading world of to-day. It is a gross imposition upon those who, on the whole, deal more kindly with the novelist than the novelist deals with them. The most infatuated realist cannot contend that truth without either idealization, imagination, or, at the least and lowest, exaggeration, is enough for art. Even if Mark Langston should be accepted as an intended exposition of plain, unvarnished truth, failures of intention are numerous. In the spasmodic working of the plot, all probability and much possibility are sacrified in order to make an incomparable villain of Kinsey Duke, who is after all but a coarse and uninteresting miscreant. As for the dialect, it may have been spoken in the South before the "slavery agitation troubles." At present we cannot conceive of any woman talking like Mrs. Toliver, unless she had studied and made her own the linguistic eccentricities of "Sairy Gamp," "Uncle Remus," and the lady just arrived from Cork and installed in our kitchen. That it is easy to be tiresome in fiction—hard, and every day getting harder, to be amusing—we admit, and have a wide charity for harmless, indolent prosing. But the author who combines jargon with pompous circumlocution has been at great pains to weary us. We can never forgive him; but nothing is easier than to forget him.

'La Comtesse Sarah' is M. Georges Ohnet's third novel, if we remember aright, and its editions have already, in the six months or so since it was first published, surpassed in number those of 'Serge Panine' and 'Le Maître de Forges.' Of the three books together, more than a quarter of a million copies have been sold. No three of M. Alphonse Daudet's or of M. Émile Zola's novels can show a more popular record than this. But M. Daudet and M. Zola have been long years in attaining their positions, while M. Ohnet has jumped to the front in three gigantic strides. The causes of his success are further to seek than the causes of theirs. M. Daudet has charm and M. Zola has force—to pick out the most obvious of their qualities—and M. Ohnet has neither in any marked degree, or, indeed, any other of the qualities of the great novelist save one: his novels are interesting. He has recognized Anthony Trollope's distinction between having to tell a story and having a story to tell. M. Ohnet has always a story to tell, and his story is always interesting. His characters are not very new or very true, but they are sufficient. His plot and incident are rarely startling in their novelty. His dialogue and his descriptions are not of a merit exceptional enough to be singled out for special praise. He is well equipped on all sides, but he nowhere reveals peculiar genius. His success, we take it, is due to his having introduced a new form of novel—the novel which closely approaches the play. Mr. Charles Reade was on the verge of this invention, but although he filed his caveat he never took out his patent. M. Ohnet began as a dramatist, and his first novel, 'Serge Panine,' was a play before it was a novel. His plays are what are called "emotional" plays, and so his novels are "emotional" novels. They have the broad and passionate handling of simple situations which marks the most skilful work of Parisian dramatists. There is a swift movement of the story, and no time is wasted in dissertation, in description, or in dissection of character. M. Ohnet swerves not to the right or to the left; he ignores realism, and he is ignorant of accumulated detail. Even his characters are conceived in accordance with the requirements of the theatres; they are limned with a few free strokes of the charcoal. There is in 'Comtesse Sarah' no character as firmly drawn as the tragic mother-in-law in 'Serge Panine,' but the story itself is of even more breathless interest.

It is worthy of note that the chief situation in M. Ohnet's 'La Comtesse Sarah' is singularly like the chief situation in Mr. H. C. Bunner's 'A Woman of Honor.' The American story was written at least a year before the French, just as Mr. W. E. Norris's 'Heaps of Money' preceded M. Claretie's 'Le Million,' the subject of which was substantially identical. No accusation of plagiarism will fairly lie against M. Ohnet, because the situations, although alike in some respects, are so unlike in others that it is substantially impossible that one should have been suggested by the other. There is also a certain sort of resemblance, quite close enough to deserve record, between the duel scenes in 'Le Maître de Forges' and Mr. Charles Reade's 'Griffith Gaunt.'

Anecdotes of the Civil War in the United States. By Brevet Major-General E. D. Townsend, late Adjutant-General U. S. Army (retired). D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

LIKE a great many folks, we do not always read the preface of a book until we have finished the book itself. We had laid this book down with a feeling of considerable disappointment; we had asked ourselves how it was possible for a man in General Townsend's position during the great civil war, to have written his recollections, and have told so little of the really important matters that must have passed under his very eyes. We had said, in a word, that the book was far more remarkable for what it did not contain than for what it did. Then we glanced at the preface, and there we found the following frank admission:

"If they [these anecdotes] fall short of the expectations formed of one who was known to have filled positions of high responsibility in military councils during the most critical period of our country's existence, or fail to reveal some of the hidden reasons for certain measures, and the secret history of certain events which he may be supposed to know, it must be attributed partly to his conviction that in some matters the information confided to him was intended never to be made known; and partly to the fact that, while his advice and experience were always submitted to the higher powers when called for, he abstained from seeking knowledge which it was dangerous to the success of critical enterprises to have disseminated more than was absolutely necessary, content with understanding enough to insure an efficient execution of the authority intrusted to him."

We have given General Townsend's explanation in his own words, and we trust it will obviate in advance the disappointment to the future readers of his book which we frankly confess to have felt ourselves.

Taking the anecdotes, then, simply for what General Townsend intends them to be, we find

them interesting and varied. There is a great deal of the personal element in them, of course, but we do not know that that detracts in any way from their entertaining character. There are anecdotes of President Lincoln, General Scott, and Secretary Stanton, with many more of a miscellaneous description. Of General (then Colonel) Lee's resignation, General Townsend tells us that Scott sent for him from Arlington Heights, where he was staying with his family. Lee was at this time, April 19, 1861, Colonel of the Second Cavalry, and was on leave of absence. Scott told him he must prepare for active service; that those Southern officers who were resigning were making a fatal mistake; that the contest might be long and severe, but the issue would be eventually in favor of the Union. Lee simply stated that his property was in Virginia; that his children would be ruined if they did not go with their State; that he could not raise his hand against his children. With this the interview terminated. It is probable that Lee's sons were more in sympathy with the secession movement than their father was; and it is evident that Lee did not care to have any discussion of principle with his old chief.

General Townsend has done well in reprinting in his Appendix General Scott's "Views," dated October 29, 1860, his memorandum on "Reënforcing and Holding the Forts," dated December 28, 1860, and his letter to Mr. Seward, dated March 3, 1861, giving the four possible courses that might be adopted, the last of which was the permission of secession, embodied in the well-known phrase: "Say to the seceded States, Wayward sisters, depart in peace!" General Townsend points out that this last course is not the one favored by General Scott, and he calls attention to the wisdom of General Scott's recommendations for the garrisoning of the forts contained in his "Views," and reiterated in his memorandum of December 28th. In this connection there is an interesting statement made by Mr. Floyd at the reception tendered to him in Richmond, after he had resigned from Mr. Buchanan's Cabinet. Floyd says that Scott's plan "to stop secession was, like all campaigns devised by him, very able in its details, and nearly certain of general success." It was to transfer the army quietly to the Southern forts "Had Scott been able to have got these forts in the condition he desired them to be, the Southern Confederacy would not now exist." This was the opinion of a decided secessionist, and a man of considerable knowledge of the state of feeling in the South; and it is entitled to great weight. It amounts to this, that had the attitude of the United States Government been unmistakable, had it been clearly understood at the South that even a Democratic administration would use force unhesitatingly, that the secession movement inevitably meant war, the plan would not have been attempted. He may have been wrong, of course, but it is well known that the South, before the commencement of hostilities, was far from being ready to break the Union, and that the leaders in the enterprise of founding the Southern Confederacy did not expect, much less desire, a war with the Northern and Western States.

In March, 1861, however, the opportunity for checking the movement in advance had gone by; and General Scott seems to us decidedly to favor the first of the alternatives stated in his letter to Mr. Seward—namely, the adoption of the Crittenden compromise. This would, he urged, prevent the border States from joining the Confederacy; and he even predicted the early return of some of the States which had seceded. Without adopting some such course, the border States would, he thought, almost certainly join the South. In this he was right so far as Virginia and Tennessee were concerned. Moreover, nothing but force held back Maryland; skilful diplomacy backed by a show of force alone controlled Kentucky. His second course was to blockade the Southern ports, or collect their duties on ships outside them. On this he evidently placed no reliance, at this aggravated stage of the controversy. His third course, to conquer the South, is stated as a perfectly feasible thing. But to show how a sagacious man may guess wide of the mark, look at Scott's estimates: two or three years, 300,000 men, and $250,000,000. As a matter of fact, we employed in one way or another, in round numbers, a million of men, about fifteen times as much money, and it took four years.

But there is one most important item of General Scott's account in which his predictions have been most happily disappointed. He says the result would be "fifteen devastated provinces, not to be brought into harmony with their conquerors, but to be held for generations by heavy garrisons at an expense quadruple the net duties or taxes which it would be possible to extort from them, followed by a Protector or an Emperor!" Verily, fortune has been good to the people of this country. Who could criticise this gloomy prophecy at the time? Who could point to experience, to history, and show how exaggerated was the picture? No one, probably; but the fact that the experiment was tried in a new country, and a rich country, and an intelligent country, and in the latter half of the nineteenth century, had a great deal to do both with making our task more costly, and the result more completely and speedily successful.

There is a good deal that is entertaining and curious about the corps badges, and about the various devices for the Confederate flags. There is an interesting chapter on the celebration at Fort Sumter on the 14th of April, 1865, exactly four years from its surrender, when Major, then General Anderson, with a distinguished party went to the fort, and with his own hands hoisted over the shattered ruins the same flag that had been lowered on the 14th of April, 1861. There is an interesting facsimile of Anderson's despatch written on board the steamer *Baltic* on April 18, 1861—a very felicitous despatch, commemorating a not very remarkable feat of arms. General Townsend's book will be found light, pleasant reading. Had he taken a different view of his responsibilities, we should have found his book more valuable.

Acts of the Anti-Slavery Apostles. By Parker Pillsbury. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Saint Indefatigable. A Sketch of the Life of Amarancy Paine Sarle. By William F. Davis. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

It would be easy to find fault with the arrangement and literary style of Mr. Pillsbury's work. Its defects are to a great extent those of the sermonizer, as might be expected of a genuine apostle of abolition. Few, to be sure, of the author's colleagues possessed the historical faculty, or attempted, as he has done, an account of their personal experiences in changing public sentiment on the subject of slavery. Indeed, among those whose labors were almost wholly in the field, away from the great centres of propaganda and in living communication with the friends and foes of the cause, Mr. Pillsbury is, we believe, the first to review and chronicle his adventures in book form. And death has made such havoc with his old associates that in all probability he will be the last as well as the first. Want of modesty, however, is so far from being the cause of this distinction that Mr. Pillsbury's reminiscences would have gained considerably in value if they had been more, and more exclusively, personal. They in fact give a generous prominence to the doings and merits of his fellow-agent, the late Stephen Foster, and constantly "yield the floor" to that gifted friend of both, Nathaniel Peabody Rogers, editor of the *Herald of Freedom*, as an eye-witness and graphic reporter with whom it would be idle to compete. Rogers, Foster, and Pillsbury are the three leading figures in a narrative which is strictly confined to New England—to Massachusetts and New Hampshire in particular—and deals chiefly with the period from 1839 to 1842.

Mr. Pillsbury's mission overtook him when serving as a Congregational minister—licensed but not ordained—in a small New Hampshire town, at a time when sectarian division in the anti-slavery ranks had afforded the clergy generally a pretext for withdrawing from the movement and for entering actively into the ranks of the opposition. Disruption, too, upon the slavery issue, was threatening many of the great denominations and religious organizations; "come-outers" were multiplying; and the shortcomings of the churches became inevitably the main theme of abolition discussion. Mr. Pillsbury's moral earnestness and theological training well qualified him to join in exposing and denouncing a false Christianity and a faithless priesthood, and to make this in some sort his specialty to the end. His book is, after all, only the last word of it—a revelation to the present generation of the persecutions of the "Apostles" at the hands of the clergy; a reminder to the latter that no amount of whitewashing will conceal the responsibility of their predecessors for the needless prolongation of the struggle against the greatest immorality of the age. We recommend it to both classes as full of interest and instruction.

A few extracts will furnish a glimpse of the hardships of our New Hampshire lecturers. Here is Rogers's description of the reception of the trio at Sanbornton Square. The time of year is December (p. 110):

"The hour arrived, we resorted to the literary institution. It was a steeple edifice—meeting-house and town-house (Church and state) hard by, all in a row; all steepled and painted as white as so many 'whited sepulchres.' No light gleamed from the academy windows; all dark as 'the people covered with gross darkness.' We entered it; not a spark of fire nor a soul there. We consulted what to do. Four little boys came in, then one man, Deacon Lane, and a woman, then two young women, academy scholars, boarders at our friend Webster's, one more man, and lastly friend Webster himself, the abolitionist of Sanbornton Square, and our assembly was complete. Brother Pillsbury found the bell-rope and pulled it till the sound rang clear and loud all over Sanbornton hills. It agitated the cold night air, but not the colder hearts of the people. Brother Bodwell [the local Congregational minister] must have heard it like a knell in his study. Nobody else came near. Brother Pillsbury went to a store and bought a candle and *lighted the house*, wrapping a piece of newspaper round it and setting it in a corner of the desk. It threw its beams round upon the empty seats and the 'darkness visible' of the 'Woodman Sanbornton Academy,' the title, we believe, of this *Liberal* institution. We held a season of prayer, not with the full formalities of a meeting. We felt the desolate condition of the unfortunate people and their minister, and we prayed for them. Brother Foster followed, . . . and bore an appalling testimony against the place."

At Hancock, "the old Orthodox meeting-house had been obtained for our meeting" (it is still Rogers who writes), "it being so owned that the Very Reverend Father Burgess could not by his nod prevent our having it," though he warned his flock not to attend the three days convention:

"The godly children of the church rang that old liberty bell till they made it hoarse, and almost broke their young mobocratic backs with pulling the rope. It annoyed the village more than it did us who were down under it in the

house. We told them to ring in welcome. It was a free meeting, and every one of them was at liberty to take what part in it he chose. If he had no ability to speak against anti-slavery, he might ring the bell, or he might sneeze, or bark, or throw stones. There was one pro-slavery tailor in the entry that had sneezed with great ability. I never heard anybody that had such talent at sneezing. . . . He came into the meeting, and when any of the speakers touched on Mr. Burgess's connection with man-stealing, the tailor would sneeze in his defence. Others of his defenders would bark, some whistled, others scraped the floor with their hind feet. . . . But Foster . . . displayed Burgess in such condemning light as one of the great brotherhood of thieves and patrons of robbery and adultery in the slave system, that they could not bear it, and began again to show their religious rage. Several large stones were hurled in at the front door, and went tumbling up the broad aisle to the foot of the pulpit. . . . By-and-by smash went the glass, and in at the side windows came the stones. . . . Real clerical argumentation. Truly *religious* weapons of defence for the church and minister."

Harder to deal with than the mob was the simultaneous leaving of the audience by preconcert, as happened to Foster at Stratham. Oftener than not, however, it was Foster himself who quitted the building, involuntarily, especially if it was a meeting-house, for he felt it to be his duty to rise and rebuke the church assembled in its own sanctuary. From Canterbury jail he wrote to Rogers on February 15, 1842:

"When I dare look on my shattered form, I sometimes think prisons will be needed for me but little longer. . . . Within the last fifteen months, four times have they opened their dismal cells for my reception. Twenty-four times have my countrymen dragged me from their temples of worship, and twice have they thrown me with great violence from the second story of their buildings, careless of consequences. Once, in a Baptist meeting-house, they gave me an evangelical kick in the side which left me for weeks an invalid. Times out of memory have they broken up my meetings with violence, and hunted me with brickbats and bad eggs. . . . Once, in the name of outraged law and justice, have they attempted to put me in irons. Twice have they punished me with fine for preaching the gospel; and once, in a mob of two thousand people, have they deliberately attempted to murder me. . . . Still, I will not complain, though death should be found close on my track. My lot is easy compared with that of those for whom I labor. I can endure the *prison*, but save me from the *plantation!*"

Mr. Pillsbury devotes the second chapter of his book to a personal sketch of Rogers, repeating, by the way, the traditional error about his descent from the martyr, John Rogers—as to which Colonel Chester's interested researches avail more than "the remarkable resemblance" of N. P. Rogers to the portrait of John in the possession of the Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass. He is purposely silent about the unhappy alienation of the editor of the *Herald of Freedom* from his warmest friends among the Massachusetts abolitionists. A very partial and inadequate hint of this important episode will be found in Mr. Davis's little sketch of 'Saint Indefatigable' (whom he pronounces "the most remarkable woman in Rhode Island" at the time of her death, some two years ago). For this reason, as well as because incidentally Mr. Pillsbury's record of his own apostleship is supplemented, we have coupled the two books in the present notice. Mr. Davis's generalizations (as on pp. 16, 17, 22) concerning the aims and dissensions of the abolitionists are not discriminating or trustworthy, and Miss Paine's relations to Rogers and his faction cannot be fairly judged from her correspondence with Mr. Quincy, without further knowledge of the nature of the controversy. However, the letters shed some light on the attitude of the parties, and derive some in turn from Rogers's own writings as quoted copiously by Mr. Pillsbury. When the Rhode Island Anti-Slavery Society, of which she was the secretary for ten years, expired in 1853, Miss Paine, who presently became Mrs. Sarle, turned her energies into all manner of charitable works with marvellous persistency and endurance. She finally went back to the church which, while under Rogers's influence, she had "come out" of by way of protest against it "as an organized body," and much of her Samaritanism was in the line of her "church work." The congregation when she originally joined it was capable of very good anti-slavery resolutions, while maintaining a place apart in the gallery for African communicants. From a sense of duty, she took her seat with these outcasts. It is singular that after subsequent years of official prominence as an abolitionist, and even after the war, she should on a certain occasion, if we may trust Mr. Davis's account, have shrunk from riding through the streets in a carriage, and hesitated to share an emergency bed, with a pauper negress whom she was maintaining—on account of her color.

Methods of Teaching History. By Dr. G. Diesterweg, Professors Herbert B. Adams, C. K. Adams, John W. Burgess, E. Emerton, W. F. Allen, and Mr. Thomas Wentworth Higginson. [Pedagogical Library. Edited by G. Stanley Hall. Vol. I.] Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 207 and 92.

Dr. Hall's 'Methods of Teaching History' was intended, we are told, "to be the first of a series entitled a Pedagogical Library, devoted to methods of teaching, one volume of which was to be occupied with each of the more important branches of instruction in grammar and high schools." Even if "the appearance of subsequent volumes in the series is not yet assured," the designation as vol. i. on the title-page holds out an expectation which it is to be hoped may be realized, and the general excellence and helpfulness of the book before us ought to secure it many readers. It is in three parts. Part 1, translated from the German of G. Diesterweg, is a systematic treatise upon instruction in history, and we cannot better indicate the scope of the work than by giving the titles of its eight chapters. These are: the meaning of history; the use of history; modes of writing history; limit of subjects; arrangement of the material; manner of treatment and tendencies; outlines of instruction in history; means of instruction. These subjects are all suggestive, and we need only say that each is treated with great judgment, so that all teachers of history can obtain valuable suggestions from them. The translation is, so far as we can judge, accurate; it follows the original, however, too closely, so as sometimes to fail in idiomatic rendering. The selection of history as the subject of the first volume of this library is a testimony to the growing recognition of the importance of this branch of study. It may be suspected that new classes are formed in history more rapidly than well-qualified teachers are found ready to take charge of them. We can, therefore, heartily recommend the present essay, as well to teachers who are conscious of deficiencies in their preparation, as to principals and school boards who wish for assistance in laying out courses of study. It contains few details of fact, but an excellent summary and analysis of principles.

If the subject of the volume bears testimony to the tendencies of an educational system, in laying more and more stress upon history, the tone and treatment of the separate essays which compose the rest of the volume, are equally significant indications of the tendencies of methods of instruction. Every one of these essays, except the two short ones upon Physical Geography and "Why do children dislike history?" by Colonel Higginson, is devoted to a discussion of the best method of teaching history by original work, upon original materials. In other words, the aim of all these teachers is to adapt the methods of physical science to the study of history. The scientific method of investigation has prevailed in historical study as well as in the natural sciences, certainly from the time of Wolf and Niebuhr; the reform consists in applying it to the instruction of the young; and here, we cannot doubt that the method, even in the German seminaries, which are the model in several of these papers, was borrowed from the methods of the instructors in physical science. It is very interesting in the comparison of these papers, each contributed "without knowledge of what the others had written," to see how steadily this object is held before the mind of each writer. The methods of instruction, whether borrowed directly from the German *Seminar* or arrived at by individual experiment, vary very much in detail, but are identical in spirit and aim.

Part 3, of 92 pages, contains the special paper of Professor Allen, followed by a selected list of books of reference and reading, and two lists of topics for special study in general dynastic and in American history.

Geology of the Comstock Lode and the Washoe District, with Atlas. By George F. Becker, Washington.

This is the title of No. 3 in the series of Monographs of the United States Geological Survey. An abstract of this paper was published a year or more ago in the second annual report of Director Powell, and now the finished work, a quarto volume, has been issued from the Government office. It is accompanied with twenty-one unbound folio atlas sheets, beautifully lithographed by Julius Bien, besides which the book contains seven plates from the same source, and thirty-three woodcuts.

The great economical importance of the Comstock Lode, the source, since 1859, of more than $300,000,000 in gold and silver, has naturally made it an interesting field for scientific investigation. Within the last twenty years the nature of its rocks and ores, the structure, physical condition, and chemistry of the vein, and the mode of occurrence of its wonderful deposits have been the subjects of elaborate studies and treatises by Baron von Richthofen, King and his assistants of the Fortieth Parallel Survey, Church, and others. It is now thirteen years since Mr. King's report and maps were published. Since that time the development of the lode has been enormously increased. The depth of workings has been extended from about one thousand to three thousand feet; the great bonanzas of the Chollar-Potosi, Belcher and Crown Point, Consolidated Virginia and California, yielding together over $160,000,000, have been discovered and exhausted; the Sutro Tunnel has been completed; and the opportunities for interesting observation and the material for scientific study have been vastly enlarged. To this field of inquiry Mr. Becker has devoted himself with great industry and care; and his report will doubtless be examined with close attention by many who are interested in the scientific aspects of mining work. The lithology of the district has received a large share of Mr. Becker's attention, and among other notable results is his conclusion that the so-called propylite of Richthofen has no sufficient standing as an independent rock species. The rocks so described are really, by Mr. Becker's showing, various Tertiary and pre-Tertiary rocks, reduced to a nearly uniform appearance by decomposition. The name of propylite has already gained some

popular acceptance; and many a prospector in other regions, anxious to trace a geological relation between the great Comstock Lode and his own new discovery, will learn with regret that the name by which he has been pleased to describe his favorite formation must be stricken from the list of rocks. Mr. Becker's study of the chemistry of the lode leads him to the belief that its precious metals were probably derived from the hanging-wall rocks which, when fresh, were argentiferous and auriferous, thus affirming the theory of lateral secretion. The high temperature of the lode he attributes to a deep-seated source of heat, probably of volcanic origin, and not to the kaolinization of feldspar, as suggested by Mr. Church. The structure of the lode and the mode of occurrence of the ore-bodies are discussed at length with the aid of elaborate maps of underground workings and geological sections. In the preparation of these maps Mr. Becker had the very valuable assistance of Mr. R. H. Stretch, who, years ago, rendered similar service in the work of the Fortieth Parallel Survey.

Under existing rules the monographs of the Survey are not distributed gratuitously. They are for sale at cost of publication. The price of this volume with atlas is $11. Application should be made to the Director of the United States Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.

The History of the Year. A Narrative of the Chief Events of Interest from October 1, 1882, to September 30, 1883. London, Paris, and New York. 1883.

THIS is the second 'Year' of Cassell & Co.'s popular annual. The publication is in several respects an improvement on similar ones in English and French. It is concise, readable, of varied contents, and comprehensive to a degree. The plan of making the year begin with October and end with September has the advantage of presenting the annual to the reader at the close of the period the retrospect of three-quarters of which it offers—that is, at the time when a retrospective glance over events lived through, but indistinctly remembered, becomes most naturally desirable. From a mercantile point of view, the advantage is more obvious still. Historical year-books which, like Appletons' 'Annual Cyclopædia,' appear in the spring, may be useful and handy additions to a library of reference—as are eminently Schulthess's 'Geschichtskalender' and the exceedingly comprehensive 'Jahres-Supplement' to Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon'; but they are issued at the wrong season for both reader and publisher. Most publications of this kind—the German ones, as a rule, excepted—are mainly concerned with events in the political, intellectual, and social life of the country in which they are published. The year-book before us is very strongly British in its contents and tenor. It devotes 170 pages to the political affairs of England and her colonies, and only 125 to those of all other countries. Its chapters on "Religion and Morals," "Literature," "The Drama," "Music," "The Fine Arts," "Sports and Athletics," and "Fashion and Dress," as well as the various statistical appendices, refer exclusively to things and movements in Great Britain. Only the chapters on "Trade and Finance," and the "Obituary" are of somewhat more universal interest. The obituary notices form the most poorly-executed portion of the volume. From those of Louis Blanc and General Chanzy, for instance—though they are not devoid of details—the reader would never learn that the former had any share in the revolutionary events of 1848, or that the latter was ever defeated during the war of 1870-71. Comparatively the fullest part is that devoted to "Sports and Athletics," which by its scrupulous minuteness in narration ought to satisfy the most curious devotees of cycling, football, cricket, etc. A little less of this or about fashions, and something, instead, of German or other foreign literature, would certainly have raised the year-book's literary level; but this is far from being low as it is, and most of the sketches depicting the political and intellectual movements of the twelvemonth are, indeed, done with attractive ease, freedom from prejudice, and adequate knowledge. The information and accuracy of the writers and of the revising editor, however—as usual in English or American compilations—become very inadequate in matters requiring some knowledge of the more rarely-studied languages, or a close comparison of various accounts, if errors are to be avoided. Hence a multitude of such incorrectly-rendered, or in revision uncorrected, names as Christies, Ranavola, Zagorien (a district transformed into a town, p. 252), Indejkin (for Sudeikin, p. 254), Bristritza, Pejasevics, Bisenbecker (for Eisendecker, p. 291), or *Czechenyi* (for Széchenyi, p. 396). The external appearance of the annual is pleasing.

Mosaics of Grecian History. The Historical Narrative with Numerous Illustrative Poetic and Prose Selections. A Popular Course of Reading in Grecian History and Literature. By Marcius Willson and Robert Pierpont Willson. Harper & Bros. 1883. 12mo, pp. 554.

THE title-page of this work explains sufficiently its plan and object, which is very well carried out, with, as we think, rather an excess of illustrative selections. The narration is in a plain, serious style, perhaps somewhat heavy, but in general in good taste. We have here another example of the effort, so common nowadays, to make history "interesting to all classes of readers"; and the editors deserve commendation for not having tried to make it interesting by lowering its tone. Still we are inclined to think that the superabundance of poetical extracts—giving the book in reality the look of a "mosaic"—will be found to be in the way of the desired result. A narrative history can be made interesting to the mass of readers only by superior power of narration. The story must carry the reader along by its own intrinsic merit, and the boy who is eager to read of Marathon and Thermopylæ will certainly skip the verses of Haygarth, Thomson, and Juvenal, even if the mere opening of a book so full of poetry does not repel him. The fact is, ancient history is so far removed from our modern point of view, that there is very little of it but the stories that can be made really interesting to any but students of thought and institutions. Rather a disproportionate amount of space is given to literature, and, indeed, the 'Mosaics' seems to us better as a history of literature than as a political history. We are surprised to find that the old traditions about Lycurgus and Draco, for example, are given as unquestionable facts.

Suggestions to China Painters. By M. Louise McLaughlin. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

THIS little book is evidently intended for people who know little or nothing about art. The introduction says: "Before passing to the consideration of painting on china, I would like to say a few words to novices in the art upon the necessity of learning to draw before any attempt at coloring is made" In fact, decorative ceramics in which the necessity of such warning is made painfully evident are so abundant as to become a social nuisance, intolerable to any one who knows art even moderately well. It is possible to overlook the lamp jars and other bulbous vases which show this precocious running into pigments, unless the fond and proud executioners, or their husbands or relatives, ask your opinion of them; but that incitement to crustiness is too common for anybody to hope for impunity. The rule under such emergencies, for people who regard art seriously, ought to be that when they enter a parlor where this class of work is exhibited, and cannot escape without being seen, to make instant declaration of color-blindness and utter indifference to art in all shapes and grades.

If there is any young person of either sex in a condition to require the instruction of this little book, and having the intention to enter into the "china" decorating business, we have only the famous advice of *Punch* to offer—Don't; and if they *will*, to say that, while its practical directions may be followed, the chemical operations had better be performed with the aid of some work on chemistry. Such a laboratory direction as the following is only intelligible to one who does not need it: "The nitrate of bismuth is formed from the precipitation by water of a solution of bismuth in nitric acid." The illustrations are in black and white, and therefore of little use to the student in color—which is matter for rejoicing, in our way of looking at the subject.

Due West; or, Round the World in Ten Months. By M. M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

COMPILERS are not, as a rule, good authors, and the sprightly fireside traveller who invades all literature for "pearls" and "treasuries of thought" succeeds poorly when, as one of Cook's protégés, he commits his diary to print. Even the fact of a "personally conducted tour" does not in this case give sufficient reason for a book. Mr. M. M. Ballou's mosaic work is known and appreciated on drawing-room tables and in ladies' boudoirs. As a compiler he tunes young pulses to his roundelays, but he turns proser when he comes and stays with his own dreary commonplace. The three hundred and eighty seven pages of copy from his diary are solidly printed, but unrelieved by anecdote, colloquy, or other helps to mind and eye. Most of the paragraphs occupy a page, and it is a rare, very rare treat to find the monotony of small pica broken by more than two paragraphs. These, however, would be trivial criticisms, were the matter strictly in accord with fact or faithful in color. One need not expect to find excess of accuracy, as it is evident that the tourist was either unwilling or not always able to separate the fruits of previous and out-of-date reading from those of observation. Hence we find, in his sketches of the kingdoms glanced at, frequent statements of what was fact a decade ago, but is not now. Even the contents of the guide-books, reduced to pulp in his pages, are bleached of their native color; and though the author occasionally helps us to a pinch of Attic salt from his cyclopædias of quotation, we look in vain for one good honest extract from local guides, whether in flesh or in ink. One is strongly tempted to suspect that the whole manuscript of 'Due West' was finished on deck or by rail, and was substantially ready for the Riverside Press July 24, 1883, when the ten months' flying trip was over. For those who wish to compass the world between two New Year's Days, and have neither the time to do preparatory reading nor the originality to choose their own routes, the book may have value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F., jr. A College Fetich. New Edition with Supplementary Matter. Lee & Shepard.
Argyll, Duke of. The Unity of Nature. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Bates, Arlo. The Pagans. American Novel Series. No. 2. Henry Holt & Co.
Ballou, M. M. Due West, or Round the World in Ten Months. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon. 13th edition. Parts 95-100. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Buchanan, R. The New Abelard. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Carpenter, Canon W. B. My Bible. Cassell & Co. 40 cents.
Carpenter, W. L. Energy in Nature. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Cooke, J. E. Bonnybel Vane. Harper & Brothers.
Crawfurd, O. English Comic Dramatists. D. Appleton & Co.
Daryl, P. La Vie Publique en Angleterre. 2d ed. Paris: J. Hetzel et Cie.
Du Maurier, G. Pictures of English Society. From *Punch*. D. Appleton & Co.
Düntzer, H. Life of Goethe. Translated. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Eckstein, E. Prusias: A Romance of Ancient Rome under the Republic. Translated from the German by Clara Bell. 2 vols. W. S. Gottsberger.
Fleming, George. Vestigia. A novel. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Frith, H., and Allen, E. H. The Language of the Hand. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Galton, F. Life History Album. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Galton, F. Record of Family Faculties. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Gemmill, Jane W. Notes on Washington, or Six Years at the National Capital. Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co. $1.25.
George, H. Social Problems. Belford, Clarke & Co. Cloth, $1; paper, 50 cents.
Greey, E., and Saito, S., translators. The Loyal Ronins: an Historical Romance. Translated from the Japanese. Second edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Guernsey, A. H., and Davis, Dr. I. P. Health at Home. D. Appleton & Co.
Hall, G. S. Methods of Teaching History. Pedagogical Library. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.30.
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Poems from the Works of William Cullen Bryant. Series of Leaflets from Standard Authors. D. Appleton & Co.
Hunt, Prof. T. W. Caedmon's Exodus and Daniel. Edited from Grein. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
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Fine Arts.

THE ETCHING CLUB EXHIBITION.

THE collection of etchings on exhibition at the Academy in conjunction with that of the Water-Color Society, while to a certain extent marked by the same tendency to rest content with superficial success which we noted in the water colors, has the advantage of showing the work and its results in the nude simplicity of line, the faint advantage to be gained by artistic printing not carrying much weight. And the quality of the work is generally better than that of the associated exhibition; there are a few sterling works which quite justify, as achievement, the *furore* for the etching point and acid which seems to have taken the place, to a certain extent, of chalk and paper among our painters. But is not, on the whole, etching claiming in our day an importance which is out of all relation to its capability, and threatening to belittle and cheapen all line engraving to an extent dangerous to the general interest of artists? How many of the etchings now published here or in England merit, *as art*, the honor of reproduction? How many of the etchings here exhibited are worth keeping in a collection of works excellent in their kind, or have any more artistic value than a pen-and-ink sketch?

The passion for etching is an outgrowth of that morbid tendency to exalt individuality above all other qualities of art which is the vice (so it seems to us) of the painting of our time, and which is, after all, only a sort of apology for the lack of the great qualities of art which were the aim of the "old masters," who are practically the only great masters the world has seen. In the great schools of art, properly so called, we recognize more or less the individuality of the individual painter, but only in a remarkable and incisive degree that of the school. We have recently had a notable example in the "Apollo and Marsyas," which Morris Moore has sold to the Louvre as a Raphael, but which Morelli, the closest and most scientific connoisseur of the Italian schools, pronounces to be by an unknown hand, and which critics have variously attributed to painters from Timoteo Viti to Perugino—an exquisite picture certainly, but one of which no one is able to satisfy the majority of critics as to its authorship. As Morelli says, "originality was altogether differently understood in those times," and the end of ambition was to make a good picture according to the light of the day, no man fearing to resemble a greater than himself; and (all being educated from childhood to regard good drawing and painting, sound color, and harmonious composition as the end of study, and to follow in these respects whoever went beyond them, without regard to being recognized in their own pictures) the concurrent and consecutive efforts attained great and monumental art. Nowadays what is, in most painters, the end of labor, is to show their hand. What Giotto drew an O for, we paint pictures for. A man has scarcely learned the elements of his art as an amateur or student but he begins to study out some eccentricity, some peculiarity of style or manner which shall make his work distinctly to be recognized among that of his contemporaries. It is a trifling with art—exaggeration of the personal, instead of self-effacement and sinking all in the ideal of excellence of the true schools of art. A great painter will in some way stamp his name on his work, though we find that the great schools were so closely bound together that we continually have to take from one of their masters, as a result of research, the honor hitherto given him and give it to another. Nowadays the only similitudes are simulations: the counterfeiter takes the place of the pupil, and this is made all the more easy because these sought-out characteristics of individuality or originality are invariably superficial and imitable by a superficial workman. Art all the world over (less in Germany, perhaps, than elsewhere) shows honest endeavor for true excellence in the nobler qualities of art more and more giving way to eccentricities, and the *cachet* of personality sinking down to *chic*, which is simply the settling down on the lowest level (dead level, too) of this morbid originality. Only when we have a standard of art which shall make affectations of originality in art as absurd as we know them in conduct, shall we be able to eradicate the vice of eccentricity, which is simply the vanity of art.

And this is the tendency on which etching rests its new-born enthusiasms. At its best etching can never compare with the work of properly trained line engravers in the expression of the highest qualities of art. Imagine the Madonna di San Sisto in etching! It is in the picturesque qualities that it shows its best points, but even there line engraving includes it, and that point alone in which it seems to be supreme is in the autographic quality—that which in its exaggeration is the vice of modern painting. There is no question of the fascination of etching and etchings, but is it on the whole a gain either that we should have etchings instead of engravings of the greatest even of modern works, not autographic; or that the rank and file of painters and designers should fire at us their volleys of reduplications of work which is only tolerable as study of incomplete and struggling aspiration? When art runs into fads we need have no doubt that it is the vogue and not art that is in question. If we are not ready to say that we are sorry to see so many etchings in this exhibition, we can frankly say that we are sorry to see so many that have no evidence of sincere study or other aim than to give permanence to a study which at best ought to be merely tentative.

Good work, and honest in every sense of the word, and distinguishable mainly by its excellence and the masterly precision and accentuation of its leading lines, is Mr. Moran's "Apple Orchard," No. 136, the drawing of the tree forms of which is equal to any commendation we could give it, and the qualities of nature aimed at in which are those which etching can best render, and for which in line engraving it would be naturally employed. Mr. Moran's other exhibits have the same quality of distinct accentuation of those lines which indicate the most important facts, but they are less fortunate in the subject, except the Tower of Cortez, which we have noticed in its place in the volume to which it belongs. There are some etchings by Mrs. Moran which are remarkably like those of Mr. Moran, but the difference is at once perceived when one sees in the work of the lady long wandering lines which seem to have no particular relation to any form, but to have been put in from idleness. Any leading line which has not a definite meaning in relation to facts of nature or the composition of the subject, is evidence of weak draughtsmanship or want of purpose. "Under the Sassafras Trees" is, except for the weakness, good work, if not to be placed in the same category as that of Mr. Moran.

There is in the etchings from Rembrandt by James S. King, No. 74, and No. 75 from Hals, some of the best work in the exhibition. The success of the artist in rendering the subtle modelling and refinement of character in the light of the flesh and the clearness of shadow, in which no form is lost, go as near to giving the qualities of line engraving as any etching we can recall, and may be taken as of the very best form of etching in which, if not in engraving proper, we may be content to have great work reproduced. The "Vesper Hour," although giving the impression that the picture owes more to the etching than ought to be the case, is an admirable work, with a notably right method and excellent qualities of tone. The light and shade of the group of figures, its happy massing and large gradation, and the luminousness of the shadows, are most remarkable in so large a work. Mr. King may be confidently looked forward to as an example to our younger students who want to see what etching ought to be.

Mr. Farrar's etchings after drawings which we were able to praise so unreservedly in the water-color rooms, show that the artist does not distinguish the qualities which belong to black and white and those which are given in color. The etching of the "Sunset," No. 56, which is a reproduction of a twilight effect with a golden and glowing sky—a successful drawing in all its attempts, *i. e.*, tone and broad sunset effect—is singularly ineffective and unsubstantial. The reason is simple: the artist has attempted to translate directly as black and white a drawing whose brilliancy is due to color, without any of the compensation which the loss of color makes necessary. The white and black must be reënforced in such cases, and the tone translated into terms which shall give the etching the force of the original. This is characteristic of all Mr. Farrer's etched work, and it is not explicable until one sees the drawing and the etching from it together.

Very good renderings of broad white and black effect are Mr. Gifford's "Edge of an Orchard," No. 63, and J. H. Hill's "Evening" No. 69, and a twilight study "Evening," by E. F. Miller, No. 100. "Old Willow Trunks," No. 103, by E. H. Miller, is good study, and Mr. Monks's sheep studies, especially No. 122, are better even than his water-color drawings of the same subjects. Mr. Champney's No. 20, "Shy," is straightforward, good work. Mr. Van Elten has a number of etchings which are to the first sight very taking, and lack but little to be thoroughly good. What they do lack is, however, apparently beyond the artist's perception, *i. e.*, a larger treatment of his masses, and breadth in his light and shade. When an etcher attempts light and shade effects he must keep his masses broad and simple or he only gives the effect of unsubstantiality to his landscape and flimsiness to his etching. The best of his contributions is No. 213, "Glimpses of the Lake." Benjamin Lander's "Among the Daisies," No. 78, is a well-studied etching, and some of Mr. Pennell's contributions are singularly picturesque, but with great inequalities. The "Venetian Telegraph Office" is the most satisfactory as a whole, being very delicate in its architectural lines, and having less of that vague, meaningless scrawling in the foreground which so often mars his work. Mr. Pennell has yet to learn that a line that means nothing is a line out of place. His distant shadows are too often devoid of the gradation which every distance has, and come up with an exaggeration of strength which destroys their own value; the quality of a distant shadow does not lie in its depth, but in its sharpness and flatness. J. D. Smillie's "Fontarabia" street scene, No. 196, is right in purpose and well put into black and white, and Shirlaw's etching of the heads in "The Reprimand" is admirable in the delicacy of modelling and intensity of expression. Of Mr. Parrish and some others we have spoken fully elsewhere. The foreign work is in some respects exemplary, but we confess to a heretical irreverence for work like that of Seymour Haden and Whistler even, whose best qualities are not art qualities, but those of etching. We are sufficiently indifferent to the *chic* of etching to prefer Mr. Moran's work to Mr. Haden's, and Mr. King's to Mr. Whistler's. The etchings from J. F. Millet by Dollet, Nos. 43 and 44, show excellently, with great vigor and artistic quality, the relative value of etching and engraving. If these etchings are to remain such, they are simply good reproductions of the main motive of the pictures; if a preparation for engraving, they are all they need be; but to suppose that they represent Millet's pictures as they now are, is not to know his art.

Laguillermie's rendering of two pictures (of which one, after Munkacsy, would to our mind be more desirable, if unique, than Munkacsy's painting) gives almost, if not quite, all that we can hope for in this vein of picture reproduction. Mr. C. O. Murray, in "Music O'er the Sea," No. 140, will teach (if they will learn) some of our etchers how to etch water as well as to model a head, for the bargeman's head is scarcely less fine in its modelling than if it were in line, and the sky and distance are exquisite. The little girl's head, however, shows how far from certain even so good an etcher is of the delicacy of gradation needed for flesh. Martial's "Cancalaises" needs no commendation. It and he are well known, and among pure etching this is a leading work. Besides the sky of Mr. Murray's "Music," we should like to call the attention of our younger etchers to the sky in Johnson's "Ravine of the Thieves," No. 73, as they can see the difference between honest cloud drawing and random scratches across the sky to express something, somehow. Two etchings by Corot may enforce the difference between flimsy work and subtle, between a light hand and a careless one.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 6, 1884.

The Week.

THE decision of the Supreme Court as to the validity of the reissued legal tenders finally settles the question as to the control of Congress over the currency, and any settlement is better than such a state of doubt and uncertainty as has prevailed since the close of the war. The most singular thing about the decision is that it is nearly unanimous—Judge Field alone writing a dissenting opinion—although in 1870 the court decided, by a vote of five to three, that Congress had no constitutional power to make its notes legal tender in the payment of preëxisting debts. A change in the composition of the court resulted next year in a reversal of this decision by a bare majority, but four judges still maintained that the legal-tender acts were unconstitutional. The decision of the judges who supported the constitutionality of the acts was made to turn then upon the "war power"; that is, the power of Congress when the country is at war to do whatever is necessary to make war effective; but it was never clearly explained, either by these judges or by any of their supporters, how forcing creditors to take its notes from their debtors at par when they were quoted in the markets of the country at less than par, made it at all easier to put down the rebellion. The "war power" could not be introduced into the present case at all, because the notes on which it turned were received, under the act of 1878, in time of profound peace. The court has accordingly given up any attempt to resort to it at all, and rests the legal-tender acts solely upon the power to "borrow money" in time of peace as well as in war. The question when and how far the power ought to be exercised is "a political question, to be determined by Congress when the question of exigency arises, and not a judicial question to be afterwards passed upon by the courts."

Those who recall the early history of the legal-tender controversy will see at once that the judges, in their determination to uphold the acts, have reversed in a curious way the reasoning by which they were originally maintained. The real reason why the court originally resorted to the "war power" was because it was so strongly urged by most constitutional lawyers that the power to "borrow money" did *not* include the power to issue legal-tender notes. As the notes in this case were issued in time of peace, the court has now had to fall back on the very support which the judges then rejected as plainly too weak for reliance. The system of construction adopted in this case is one which weakens the court itself, and enlarges the power of Congress, and makes a long stride in the direction of centralization. The court insists upon the fact that Congress may, under the Constitution, pass all laws which are "necessary and proper" for "carrying into execution" its expressly granted powers; but this circumstance does not really strengthen their position, for this clause has never, from the foundation of the Government, been held to enlarge any of the powers expressly granted. Any further discussion of the power of Congress to make legal-tender notes would be a waste of time, but it is certainly not a waste of time to call attention to the fact that the court, in remitting the whole matter to Congress by this very latitudinarian system of construction, is really in so far abdicating the protection of private rights and private property against the encroachments of the Legislature.

It seems to be generally acknowledged in Massachusetts, as well as elsewhere, that the Boston Reform Club was rather too hasty in proposing a conference of "Liberal reformers" to nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. Nothing is more necessary to a new party than a perfectly distinct conception of its wants. It is not enough to feel uncomfortable or discontented. The wisdom of waiting to see what the Democrats and Republicans will do, we believe, commends itself thoroughly to Independents in this State at least, and will certainly commend itself to their calmer judgment in every State. This waiting policy, too, is the best means of getting good nominations from one or other if not both of the conventions. The managing men on both sides are just now passing through a period of great perplexity, and we must be very patient with them. The problem before them is to satisfy "the boys" without offending the Independents, and it is one of enormous difficulty, the Independents have since 1882 become so haughty and exacting. The complete disappearance of the old ridicule of them from the party organs is one sign of the times which indicates a great deal. There is an evident disposition, indeed, on the part of even the most practical of the politicians "to pander," as the late Fernando Wood is reported to have once said, "to honesty and efficiency."

The President has made a change in the Pension Agency at Philadelphia which is a more flagrant violation of civil-service reform principles than the Biglin appointment was in this city. General Horatio G. Sickel, a soldier with an honorable record, has been Pension Agent at Philadelphia for twelve years. He has managed the office on strict business principles, and with such ability and efficiency as to command the approbation of all classes except the "boys." He took no active part in politics, and refused to "run" the office in the interest of the Quay-Cameron Machine. His continuance in office was warmly recommended by Senator Mitchell, by a majority of the Pennsylvania Congressional delegation, and by all the respectable citizens of Philadelphia. Against him were the "boys," who demanded the bestowal of the place upon one of their own number, John M. Vanderslice, who seems to have many of the qualifications for political position which are peculiar to the Johnnies of this latitude. Only one view of the appointment is held in Philadelphia and at Washington. The correspondent of the Philadelphia *Times* says it is universally regarded as evidence that the President "has entered into a contract with the Machine in Pennsylvania" by which the delegation is to be made solid for him. One of the Philadelphia Congressmen says the appointment could be paralleled in New York only by the removal of Mr. Pearson as Postmaster and the appointment of Barney Biglin in his place. Senator Mitchell and Judge Kelley are particularly indignant about it, and will make every effort to defeat confirmation in the Senate.

The only business event of importance during the week has been the virtual breakdown of the "bull movement" in stocks. This movement was mainly artificial, being no hing else than the desperate endeavor of a few large operators to draw the public into a speculation for an advance. It has failed completely, and the result has been an average decline of two and a half points during the week, following upon a decline of about two points in the previous week. Lackawanna has been an exception, having been "cornered" on Saturday to the great sorrow of the bears. It is one of the few properties selling at a higher price to-day than the quotation of one year ago. Gold to the amount of $3,500,000 in double-eagles has been drawn out of the Sub-Treasury, and it was for some days a puzzle to the Street what had become of it, since only $2,100,000 appeared in the treasure lists of outgoing steamers or in the inland shipments of the express companies. It was ascertained subsequently that it had been taken by certain drawers of sterling exchange in anticipation of their requirements. They seem to have apprehended that the Treasury might interpose some obstacles to their getting double-eagles, which are the only sort of coin that can be exported at a profit at the present rates of exchange. It should be stated that the Treasury has not exercised any arbitrary powers whatsoever in the premises, but has been administered upon the most enlightened principles. Business failures for the week are rather more numerous than during the preceding week, the figures being 237 against 218. The difference may be ascribed to the holiday which came in the previous week. General trade has been rather more sluggish than last week, but the best judges attribute the slackening to the extremely bad weather which has prevailed everywhere.

The bill reported by the Public Lands Committee of the House to forfeit all the lands of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company not earned prior to July 1, 1879, bears the evident marks of buncombe. It has been judicially established that in a case where a railway, endowed with a land grant, has failed of completion within the prescribed time, the grant continues good until Congress declares a forfeiture. The grant remaining in force, it follows that whatever might be done if the time

had not expired may still be done—that is, that the company may go on building and earning the lands and acquiring title thereto, and that the Executive departments of the Government must perform the same duties that they would have been obliged to perform if the time had not expired. These duties are merely clerical, consisting in the appointment of commissioners to examine the road from time to time, as new sections are built, and in the issue of certificates for the corresponding lands. The law provides that the certificates shall convey the title. It provides in some cases — we do not know whether the Northern Pacific case is one of them—that the title shall be conveyed in no other way. Land patents are not necessary to secure titles. It was shown conclusively, in the discussion of these questions two years ago, that the General Land Office and the Interior Department had strenuously resisted and opposed this interpretation of the law, and had sought to declare forfeitures on their own motion until overruled by the Supreme Court, since when they had followed the decisions of that tribunal as construed from time to time by the Attorney-General. It should be added that the Department has regularly brought all these facts to the attention of Congress, in order that forfeitures might be declared, if deemed requisite, by the only power in the Government capable of enforcing them.

Years have rolled on under this state of facts, and some sixty millions of dollars have been invested on the faith of the law and the decisions and the practice of the Government. The parties furnishing the bulk of the money are bondholders in no wise interested in the Northern Pacific as a speculation. The road has been completed as a through-line, and has thus far disappointed the expectations of the builders. Regarded as a money-making venture, it is not calculated to excite envy, and it may well be doubted whether any political party or any Congressman has anything to gain in the way of popularity by striking it when it is down. The preferred stock of the company, which was paid for in cash at par more than ten years ago, is now worth less than fifty cents on the dollar. Under such circumstances the bill to forfeit all the lands not earned prior to July 1, 1879 —that is, all lands not earned up to the time of the Jay Cooke failure, when work substantially ceased — cannot be esteemed either good law or good demagogy. Under the decisions of the Supreme Court its effect, if passed by Congress and approved by the President, would be merely to forfeit the lands flanking those portions of the line still uncompleted, viz., the Columbia River, Cascade, and Wisconsin branches.

The House Committee on Inter-State Commerce have seen fit to report a bill (much more reasonable, indeed, than the Reagan bill) which seeks to prohibit pools and combinations among railways. It has been sufficiently proved in the past, by the steady and almost unvarying decline in railway charges, especially on lines of traffic where the greatest amount of attention is given to the art of "pooling," that no such legislation is needed to bring about minimum rates for transportation—that is, the lowest rates consistent with cost of hauling, maintenance, and a moderate rate of interest on the capital actually invested. There is nothing more certain in the book of fate than that railway competition will yield the same harvest of low profits or no profits that competition in other trades has produced and always tends to produce —and this too, in spite of the best efforts of the ablest pool commissioners. When new capital comes crowding the market for investment its first impulse is toward railway building, because hitherto the largest fortunes have been made in that field. It looks about for some line of traffic where it is known or believed that "stock-watering" has been practised to an unwarrantable extent. It reasons that here must be a chance for profit because a new road can be built for much less than the nominal cost of the old one. The new road is built, it is taken into the pool, the profits of the combination are so reduced that cutting of rates begins, and the force of competition reasserts itself. But even if the pool can maintain itself and prevent rate-cutting, it will have learned by experience that it is only by doing business at the lowest rates possible that additional railways can be kept out and further and more disastrous competition prevented. The proposed legislation will probably prove futile when the attempt is made to enforce it. In the long run it will be found to be unnecessary, as regards its main purpose of securing the lowest attainable rates of transportation.

Mr. Henry C. Lea, of Philadelphia, in a letter to the *Tribune* published on Saturday, complains of Professor Lounsbury for failing to consider and discuss his suggestion that the Dorsheimer bill may be made satisfactory to everybody by embodying in it "the principle recognized in all copyright laws forbidding the importation of all books covered by copyright—*with the simple extension that no license shall be held to permit such importation.*" We have had no communication with Professor Lounsbury on the subject, but we think we can tell Mr. Lea why he refuses to discuss the suggestion, and this is because the principle to which Mr. Lea refers is intended to protect *authors*, and he proposes to pervert it so as to protect manufacturers. The author may now either allow or prevent the importation of foreign editions of his book, at his pleasure; the change proposed is to take away his right to make the choice, in the interest of the manufacturer; and this is what Mr. Lea calls *extending* the principle of copyright.

The old Tory squire who corresponds with the *Tribune* from London has evidently been thrown into a very nervous condition by the dynamite explosions. He says the language of the English press "shows signs of reaching the limits of patience," and that, "in private, Englishmen of known friendship are asking whether that country really means to persevere in giving refuge to Irish scoundrels and license to Irish crime until Europe, unjustly or justly, shall come to regard America as the Alsatia of Christendom." There is a want of clearness in this which is unworthy of a Justice of the Peace, which the writer probably is. He must know that "signs" that English newspapers are going to use strong language, are not likely to be alarming in America, where newspapers use strong language all the time, without any dynamite at all. The squire himself often gets to "the limits of patience" in his writing without rousing or frightening anybody. When his friends ask him, too, whether America is going to "persevere" in all those dreadful things, he should remind them that they are begging the question; that it has still to be proved that the country is "giving refuge to Irish scoundrels" and "license to Irish crime," in some other way than by gabble at dinner-tables. If they then persist in regarding America as "the Alsatia of Christendom," we would advise the squire simply to change the subject. An "Alsatia of Christendom" is something too dreadful to talk about long at a time.

No one disputes for a moment the general principle that it is the duty of our Government to prevent the use of its territory for the purpose of making attacks upon the Government or citizens of England; and it is not open to us, after the *Alabama* controversy, to put in as a defence that we have not laws which enable us to do this. If we have not, Congress has got to pass them, or else to take the consequences. This was the rule that we compelled England to adopt, and she paid us $15,500,000 for violating it. But the difficulty with dynamite raids is a purely practical one. In the case of an armed expedition, like a Fenian raid in Canada, or the fitting out of a Cuban privateer, overt acts have to be committed in this country. Men have to be enlisted, uniformed, equipped, fed, and paid; provisions, arms, and material have to be bought, and in the case of a ship she has to get out of port. When a plot of this sort is on foot, nothing is easier than for our Government to furnish evidence of what is doing, and if the evidence is sufficient, the ship's arms and materials can be seized, and the men locked up in jail. But in the case of dynamite no such process is possible. One man in a "hall bed-room" can hatch a plot to blow up the Queen and the whole royal family, which cannot be detected and which cannot be punished. To carry it out, all he has to do is to get a little can of nitroglycerine, sail for England, and watch his chance. No law here can prevent this. No overt act is committed here at all, and we cannot possibly be called upon to make it an international crime for an American citizen to purchase nitroglycerine for use against life and property in England. But if we were called upon, and if we did pass it, how could it be executed? It could not be carried into effect without the provision by Congress of a national system of inspection of the manufacture and sale of all explosives, and domiciliary searches for persons suspected of having explosives in their possession. Any attempt to enforce such a law would be at once contested in the courts on constitutional grounds by the persons whose business was affected by it, who would maintain that it

was an intrusion by Congress into the ordinary State jurisdiction over crimes against person and property.

The new Franchise Bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone will be better understood by recalling the statutes under which the present system of representation exists. The Reform Bill of 1832 admitted to the franchise all possessors of land of the annual value of £10, the owners of leases of sixty years of the annual rental value of £50, freeholders of the value of forty shillings, in counties, and the tenants of lands paying a rent of £50 per annum. But the owner of a freehold within a township was excluded from voting in the county in respect of the same property. In Scotland the franchise was actually the creation of the Reform Bill. Three classes were included: First, owners of property worth £10 per annum. Second, tenants on any of the old leases of "three nineteen years" who had a proprietary interest in a lease worth £10 per annum. Third, tenants in occupancy, paying a rent of £50 per annum, or who had paid a "grassum" or fine of £300 as consideration for the lease. In Ireland the two-pound franchise founded on occupancy was abolished, and in lieu of it the bill instituted a two-pound franchise, if supported by copyhold or other property, a ten-pound yearly interest on a lease of sixty years, or a twenty-pound lease of twenty years. From 1832 to 1867 no material change was made in the representation, but in that year Mr. Disraeli made his famous "leap in the dark." "That bill enfranchised in boroughs," says Mr. McCarthy, "all male householders rated for the relief of the poor, and all lodgers resident for one year paying not less than £10 a year rent; and in counties persons owning property of the clear annual rental of £5, and occupants of lands paying £12 a year." The bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone, on Thursday night, puts the three kingdoms on one footing. The £50 rating is abolished, and in place of it the lodger franchise is now extended to counties. An entirely new feature is the "service" franchise. Formerly laborers and agricultural servants residing in their employers' cottages and paying no rent were excluded from rating. These Mr. Gladstone for the first time brings within the English representation. It will be observed that the bill proceeds on the lines of former acts, cutting down existing limits, and introducing but few novelties beyond the "service franchise."

The policy of the English Ministry is, as was clearly foreshadowed by General Gordon, to hold the Red Sea coast, so as to stop the export of slaves to Arabia proper, which is the chief market for the African traders. For this purpose, the possession of Suakim, if not other ports, as well as a rigid maritime patrol, will be necessary. This, too, furnishes really the chief, if not the only, justification for the slaughter of the unfortunate Sudanese by General Graham. They have persisted in besetting the coast towns, which the British are determined to keep, and had been led by the triumph over the Egyptian troops to overestimate their strength. Apart from their desire to start the slave trade again, their cause is as good a one as has ever been defended in arms. They have been conquered and shamefully misgoverned by a worthless government, and one cannot help admiring the gallantry with which they have laid down their lives, and sympathizing in some degree with the feeling which dictated Sir Wilfrid Lawson's attack on the Ministry on Monday. The butchery of these poor spearmen was undoubtedly sorry work for Mr. Gladstone's Government, and yet —so true is it in politics, as well as in morals, that it is the beginnings which are dangerous —having taken Egypt in hand, there was no way of avoiding it.

The obstinacy of the Arab resistance to General Graham on Friday was of course largely due to ignorance of what the breech-loader can do in the hands of resolute and disciplined men. The Arabs were justified by their experience of the Egyptian troops in supposing that they could break the British square with spears and sabres. They had never until then encountered any other regulars. But the lesson they have now received will probably last them a good while. The fearful slaughter among them and the small loss on the British side show how little they amount to as a fighting force, and how absurd have been the fears that the Mahdi would lead them out of the Sudan to invade Egypt proper, or, as some have suggested, to overrun Europe. Even General Stone's recently expressed anxiety about the Bulak Museum at Cairo becomes, in the light of Friday's fight, somewhat comic reading. There is not the smallest reason to suppose that the Mahdi's own troops differ in any way from those of his lieutenant, Osman Digma. No fanaticism can make a naked body stop a rifle ball.

The workingmen of Lyons, France, have a representative in the Chamber of Deputies, M. Brialou, who has gone to the bottom of the protective tariff, and we commend his discovery to the committee of the iron and steel manufacturers and iron-ore producers who sent their remonstrance against the Morrison bill to the Committee of Ways and Means on Saturday. The reason why French labor is depressed, says M. Brialou, is because foreign labor is employed so extensively in France. Italians and Germans crowd the manufactories and besiege the doors of public works departments, offering to work for less wages than the French operative requires to maintain himself and his family in the scale of comfort and decency to which he is accustomed. The foreigners are taking the bread out of his mouth. M. Brialou is not an extremist. He does not ask that immigration be prohibited, but he thinks it is perfectly fair to demand that a law be passed prohibiting the employment of more than 10 per cent. of foreigners in the public works prosecuted by the state, or the departments or municipal corporations. As regards the manufactures carried on by the state, he would have foreigners excluded altogether. As regards private manufactures, he merely points out that foreigners are not only taking work out of French hands, but sending the money they get out of the country. Arguments very like these were heard in California in support of the Anti-Chinese Bill. Why they are not equally applicable to the Atlantic seaboard, we fail to perceive.

The German Liberals of every shade of opinion seem to be indignant over the action of Prince Bismarck in the Lasker matter, and the Executive Committee of the Liberal Union have signed an address of thanks to the House of Representatives in Washington for the passage of the resolution. Unfortunately, however, Bismarck is to remain in power, no matter what the Liberals think about him, and it is with him that our diplomatic intercourse has to be carried on. This raises the question of the expediency of keeping Mr Sargent at his post in Berlin. No one here questions the fidelity and efficiency with which he has discharged his duties, but ever since the State Department committed the very great indiscretion of publishing his despatch about the motives of the German hostility to American pork, he has been an object of dislike on the part of the ruling and official class in Berlin. This would not be of any consequence, or in fact would tell in his favor, if ambassadors were intended to be messengers of defiance, or semi-military vedettes. They are, however, meant to be messengers of peace and goodwill, who represent their country in its friendly and conciliatory attitude. When a minister's presence ceases for any cause, reasonable or unreasonable, to be grateful to the Government to which he is accredited, his usefulness is at an end, and he ought to be recalled. This is really the predicament in which Mr. Sargent stands. His presence is apparently an irritant to Bismarck and his set. This is very unfortunate, but there is no help for it, and there is only one remedy.

European Governments, which make diplomacy a regular branch of the public service, in which places are permanent, get over such difficulties very easily. When a Minister for any reason becomes obnoxious to the Government to which he is accredited, they transfer him to another post, and, if his conduct has met with their approval, to a better one than that which he leaves. They thus both vindicate and reward him, while putting an end to the difficulty which compelled his withdrawal. We are unfortunately unable to settle such cases in this way. When an American Minister gets into trouble, and has to be removed, no matter how blameless or praiseworthy his conduct may have been, he really has to be dismissed from the service. In other words, we have to inflict on him, if a poor man, a very heavy penalty. This naturally leads Ministers to whom the salary is of importance often to hold on to their places after their usefulness has ceased, and makes the State Department very slow to recall them, even "under fire." We say even under fire, because whatever might have been said for the old "fire" rule, under which so many unworthy persons were kept in office in President Grant's day in the home service of the Government, it is absolutely inapplicable to the diplomatic service, for the reasons we have already given.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 27, to TUESDAY, March 4, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President sent to Congress on Friday the first report of the Civil Service Commissioners, accompanied by a message in which he said: "Upon the good results which that law has already accomplished, I congratulate Congress and the people, and I avow my conviction that it will henceforth prove to be of still more signal benefit to the public service. I heartily commend the zeal and fidelity of the Commissioners and their suggestions for further legislation, and I advise the making of such an appropriation as shall be adequate for their needs." The report, after reviewing the work of the Commission, concludes: "We cannot doubt that the most difficult stage is passed. But it will require some years of careful study and prudent adjustment to carry into full effect the practical methods authorized by the Civil-Service Act. The clerical force of the Commission, however, is inadequate. It has been worked beyond the customary hours of the departments. At least one additional clerk seems indispensable. In submitting this report it is proper for the Commission to declare that in every stage of its work it has had the constant and unwavering support of the President."

The President on Saturday transmitted to the House of Representatives the report of the commission appointed to examine into the condition of the swine product of this country. The Secretary of State, in a communication on the subject says, the report shows conclusively that hog cholera is not present in meat packed for human food, and in no event is the disease communicable to human beings. As to trichinosis the report is less conclusive, because less is certainly known of the manner in which the living trichinæ or their germs are transmitted. He advises further investigation on this point.

The House bill repealing the test oath was passed by the Senate on Wednesday, after being amended so that no person who held a commission in the United States army before the war and was afterward engaged in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, shall be appointed to any position in the army or navy of the United States.

The Senate on Friday passed a bill to increase the navy, by a vote of 38 yeas to 13 nays. It authorizes the President to direct the construction of seven steel vessels, consisting of one cruiser of 4,500 tons displacement, one cruiser of 3,000 tons, one despatch vessel of 1,500 tons, two heavily-armed gunboats of 1,500 tons each, one light gunboat of 750 tons, and one gunboat not to exceed 900 tons; also, of one steel ram, one cruising torpedo-boat, and two harbor torpedo-boats.

The Senate on Monday passed bills appropriating more than $3,000,000 for public buildings in various cities.

The Senate Committee on Public Lands on Monday decided in favor of the forfeiture of the Texas-Pacific territorial land grant assigned to the Southern Pacific Railroad Company.

The House Committee on Public Lands on Wednesday voted to declare a forfeiture of all lands granted to the Northern Pacific Railroad, except as to that part of the road which was completed before July 4, 1879, and except all lands that have been patented to the road, and also lands which may have been occupied and improved by actual settlers.

At a meeting of the eight Democratic members of the Ways and Means Committee of the House on Thursday, it was unanimously agreed to report a substitute for the Morrison Tariff Bill. The substitute is identical with that bill, except that the free list is confined to salt, coal, and lumber.

The House Committee on Commerce, on Friday, agreed to an Inter-State Commerce Bill, the basis of which is the bill of Mr. Stewart, of Vermont. The chief changes are that the provisions of the Reagan bill which absolutely prohibit pooling and rebates are adopted.

Mr. Morrison, from the Ways and Means Committee, presented an important privileged resolution to the House on Wednesday. It called upon the Secretary of the Treasury to inform the House how much money there is in the Treasury; under what provisions of law it is retained, and how much, in view of existing liabilities, can be applied at this time to the payment of the public debt without embarrassment to the department. The resolution was adopted. It is undoubtedly intended to be used in connection with the tariff and refunding bills.

The Postal Appropriation Bill, as reported to the House by Mr. Randall's committee, appropriates only $45,261,000 of the $50,000,000 asked for by the Postmaster-General. It cuts down the estimate for letter-carriers and the free-delivery system by $200,000. The Postmaster-General asked for $12,750,000 for inland transportation. Mr. Randall's committee cuts it down to $11,700,000. This endangers the fast mail service in all parts of the country.

The German-American Congressmen presented the resolutions on the Lasker incident from the Liberal members of the German Parliament in the House on Wednesday, and, after a brief debate, which was more temperate than had been expected, the resolutions were referred unanimously to the Foreign Affairs Committee. The bill to prevent the spread of pleuro-pneumonia in cattle was passed by the House by a vote of 155 to 137.

The Hewitt-West incident has been passed over by the House without notice. The Foreign Affairs Committee reported on Wednesday that they had been unable to obtain any information upon the subject, and asked to be excused from a further investigation.

The Shipping Committee of the House, on Monday, by a vote of 7 to 3, authorized ex-Governor Dingley to report favorably the Pilotage Bill, which authorizes the master and mates of any American sailing vessel to be examined and licensed by the United States inspectors to pilot their own vessels.

By a vote of 227 to 46 the House decided on Monday that every person who served sixty days in the Mexican war should receive a pension of eight dollars a month.

A decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States on Monday in the long pending legal-tender case of Juilliard vs. Greenman. The Court holds that the Legal-Tender Act of March 31, 1878, is valid and Constitutional, and that Treasury notes reissued under it are a good and legal tender in payment of all debts. Justice Gray gave the opinion.

The decrease of the public debt during February was $2,582,587.

Mr. W. H. Hunt, United States Minister to Russia, died in St. Petersburg on Wednesday. He was a native of South Carolina, but spent most of his life in Louisiana, where he rose to eminence as a lawyer. President Hayes appointed him one of the Judges of the Court of Claims, a position which he held when called to President Garfield's Cabinet as Secretary of the Navy. When President Arthur reorganized his Cabinet, Mr. Hunt was sent to Russia as Minister to succeed Mr. Foster. Public funeral services were held in St. Petersburg on Tuesday. The body will eventually be brought to this country.

The New York Republican State Committee met in this city on Tuesday, and decided that the State Convention should be called to meet at Utica on April 23. A resolution was passed recommending that the district delegates to the next Republican National Convention be elected by conventions in the respective Congressional districts.

Governor Cleveland on Monday morning signed the Comstock bill prohibiting the making of further contracts for the labor of convicts in the State's prisons and penitentiaries of this State. He returned to the Assembly that evening the bill extending the time of the Howe Prison Commission, with a message giving reasons why the bill did not receive his signature.

The Finance Committee of the State Senate on Wednesday recommended an appropriation of $1,000,000 for work on the State Capitol at Albany for the ensuing year.

In the Assembly the bill making it mandatory upon local authorities to carry out the provisions of the State Civil-Service law was reported favorably from the Cities Committee. It was made a special order for Tuesday. The bill making a reduction of twenty-five per cent. on the present pilotage fees was passed—ayes, 82; noes, 21.

The proposed amendment to the Constitution of the State, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of spirituous and intoxicating liquors, was rejected by the Assembly on Thursday by a vote of 61 to 63. Eight Democrats voted with the Republicans in the affirmative, and seventeen Republicans with the Democrats in the negative.

The Roosevelt bill, taking the confirming power from the Aldermen of this city, was favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Thursday by a vote of 6 to 1.

In the Assembly on Tuesday Mr. Roosevelt unexpectedly received a two-thirds vote in favor of making the High-License Bill a special order for one week from next Thursday. The prospect for the passage of the bill is, however, not promising.

The time for holding the New Jersey Republican State Convention at Trenton has been changed to April 17.

The New Jersey Assembly destroyed on Wednesday the efficacy of the Civil Rights Bill passed by the Senate several weeks ago, by striking out the specifications of hotels, restaurants, and theatres as places in which colored persons should enjoy the same privileges as white persons, and by reducing the penalties for violation of the law to such small sums that a colored person would hardly take the trouble to bring suit for them.

The Faculty at Amherst College have voted not to endorse the resolutions on inter-collegiate athletics.

John Guy Vassar has given $10,000 for the benefit of the cabinets of physical and chemical apparatus in the Vassar Brothers' laboratory at Vassar College.

Mrs. Mary Brown, widow of John Brown, the abolitionist, died on Friday in San Francisco. She was married to him in 1833, when in her eighteenth year.

Governor Richard D. Hubbard, of Connecticut, died in Hartford on Thursday morning. He was born in 1818 and was graduated from Yale College in 1839. Adopting the profession of law, he gained distinction in it, and for twenty years was State Attorney for Hartford County. He was elected to Congress in 1867, and was made Governor of Connecticut by the Democrats in 1876. During the war he was a stanch Unionist, and his views on civil-service reform and other public questions of the present day have been such as to command the respect of both political parties.

The chemical works of Powers & Weightman, in Philadelphia, the largest in the country, were burned early on Friday morning. The loss was more than $1,000,000, on which there was an insurance of about $500,000. The firm were manufacturers of large quantities of quinine, the wholesale price of which was affected by the fire.

A fire in Utica, on Sunday, destroyed property valued at about $1,000,000. The Utica City

National Bank and the *Observer* office were among the buildings destroyed.

FOREIGN.

The advance of the English troops on Teb began on Wednesday. Two hundred and fifty men were left to garrison Trinkitat, and a force of about 3,900 men advanced to the attack. On Thursday night the expedition encamped near Fort Baker. On Friday morning the troops advanced to battle. The forces were formed in an oblong square. The Gordon Highlanders in line formed the advance, with two Gatling guns and one Gardiner in the right corner, and two Gardiners and one Gatling in the left corner. The Eighty-ninth Regiment in line formed the right-hand side of the square, the Black Watch Regiment the rear. The length of the front was 350 yards. The rebels in swarms occupied the high ground in front and on the flanks of the British army. They retired slowly, as the English advanced, keeping within about 1,200 yards of the main body of the English forces. After an advance of three miles had been made the earthworks of the rebels came in sight, and the British troops advanced to within 800 yards of the position. The rebels opened the battle with a shell from a Krupp gun and followed it up with a fulisade from small arms. Baker Pasha was wounded in the face by a piece of shell and twenty British were hit. They kept on their advance, and at noon opened fire with guns and rifles. The rebel fire slackened, and the British advanced upon the works. The defenders held their position desperately, and charged upon the British with their spears, but fell in great numbers, and the line sullenly retired. Having cleared the ground in front, the British attacked Fort Burnaby, and carried it after a desperate fight, the Arabs contesting every inch. The British then stormed a brick building, and at 1 o'clock the rebels bolted, the Gatling guns and Martini rifles creating great havoc among them. The English forces advanced to the fresh-water well at Teb, where the rebels made their last stand. After four hours of arduous fighting the British gained possession of the rebels' camp. The cavalry charged the slowly retreating rebels. General Graham decided to pass the night at the Teb Wells. The losses were: about 2,000 rebels killed, 24 British killed, and 142 wounded.

The British troops entered Tokar at noon on Saturday. A few shots were exchanged with the enemy, when the 4,000 rebels holding the town fled. The garrison numbered seventy men who were half starved. The remainder had joined the rebels. Osman Digma is encamped near Suakim. A battle with him is expected when the British troops return to Suakim from Tokar. General Graham will have the troops embark at Trinkitat and return to Suakim, as the latter place is the best base for operations against Osman Digma. General Graham, leaving a battalion to garrison Fort Baker, will order the troops to embark on Thursday. The operations against Osman Digma will not extend beyond Tamanieb.

The London *Times* on Monday asserted that General Graham had been ordered to retreat immediately from Tokar, and to arrange for the return of the British troops to England and Egypt. Earl Granville, Foreign Secretary, positively denied the rumor in the House of Lords. His statement was received with loud cheers.

A lively scene occurred in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon. Questions were put to the Government regarding the condition of affairs in Egypt which the Government refused to answer, whereupon great excitement arose. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Radical, moved that the House adjourn in order to discuss the Sudan problem. He made a violent attack upon the Government, charging it with cowardice, blood-guiltiness, butchery, and Jingoism. The motion was rejected by a vote of 103 to 105.

The Egyptian Government, feeling convinced that General Gordon's mission would fail, offered on Sunday to Abd-el-Kader Pasha, Minister of War, under the sanction of Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Minister, the Governorship of Khartum. Abd-el-Kader Pasha refused to accept the office, however, unless General Gordon should assent.

General Gordon's latest proclamation to the inhabitants of the Sudan asserts that, as he has done everything possible to insure quietness and stop bloodshed, and his advice has not been followed, he has been compelled to summon British troops who will punish them. The proclamation caused a sensation at Cairo on Friday when it was made public. No demand for British troops had reached there. Later advices indicated that El Mahdi had received with delight Gordon's offers, and had ordered a cessation of fighting.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night Mr. Gladstone introduced a bill for the extension of the franchise. Important additions result from making the £10 occupancy of dwelling houses include land and gardens at, that rental, without any buildings, and without actual residence there. It enfranchises residents who neither own property nor pay rent, but who work on the land, such as laborers, gardeners, game-keepers, watchmen, etc., residing in cottages on the employer's property. It abolishes the old £50 county occupancy franchise, and reduces the rating franchise from £12, where it was left by the Disraeli reform bill, to £10. It also extends the lodger franchise from boroughs to counties. It does not deal with the redistribution of Parliamentary seats.

Mr. Gladstone, in his speech on the bill, said, to introduce separate franchise bills for England, Ireland, and Scotland, with a prospect of carrying the English and Scotch bills and leaving the Irish bill to take its chances, would be altogether impracticable. The arguments in favor of a uniform bill were unanswerable. Nothing could induce him to abandon such a bill. Redistribution of the Parliamentary constituencies must follow the reform of the franchise. But if the two questions were embodied in the same bill, it would prove fatal to both. The measure would increase the voting power of the United Kingdom by about 2,000,000. Of this number England would furnish 300,000, Ireland 400,000, and Scotland 200,000. After some remarks in opposition the debate was adjourned. The Parnellites and the Scotch members appear generally well pleased with the bill. The English Liberals are disposed to object to extension of franchise unless coupled with redistribution, on the ground that it will strengthen Ireland and Scotland at the expense of England.

Mr. Gladstone has agreed to the creation of a new Minister with a seat in the Cabinet, to be called the Secretary for Scotland.

An infernal machine, containing twenty pounds of dynamite and a clock-work attachment for firing it, was found at Charing Cross Railway Station, England, on Thursday. The machine had failed to explode at the time for which it was set. The clock-works were of American make. Another infernal machine of American manufacture was found at Paddington Railway Station on the same day. The discoveries created great excitement in England, and extra police precautions were immediately taken. Parnellites in the House of Commons, on Thursday, denounced the dynamite campaign as no part of their programme. On Saturday a black bag made of American cloth was found in the cloak-room of the Ludgate Hill Station, containing about forty packages of dynamite and a portion of an American alarm clock. Four men who arrived in England from America on Feb. 20 are believed to be the guilty conspirators.

The London *Times* appeared with a leader on Friday in which it said: "It is intolerable that England should be exposed to this succession of plots from a nation which professes to be friendly with us and with which we have only a desire to live in peace and amity. We know that the Americans are aware of the identity of the plotters of these outrages. It would be no hard task for the American Government to end the whole thing. We shall do our utmost to guard ourselves. It remains for America to aid us, as she alone can nip the mischief; but our demand is one which a civilized nation is bound not to disregard." Later in the day it was announced that the English Government had decided to send a courteous despatch to America relative to the action of Americans in countenancing and assisting dynamiters.

The London newspapers on Wednesday referred indignantly to the explosion at the Victoria Railway Station as a further evidence of Fenian cowardice. The *Times* said: "The leaders of the Land League will do well to exert their influence with the dynamiters to repress outrages, since the British, however long-suffering, will not indefinitely permit the murder of innocent persons."

The Paris police are convinced that the advanced Irish party have made Paris their headquarters in Europe for the preparation of their dynamite schemes. The Nationalist colony includes representatives of the three centres of the Irish Republican Brotherhood. The first section comprises former Fenians, James Stephens, John O'Leary, and General MacAdaras. The police have traced the arrival of five men belonging to the third or active section—the dynamiters—who have been told off for the next attempts. They came from Buffalo, Paterson, Brooklyn, and two from Texas. They are believed to be pupils of Mezeroff.

The French Government has decided to expel from France all suspected dynamiters.

Henry Irving denies that he will be a candidate for Parliament.

Prof. Goldwin Smith denies the report that he has been offered the Professorship of History at Oxford by Mr. Gladstone.

Salvini made his reappearance at Covent Garden, London, on Thursday night, in the character of *Othello*. He showed undiminished powers, and met with a warm reception.

Isaac Todhunter, the well-known English mathematician, is dead. He was senior wrangler at Cambridge in 1848, and in time became professor at that University. He was the author of many works on the higher mathematics.

The bust of Longfellow was unveiled in Westminster Abbey on Saturday. The Sub-Dean of Westminster performed the ceremony. Earl Granville and Minister Lowell made speeches.

Miss Nevada, the American prima donna who has made such a success in Paris, has become a convert to the Roman Catholic faith. She will soon receive the rite of baptism at the English Passionist Church in Paris. M. Gounod, the composer, will be one of the sponsors.

The Emperor William of Germany gave a state banquet on Wednesday night in Berlin in honor of the Special Russian Embassy and the Grand Duke Michael. He made a very friendly response to the toast in honor of the Czar.

Christian August Selmer, Minister of State for Norway, was on Wednesday found guilty under articles of impeachment, and sentenced to forfeit his official positions and pay a fine of about $5,000.

General Iglesias took the oath of office as Provisional President of Peru in the Assembly at Lima on Saturday. The Cabinet have resigned.

DYNAMITE PROPOSALS.

THE English press continues to discuss actively the nature of the dynamite grievance, but the discussion does not make the matter much clearer. The nearest approach to a practical suggestion is that Congress might pass a law making conspiracies to injure life and property in foreign cities a highly penal offence. Assuming that Congress has the power to pass such a law, the difficulties in the way of its enforcement would be so great that the law would be, after its passage, so much waste paper. A conspiracy is a matter proverbially difficult to prove in a court of justice, and, of course, the passage of such a law would render evidence far harder to get than it now appears; for the dynamiters like Rossa, who now go about breathing forth fire and slaughter, would keep very quiet, while the work would still go on; so England would really, in the enforcement of her own laws, be cut off from a good deal of American evidence now contributed gratis to her police and prosecuting officers through the dynamite press here.

The English press obviously forgets that the spectacle of the extreme difficulty their own government finds in preventing Irish agrarian and political crime, is not such as to encourage ours to think that we can, at a distance of three thousand miles, do much to help them. They have had to change their whole system of trying crimes of this sort, to authorize the arrest and imprisonment of persons on mere suspicion, to take away the most cherished and ancient legal rights, merely to secure life and property within the jurisdiction of their own courts. To expect a foreign Government, however friendly, to do anything of this kind is ridiculous. But the task which the English press would like to impose upon us is far harder than that of the English Government. It involves, first, legislation, and then the enforcement of legislation against crimes hatched here to be committed abroad. We might have to work for several years before we could get a single conviction; and indeed the lesson taught us by England is that we could not probably accomplish anything at all without suspending the habeas corpus, and taking away the prisoner's right to trial by jury. This is what the English demand for legislation comes to if it means anything at all.

The suggestion that we might by a vigorous inspection of explosives here prevent the introduction of dynamite into England is also gravely brought forward. Here, again, we are asked to do work which it is the duty of England to do, and which England alone can do. The place to prevent the introduction of dynamite into England is the English custom-houses, where any human being who lands can be searched and every box and satchel can be examined. It is no part of our duty to search everybody who leaves the United States to see whether they may not have something in their possession of which they may make an improper use abroad. If it were, we might be just as well asked to prevent "Number Ones" from leaving our ports with knives and pistols as to prevent dynamiters. International law is founded on common sense, and does not require such absurdities.

The Irish-American population are all more or less in the position of refugees, driven out of their own country by bad government at home, and the right of asylum really involves the right to hatch plots and make threats. If the dynamiters were real refugees, every one would see this at once, but we cannot be expected to be more severe with them merely because they are, unfortunately, in many cases, American citizens, as well as a branch of a race governed by England. If it were fair to ask such a thing, even expelling an avowed dynamiter would only leave ten unavowed dynamiters in his place. It is the strong, silent dynamiter who really endangers life and property, not the loud-mouthed ranter who urges him on. But in the last resort, our answer to England must be, How are we to *prevent* here crimes against life and property which are committed in England, in the face of the enormous difficulties which you find in the task of detecting criminals who actually commit them?

THE MAIN OBSTACLE TO PRISON REFORM.

THE meeting of prison managers and reformers on Wednesday week at the Fifth Avenue Hotel led to a discussion of a great variety of topics connected with prison reform, all of which in themselves are of interest and importance. They were, however, so numerous as to give the report of what took place a bewildering effect. If those who have taken the matter up wish to accomplish anything practical, they evidently need to confine their attention pretty closely to one or two points, and make the public understand what is wanted. The question, for instance, as to the effect of wearing "stripes" on the self-respect of convicts (a disciplinary detail), or that of the "indefinite sentence," which involves a complete change in our whole theory of punishment, are not matters about which the public is asked or expected to do anything just now, nor are they matters about which the reformers are agreed. Even the prison-labor question, important as it is, is not a question of the reform of an admitted prison abuse, pure and simple, but is complicated with political considerations and the demands of the non-convict laborer for protection.

One point was brought up, however, as to which there is little, we think we may say no, difference of opinion among prison reformers. It relates to an abuse which is not local, but extends all over the United States, which has existed for a hundred years, on which prison reform has had thus far no effect worth mentioning, and yet which admits of a simple remedy. This is the connection of the Sheriff with the common jail. The condition of the common jail all over the country is perfectly well known. It is the institution to which offenders, young and old, of both sexes, are sent at the beginning of their criminal career, where they are herded together, given nothing to do, made more callous and vicious and criminal. The city jail, the county jail, the Eastern jail, the Western jail, are all much alike. In this State, for instance, the latest report of the Prison Association gives the following account of the discipline in these institutions. The jails mentioned are taken at random from the report. In Albany County there is no separation of prisoners of different classes, and as to hard labor the report is "no work." Cayuga County has a "filthy jail;" criminals of all conditions are "mixed together," "without restraint or watch." Chenango County—"Sanitary condition and ventilation bad." As to prisoners, there are "no particular rules." All these three prisons are reported as being "unsafe" in one way or another; the danger from fire, which is a peculiar feature of all the county jails, being mitigated only by the facilities for escape which the condition of the building offers. In Cattaraugus County the prisoners are not kept separate, nor are they required to work except by the Sheriff "in his garden." The Sheriff suggests that "it would be better if a regular jailor could be employed to watch the prisoners constantly," the deputy placed by him in charge of them "having other business outside." In Chemung County there is no separation, and no work. In Columbia it is "easy to break out," which seems fortunate, as there is "no ventilation whatever." Prisoners are "not asked to work." The Dutchess County Jail has "but little ventilation," "no distinction" between different classes of prisoners, and "no labor whatever." In the Kings County Jail, which we believe is frequently presented by the Grand Jury, there is, or was recently, a little collection of instruments of torture—a "yoke," four "rawhides" well worn, and two "paddles." None of these, it is unnecessary to say, are recognized by the Revised Statutes as legitimate instruments of discipline. And so on from one end of the State to the other.

This picture of the New York jail, it appears from the discussion last week, is a fair representation of the jail everywhere. No such state of affairs exists in the State prisons of this or other States. In them, though they may be capable of much improvement, the convicts are kept hard at work, are classified and separated, and are not allowed to associate with each other in such a way as to make it probable that the effect of their imprisonment will be to make them worse instead of better when they return to society.

The explanation of the difference between the jail and the State-prison system lies on the surface. A hundred years ago all prisons were in the condition that our jails are now. They were sinks of filth and iniquity and cruelty, and schools of crime. They were reformed by the Legislature's adopting the system of prison discipline shown by the example of early prison reformers to be the true one, and making it uniform throughout the State. So far has this been carried in this State that we have put all the prisons under one man, who is solely responsible for them.

Nothing of the sort has ever been done with the jails at all. They have been left in the hands of a petty local politician, chosen at a popular election, and chosen not because he has the slightest interest in the care or reformation of criminals, but because he is a good "worker" for one or the other party. His business is to make a living out of his jail; and, as his prisoners do not vote, and have little to say in the press or at public meetings, he is giv-

en no trouble by anybody. The first step in prison reform is, as has been urged repeatedly by prison reformers, to take the jails out of the hands of the Sheriff and put them into those of the State. This is a single point which can readily be made plain to the comprehension of the public; and if the prison reformers will make it so they may do a great deal of good. The Sheriffs, it is needless to say, are totally opposed to any change.

LIQUOR GOVERNMENT.

THERE is one consideration, not directly connected with the Roosevelt Aldermanic Bill, now before the State Senate, but having an important bearing on it, which may be seriously commended to the attention of a good many people who care but little about the difficulties of municipal government. That consideration is the rapid growth, not in this country only, but all over the world, of the opinion that the next great step in amelioration of the condition of the race must be the destruction or great diminution of the manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors. We are not now talking of the state of mind of fanatical temperance advocates or prohibitionists. We mean that the increased attention which is being given to the problems of crime and poverty, and which finds expression in attempts to improve the dwellings of the poor, to make their lives less dreary and the future of their children more hopeful, to protect women and children from brutality and fraud, to make prison discipline more wholesome and reformatory, brings the most conscientious and influential members of every community face to face with the fact that spirituous liquors—that is, whiskey, brandy, rum, and gin—are by far the greatest cause of preventable human misery. In Switzerland there is a loud call for governmental action, and one which will be promptly answered, if it has not been already answered, to prevent the disorder and misery resulting from the recent rapid increase in the consumption of spirits. In Belgium and Norway the same question is coming up from the same cause. In Great Britain "the enthusiasm of humanity" is very distinctly taking the same direction. In fact, no matter from what point social reformers start, they are all apt to meet round the whiskey or brandy cask, as the true source of most of the woe they are combating.

In this country we are to-day met by the grave fact that the quantity of distilled spirits in the United States in October last was 115,949,235 gallons, of which the United States was taking care of 74,582,117 gallons in bond until the owners could find it convenient to pay the tax on it. The amount of human misery, the murders, the fires, the suicides, the defalcations, the loss of property and health, the divorces, the family shame and sorrow, stored up in this amount of liquor is simply incalculable. In fact, it is not too much to say that every whiskey warehouse is like a little volcano, ready at a moment's warning to send little rivulets of flame and desolation over the country. No one needs distilled spirit except in sickness. Nobody in health drinks it with his meals as a cheering or digestive beverage. It is probably never taken by a healthy man without more or less physical or moral damage. In other words, it is a huge national curse. The number of people who begin to see this is increasing, and they are likely every year to become a greater and greater proportion of the American people. Now, it would be wise for those who are interested in either the manufacture or sale of liquor not to foster the growth of this sentiment by any exhibitions of their strength which are not necessary to the protection of their business. Not only the distillers but the brewers would do well to take note of this. One of these exhibitions which is increasing public hostility is the apparent determination of the liquor interest to take charge of the government of American cities. In all the large cities the liquor-dealers have of late years made strenuous efforts to seize and administer, or take a large share in administering, the revenues. They have long been an almost preponderating influence in the government of this city. There are seven liquor-dealers in the Board of Aldermen in New York, or nearly one-third of the whole number, and, as they act together, they practically control the Board.

Now, the American people will not stand this much longer. The liquor-dealers probably cannot be got out of politics until they are attacked in their saloons, and public sentiment is perhaps not yet ripe for the closing of the saloons. But there is a decided readiness to diminish their number and exercise more stringent supervision over those which are kept open. But no feature of municipal government is likely to be tolerated much longer which is found inpractice to result in giving the retailers of whiskey a large share in managing the affairs of civilized communities. The makers and lovers of whiskey, rum, gin, and brandy would do well, therefore, to let the Aldermen go. The less prominent they are, and the less they have to say about government, the better for the liquor interest.

THE MANNERS AND MORALS OF ENGLISH SOCIETY.

LORD EUSTACE G. CECIL has been writing a very dismal article in the last number of the new Tory monthly, the *National Review*, on what he calls "Social Deterioration" in England. His charges are, that manners have sadly fallen off in the House of Commons; that politicians on the stump are disgracefully abusive; that in society "adventurers of every description, male and female, find their way into and are freely encouraged in the best company, because they happen to be preëminently rich, or good-looking, or unscrupulous." The rest of the passage is worth quoting:

"No matter what their previous history may have been, no matter how vicious their conduct or how coarse their manners, if they are wealthy they are courted; if they are clever or pretty they are invited. They even find their way to court balls, and at every great fête of the season they are abundantly represented. Everybody remembers how a famous French actress, still living, was received in town a few years ago. Although her character was notorious in Paris, the honor of receiving her was disputed by those whom the newspapers would call the *élite* of London society, and she became the rage from Belgrave Square to Pall Mall. American influences are, perhaps, to some extent responsible for the exhibition of such predilections, but there are patent signs elsewhere that bad taste has been imported from other than transatlantic quarters. What the sale of so-called society papers may be, may be known to those who care to inquire; but that it has greatly increased is clear from the number of those papers that have started into existence in the last few years. The scandal-mongering traffic is no longer a trade, it is a profession, and evidently a remunerative one. The private lives and secrets of the most distinguished and the most notorious personages are frequently sold by their professed friends for a paltry consideration to newspaper editors, who increase the sale of their wares at the expense of victims, who are unwilling, if not powerless, to retaliate. Scurrilous books and articles have been constantly written since the invention of printing, and occasionally, no doubt, private malice has been satisfied by the publication of some indecent scandal or grosser libel; but it has been left to the nineteenth century to erect the art of slandering into a profession, and, by making the practice remunerative, to do its best to perpetuate the evil. Surely no better evidence could be adduced of the decline of right feeling than the existence of a temper of this kind in the public mind."

In seeking to account for the decline of formality in the intercourse between men, he says:

"For how much of this lack of manners the other sex are responsible it would, perhaps, be ungallant to say. Young ladies are to be found who frequent the smoking-room, do not object to smoke cigarettes, and are not ashamed to adopt the slang they hear there. Indelicate plays are no longer a bar to the presence of unmarried girls, and newspapers containing full details of the Divorce Court are to be seen as well in the boudoir as in the drawing-room. It has been argued that to forbid these things is simply prudery, that to the pure all things are pure, and that the knowledge of good and evil are intended to be as much the curse of the one sex as of the other. But this argument really rests upon the new Democratic gospel, that all men, women, and children are equal, and that the privileges of the one age or sex are the rights of all; a mode of reasoning which leads straight to that anarchy in respect of all creed, opinion, and usage, which is to be the millennium of Advanced Radicalism."

What is most curious in the article is the fact that the writer ascribes everything he deplores to such vague generalities as "American influence" and "Advanced Radicalism," and steadily avoids what everybody who has observed English social phenomena during the past twenty, and particularly the past fifteen years, knows well to be the true proximate cause. In discussing social tendencies, there is not much use in troubling one's self about human depravity in general and man's love of wealth and pleasure. These have existed everywhere and always. The philosophic way of getting at the root of the difficulty is to ask whether any agency capable of producing this demoralization has been at work in England during the past fifteen years, which was not at work during the previous fifteen. The answer must be that there has, and that it consists in a Court largely given up to amusement. Nothing is more familiar to the readers of social history than the influence of such a court on manners. The state of things in England since 1870 is no worse or

more puzzling than the state of things in France between 1853 and 1870. The same causes produced precisely the same effects. When the Empire was overthrown, the pleasure-loving class of all countries transferred themselves to London, simply because the person who had there become the head of society was a pleasure-loving man.

Probably there has in our day been no one equally highly placed who takes life less seriously than the Prince of Wales. This fact is a little disguised by his kindliness and good nature, and the assiduity with which he performs those ceremonial duties of inaugurating public works, laying foundation stones, and unveiling statues, in which Englishmen so much delight in seeing royal personages engaged. But it is none the less notorious that he has really set to a wealthy society the fashion of treating amusement as the chief end of man, as something which all who can afford it are entitled to get by any means not involving cruelty or direct dishonesty. We say direct dishonesty, because there is no doubt that a certain section of English society to-day does not scruple to get its pleasure through encouraging dishonesty, or, in other words, by receiving with open arms any well-mannered knave or reprobate who is able to make it laugh. There have been, as is well known, many cases of late in which the Prince of Wales's attention has been called to the unfitness of foreigners for some of the social attentions he was bestowing on them, owing to their unfortunate antecedents, but he has refused to treat these antecedents as any disqualification for his company. This is really all there is in Lord Eustace Cecil's mysterious allusions to the "famous French actress" and "American influences." Both French and American adventurers, no matter how low their reputations at home, find in London a ready market for their songs, their good stories, their good card-playing; the Americans, of course, the readier of the two, because they have the language and a new kind of humor. It would be too much to expect society in general to be more particular than its head, or to make wry faces over what he swallows without winking. To ascribe in any degree to "American influences," therefore, English social *défaillances*, which good Americans witness with mingled wonder and indignation, is really a little too bad; and to expect the reprobates of American society not to go to the only city in which they find a cordial welcome, is asking too much of these droll and amiable creatures.

What is most needed for English social reformation is a Court which takes life seriously, and does some hard work. As long as the English reverence for royalty exists, the Court must be the most powerful influence on the manners and morals of the wealthy class. That "modern Radicalism" can compete with it sounds very like a joke. There is probably nothing which moulds morals more rapidly than the example of those we admire or envy. The capacity of courtiers for imitation is one of the commonplaces of history, and nearly every man or woman in England in our day, who has over £1,000 a year, is a courtier; and a very large number, when they begin to feel the rays of Court splendor, rapidly get into the way of thinking that to be "jolly" while you may is the true rule of life, and of feeling deep gratitude to the man or woman who kills time for them pleasantly. They are not responsible for his frauds, or his debts, or her slips and misdeeds, or shabby career, they think; and the songs, and mots, and ways of putting things of both of them are *so* delightful.

VITROLLES AND THE BOURBON RESTORATION.—II.

PARIS, February 14.

WHILE M. de Vitrolles was making frantic efforts in favor of the Bourbons, among the Kings and Emperors of the Coalition and their ministers, France hardly knew who these Bourbons were or where they were. M. de Vitrolles himself had much to learn on this subject. At Nancy he instructed Monsieur (the Comte d'Artois) concerning the principal political personages of France, and Monsieur instructed him concerning his own family. The King lived quietly at Hartwell, like a landlord; the Queen was dead, and the Countess of Narbonne, who became afterward the Duchess of Narbonne, was the object of the attentions and of the preference of the King. The Duke of Angoulême and Madame lived also at Hartwell. The Comte d'Artois and the Duc de Berry lived in London; the latter had been captivated by an English lady. In his exile, the King had kept up all the appearances of a court: he had two captains of his guard (though he had no guard), the Duc de Gramont and the Duc d'Havré; gentlemen of the chamber, viz.: the Dukes of Fleury, of Aumont, of Duras. Moreover, he had a favorite, the Comte d'Avaray, who had helped him to escape from France at the time of the flight to Varennes. The King had made D'Avaray duke immediately after the death of Louis XVI. D'Avaray became consumptive, and was obliged to go to Italy, where he met M. de Blacas, of an old house of Provence, who was a poor *émigré*, and whom he took back with him to the little court at Hartwell. After the death of D'Avaray (he died on the island of Madeira), M. de Blacas became the factotum of the King, and a favorite in his turn. The King was very gouty, and could not walk. When M. de Vitrolles heard of this, he was horrified. "What! the King cannot walk? At least he can ride?" "No," said Monsieur. "Good God! what will become of us? Well! we must ride for him." He remembered the words of Burke, speaking of the King: "He must not think of sleeping on velvet cushions. . . . He must go through his provinces—be always on horseback; he must add to the rights of legitimacy all the qualities necessary to an usurper." What were the plans of the King? what was his programme? M. de Vitrolles asked many questions on this subject. Surely, he thought, the King must have meditated on the political situation of France during the tedious days of his long exile; he must have found some way of reconciling old France and new France. The Comte d'Artois could give him but little information; he did not much like the name of "States-General." "Have the States-General not brought us to a subversive National Assembly and to a regicide Convention? The clergy is a highly respectable body, but why should it have a political existence? The parliaments have always been a nuisance and an impediment! The provincial assemblies were an invention of Turgot and Necker." Such were the remarks made to M. de Vitrolles when he offered any suggestion. He soon found that the Princes had no plan, no programme, no system. They claimed France as a proprietor claims his domain. They meant to be good, to be just, but they knew no more about the art of government than the unfortunate Louis XVI.; at any rate, Monsieur seemed to avoid all general discussions—he cared only for men, and was insatiable of details as to all persons.

A battle had been fought on the 31st of March at Arcis-sur-Aube, and Napoleon, instead of going back to Paris, had attacked the enemy's lines of communication, and thrown himself on Saint-Dizier, in the hope of drawing to himself the garrisons of Lorraine and Alsace. Monsieur was still at Nancy. He gave letters to Vitrolles, accrediting him with the allied sovereigns in the name of the King. He was instructed to negotiate for the recognition of Louis XVIII. and for immediate peace. Monsieur gave him also a copy of the letters-patent which bestowed on himself the title and powers of Lieutenant-General of the kingdom in the absence of the King, a nomination in blank of a Governor of Paris, and several commissions in blank for generals. The intention of Monsieur was to give the governorship of Paris to Talleyrand. With these important documents, M. de Vitrolles started for Paris in a carriage with Baron Weissenburg, an aide-de-camp of Prince Paul of Würtemberg, who commanded a division of reserve in the Russian army. They were unknown to each other. They had an escort of Bavarian soldiers. Their carriage was followed by several others, containing officers who were on their way to the headquarters of the allies. The little caravan was arrested in a village by peasants armed with guns and sticks. All the prisoners, with a new escort of Frenchmen, were conducted to Chaumont. M. de Vitrolles, during the journey, had time to destroy all the papers which had been confided to him; if they had been seized by the French officers who cross-examined all the prisoners at Chaumont, he would probably have been shot as a spy. He gave himself out as the servant of Baron Weissenburg, who had shown him much kindness on their dangerous journey, and even helped him to destroy all his papers. It was decided that Weissenburg and all the other officers should be sent to Saint-Dizier, where Napoleon was; as for the servants, they were left behind, and taken from prison to prison. Vitrolles succeeded in making his escape and in going back to Paris. His journey was a true Odyssey, and all his friends thought him lost. Nesselrode said to Dalberg, who inquired for him: "We do not know what has become of him, but we owe it to him that we are here."

Vitrolles had been absent, thrown in the shade, during the preliminaries of the Restoration. He learned on his return that the Duc d'Angoulême had been received at Bordeaux with acclamations; that Paris had not risen at the appeal of the supporters of Napoleon. Talleyrand had not followed the Empress Regentess or the Council of Regency to Blois; he had played a little comedy, and had been arrested at the barrier of Paris by men whom he had himself paid, when he was apparently going to join Marie Louise. Under the presidency of Talleyrand, the Senate had appointed a provisional government. He did not wish to throw himself at the feet of the Bourbons; he wanted to treat with them and to obtain a Constitution. He used all his influence in order to win over to his views the Emperor Alexander, who had arrived in Paris. Alexander was still reticent, and had not yet pronounced the names of the Bourbons. All was still in suspense. Napoleon was at Fontainebleau, collecting the remains of his army, white cockades were showing themselves, but no solution was certain.

Vitrolles had been thus far an instrument of Talleyrand. He went to see him, and was well received, and complimented on his lucky escape from so many dangers. He was taken to the apartments of the Emperor Alexander, who was staying in his hotel in the Rue Saint-Florentin. "Well," said the Emperor, "do you think that our conversation had results enough?" amiably alluding to their first conference. Talleyrand, when he was again alone with Vitrolles, put him many questions as to the Comte d'Artois. They dined with the Emperor. Alexander looked embarrassed. He listened to the eulogy of Monsieur by Vitrolles, but said nothing. He had not made up his mind; he was alone, separated from the Emperor of Austria; he enjoyed the applause of the Parisians; he was popular; he thought himself the king of kings. Vitrolles hoped that the immediate arrival of Monsieur in Paris was a necessity; it would make the balance turn. But in what character would he come—as representative of a King who was not yet recognized? or at the call of the Provisional Government? In what uniform? with what cockade? These questions preoccupied Talleyrand. He was anxious to find a *trait-d'union* between the Senate and the Bourbons, a link between the men of the Revolution and the *émigrés*. He thought of himself, he thought also of France; he wished to make his weight felt; he wished also to find a new basis for the ancient dynasty. His views were undoubtedly those of a statesman; the views of Vitrolles were those of a partisan. The first was the most intelligent, the second the most loyal. The struggle which began between these two men is the same which has continued since the French Revolution, and which has not ended yet.

The Emperor Alexander was honestly trying to find out the real sentiments of France. He was placed between Talleyrand, who was really in his own person the whole Provisional Government, and the Senate, which was composed of men who thought only of saving their own situation. The marshals abandoned the cause of Napoleon, one by one; all the great bodies of the state asked for the return of the legitimate monarchy. Sieyès, the maker of constitutions; Carnot, the member of the Comité de Salut Public; Barras, Garat, and others, pronounced for a solution which seemed the last resource of France. The return of Monsieur to Paris was decided. Napoleon, feeling himself abandoned, and hearing of the adhesion of Ney, of Macdonald, of Cambacérès, of the Duc de Vicence to the Provisional Government, signed his abdication at Fontainebleau. Vitrolles was sent to Nancy, in order to bring back Monsieur to Paris. His carriage was full of royalist pamphlets, which he scattered on his way. He was the only traveller who had been seen for a long time, and he confesses that the passport given to him by Prince Volkonski, the Chief of Staff of the Allied Armies, was more useful to him than the passport of a Provisional Government which nobody knew. "Is the Emperor dead?" was the universal question. "Does Paris still exist? has it been burned and sacked?" Nobody would believe that all was quiet in Paris. The traces of war were visible everywhere. Vitrolles promised peace to all whom he met—"peace and the Bourbons." "The end which I announced was new, unexpected, and seemed uncertain. Nobody dared to give himself up to his natural impressions; they all feared to be mistaken—deplorable result of the Revolution, which has taught the most open and expansive people to conceal its sentiments and to conform them to the dominant opinion."

Monsieur was not pleased by the news brought by Vitrolles. He was anxious, however, not to act completely at the dictation of the Emperor Alexander, and he sent for M. de Bombelles, the Minister of Austria, and informed him of the situation. He left the next day for Paris. Vitrolles had brought for him the uniform of the National Guard; the Prince consented to make his entrance into Paris in this popular uniform. Before leaving Nancy, the Comte d'Artois appointed M. de Damas "governor of the province of Lorraine and of the three bishoprics (Toul, Verdun, Metz)"; he did not even know the names of the departments and returned naturally to the old denominations. Meanwhile, the Senate had framed a Constitution, in great haste the Corps Législatif had assented to it, Napoleon had accepted the Island of Elba. The Senators pronounced themselves irremovable, changed themselves into Peers of the Kingdom, and called voluntarily (*librement*) to the throne of France Stanislas Xavier, brother of the last King. Talleyrand had succeeded, and Vitrolles was very indignant. The entrance of Monsieur was a real triumph, but Vitrolles never forgave Talleyrand: he had dreamed of something else than a bargain between his Princes and the Senators of Napoleon. Men, women kissed the knees of Monsieur, kissed his boots, his horse. "What I saw," says he, "happened in the presence of 500,000 witnesses. Many have forgotten it, so much so that they do not believe any more in what they have seen, in what they have felt."

Correspondence.

GENERAL OVERPRODUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a communication from "U. H. C." (dated Feb. 9), in regard to the cause of the present depression in business, he discredits the theory of "special overproduction" which has as a remedy the "redistribution of employments," because it involves, seemingly, a condition which is wholly at variance with existing facts. To argue that if, having produced what is not wanted, you subsequently turn around and produce what is wanted, all will go well again, implies, he says, that "certain wants and demands are now unsatisfied and unsupplied, not because of the *lack of means to purchase*, but because of the *scarcity of the thing to be purchased*." On the contrary, either of these facts can be the cause of certain wants and desires remaining unsupplied. If the scarcity of certain things desired does not actually exist, still the lack of means to purchase can exist, and prevents the want from being satisfied. Thus if A produces iron not wanted by B and C, who produce respectively wheat and coal for each other and for A, then it must follow that A's demand for wheat and coal must remain unsupplied if B and C do not want his iron: and for this cause rather than because wheat and coal are scarce. From now on, B and C will only produce enough wheat and coal for themselves alone, unless A can discover something to produce which they desire and cannot now obtain. In the absence of this, A is still in need of wheat and coal, to obtain which he must change his employment, giving up the production of iron and taking up either of the others. In this case A's wants are unsupplied because he lacks the right means of purchase. An exchange cannot be made unless the parties to it desire each the articles possessed by the other.

What is the difficulty in harmonizing these statements with facts? All commodities—iron, cloths, grain, and the like—seem to exist now in abundance, and is not this abundance another name for "general overproduction"? As long as there are men in want of the necessaries for sustaining life, these necessaries cannot be said to have been overproduced. The laborers out of employment, the capitalists receiving no return for their investments, *have been* engaged in producing an amount of certain commodities *the ratio* of which to the amount of other commodities is too great. We have to-day too many factories, furnaces, and railroads in proportion to the food we produce. The Fall River strikers and the community would both be better off had the strikers been engaged in agriculture for the past year rather than in manufacturing. Corn and wheat are both more nutritious than cotton cloth.

To rectify the present state of affairs will probably take considerable time, as the redistribution of employments and investments is not the work of a day. The change also involves considerable friction. B. J. S.

Cincinnati, February 26, 1884.

THE SINS OF THE REVIEWS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Might not the critic of the *Saturday Review* who writes so genially on "Anglo-French and Franco-English," find a most appropriate—nay, a perpetual—text in the French of the *Westminster Review*? If any of your readers care for the most delightful specimens of the "French of Stratford-atte-Bow" satirized some hundreds of years ago by Chaucer, just turn over the leaves of the October number of this famous review and quote *ad infinitum* for their delectation. Here you will find in the article on Henry Gréville's and Lord Ronald Gower's Reminiscences such "Gallicism" as would disgrace the school exercises of our primary academies; such orthography and grammar as may be found in an unmodernized Montaigne, or in an Englishman's Franco-English diary; such idiom as has never been heard except in the precincts of Westminster.

Is it not a shame that the review of John Stuart Mill and George Eliot should not do better? and is it not worse still that the *Saturday Review* should point its moral and adorn its tale not with the lingo of Paternoster Row, but with the harmless jargon of "a far Western hotel"? J. A. H.

Lexington, Va., February 23, 1884.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Edinburgh Review* for October, 1883 (p. 295), in speaking of Sedgwick's attack on the heights back of Fredericksburg in May, 1863, says: "He ascended these blood-stained heights, then held by only a couple of slender battalions, numbering 800 men, who were eventually made prisoners, at a cost of 1,000 killed and wounded." This is a grave error. The heights were held by about 8,500 rebels. Early himself, in a communication to the Richmond *Whig*, said he was there with his own division and Barksdale's brigade, and a battery. In all he says he had seven brigades. Doubleday places the number at 9,000. The Committee on the Conduct of the War, after hearing all the testimony, called it 10,000. Barksdale's entire brigade first held the particular part of the heights known as Mary's Hill, and before the attack Early sent Hay's brigade to support him at this point; while the other brigades were close at hand and were attacked at the same time. The 18th and 21st Mississippi regiments were captured almost intact. In all, over 1,000 men were taken, besides the killed and wounded, showing how absurd must be a statement that Sedgwick was confronted by only two battalions of 800 men. In five minutes he lost in killed and wounded nearly 1,000 men, which could not have been the work of 800 men on the other side.

I call attention to this because I have before seen so many underestimates and misstatements about this battle. W. S. N.

SALEM, February 27, 1884.

THE SITE OF TROY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your review of Dr. Schliemann's new book proves one thing clearly, that any literary criticism of the Doctor's theory and work is necessarily futile. I believe that if, from the literary standpoint, there was any chance to prove or disprove the assumption made in 'Troja' as to the Schliemannian theory of Ilion, your reviewer would have done one or the other. What he does prove is, that no literary criticism can touch the heart of the question. Every argument by which in his view the identity of Ilion with Hissarlik is shown, tells with just the same force in favor of an hypothesis of the identity of the Hissarlik town with that founded by Crœsus, which is, according to Strabo, the first historic foundation on the site of the Novum Ilium. Start with the theory that this Lydian city was what Schliemann was looking for, and every argument thus far is as applicable as to Homer's Ilium. I believe that Professor Jebb, in the 'Hellenic Studies' and *Fortnightly*, has done all that can be done from the literary point of view, and that his conclusion that Homer's topography was eclectic is that which is most clearly shown to be the most probable, looking at the matter in the light of all the literary evidence we possess.

What Dr. Schliemann says of "the Lydian city"—"all that I am able to show of this city is its pottery; there is no wall of defence, nor even any house walls, which I could with any probability attribute to it"—shows that that city was not in any probability the Lydian city built by Crœsus, which was most unlikely to have been without walls and important buildings. On the contrary, it is more likely to have been so provided than Ilium itself; and what is the most significant item in the evidence—the use of bricks in the walls—is, from the purely archæological point of view, a proof conclusive, so far as our present knowledge goes, that this city was not Homer's Troy, and was the town of Crœsus; for bricks are unknown in the whole series of heroic cities: there is not a single case known of the employment of bricks in the epoch at which Troy must have been built if it be the city of our poetic traditions.

The real demonstration of this question remains purely archæological, and no *authority* in archæology has pronounced in favor of Dr. Schliemann's theories. Dörpfeld and Höfler are not archæologists, Sayce is an Assyriologist; and all archæologists at Athens know that Schliemann's education and judgment in archæological matters are absolutely *nul*. He has not a scientific fibre in his brain, with all his enthusiasm and devotion to antiquity. A great deal has been said about Dr. Schliemann's "intuition," but we need not forget that he proved the first Troy quite as much to his satisfaction as the second; that his "intuition" led him first to excavate on Bunarbashi before Hissarlik, and that years ago he examined Mykenæ carefully and pronounced excavations there futile. He has perpetrated more blunders in purely archæological matters than are permitted to a tyro, while his knowledge of Greek may be guessed at from his explaining, in the preface of 'Troja,' that a friend had called his attention to the fact that in translating the passage describing the Trojans assaulting the Greek camp, he had made them attacking their own wall instead of that made to defend the camp.

To Dr. Schliemann every fact which goes to confirm his theory is good, every one opposed is of no weight. He sees, and has always seen, what he wants to see. The fact is that he has no conception of the value of a scientific discovery, or conscience in his statement of what he has found; and so he states as fact what is his mere conjecture (*vide* Comparetti's report to the Lincei on an Ithacan inscription transcribed by Schliemann). The battle about Troy will wage many years more unless it is concluded by an archæological demonstration. Bunarbashi must be as thoroughly excavated as Hissarlik has been. Excavations on the plain are also possibly necessary, and behind the whole controversy lies the possible solution that the Trojan war was a myth.

I have studied the construction of prehistoric and historic walls for twenty years, and may claim a right to pronounce an opinion on such matters; and I do not hesitate in offering one, viz.: that the construction of the wall which Dr. Schliemann describes as that of the Troy of Homer cannot be placed further back than the Lydian dynasty. W. J. STILLMAN.

THE POSTAL NOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If every one should voice his dissatisfaction with the new postal note, it would be speedily discontinued or amended. To contribute my share to that end, allow me to call attention to one disadvantage of the note which I have not seen mentioned. Postmasters frequently make them out on offices that are not money-order offices. I have received three such notes within as many months. There is no remedy but to return the note to the issuing office, or to the sender, which involves a double risk, a long delay and an extra charge.

I believe the country would welcome a limited issue of fractional currency, large enough to facilitate the mailing of small sums, such as are included in the limitations of the postal note. Or else let the notes be made payable at *any* office. Wherever the office is so small as to receive very few orders, the trouble of meeting them would be correspondingly light; and any office that would use many of them is large enough to meet the heavier demand.

H. H. BALLARD.

Notes.

FUNK & WAGNALLS announce as in preparation 'The Fortunes of Rachel,' by the Rev. E. E. Hale, and 'Prince Saroni's Wife,' by Julian Hawthorne.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish American editions of 'The Authority of Scripture,' by the Rev. R. A. Redford; and of 'Characteristics of Christianity,' by Dr. Stanley Leathes, Prebendary of St. Paul's.

The promised 'Biography of the Hon. Ezra Cornell,' by his eldest son, ex-Governor A. B. Cornell, will be issued by A. S. Barnes & Co. on April 1.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready the fourth volume in the series of translations of Topelius's "Surgeon's Stories," namely, 'The Times of Frederick I.'

Chas. Scribner's Sons will begin publishing this month a collection of "Stories by American Authors"—the most noteworthy *short* stories contributed during the last ten to twenty-five years to our periodicals. The quality of these, we apprehend, will rank very fairly with that of any of their class. A large number have been the productions of women.

The second volume in the new and uniform edition of the works of the late Dean Stanley, now publishing by Charles Scribner's Sons, is his 'Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church' (vol. i.). Besides maps and plans it contains a beautiful steel portrait of the Dean.

A new edition of the 'Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson, Poet Laureate,' has just been issued at a popular price in one volume, 12mo, by Macmillan & Co. It contains a few poems which have been withheld from similar collections for half a century—*i. e.*, since their first printing in 1833. Tennyson has, we are told, corrected the present edition throughout; and having done so much it is a pity he did not affix a date to every piece, if only in the table of contents. This particular service is one which poets ought to feel bound to render posterity, because they can do it most easily. As in the work last mentioned, there is an admirable steel portrait of the author.

The Franklin Square Library, No. 366, is Queen Victoria's 'More Leaves from the Journal of a Life in the Highlands—1862-1882,' a curious psychological study. "A thick, misty, very threatening morning" was Monday, Oct. 9, 1865. "There was no help for it, but it was sadly provoking. It was the same once or twice in former happy days, and my dear Albert always said we could not alter it, but must leave it as it was, and make the best of it." Friday, Sept. 12, 1873, on the contrary, was "a most beautiful bright sunshiny day. . . . At eleven drove to and through *Fort William*, . . . passing the celebrated *Ben Nevis Distillery*, which is two miles from here, and . . . by an old, very neglected graveyard, to the right, in which is an obelisk to McLachlan, a poet, and past the *Belford Hospital*, a neat building, built by a Mr. and Mrs. Belford."

We are glad to receive from the *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. a second edition of Judge Caton's 'Antelope and Deer of America,' a study in natural history of a kind much too rare not to be welcomed again and again. The work is plentifully illustrated, and is most interesting reading.

A fair book of about three hundred pages, entitled 'The Adventures and Discourses of Captain John Smith,' comes to us from the press of Cassell & Co. It is the story of the founder of Virginia, as gathered from the printed works of that accomplished hero, and "newly ordered" by John Ashton, author of 'Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne,' etc. In this shape the narrative is presented as if related by Captain Smith himself to a group of listening children, and very welcome it will be to English-reading children everywhere, for, as an American biographer has written, "Poetry has imagined nothing more stirring and romantic than his (Smith's) life and adventures, and History upon her ample page has recorded few more honorable and spotless names." The engravings contained in Mr. Ashton's book are barely tolerable facsimiles of those found in Smith's 'True Travels, Adventures, and Observations' (London, 1629) and his 'General History of Virginia, New-England, and the Summer Isles' (London, 1627), and are very much inferior to those in the Richmond edition of these works, printed in 1819 at the expense of John Randolph of Roanoke.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have made a neat pamphlet of Mr. Beecher's commemorative discourse on the late Wendell Phillips, adding a passable woodcut likeness of the great orator.

Mr. Wm. H. Tillinghast, of the Harvard Library (as we learn from the January *Bulletin*), has undertaken "an index to maps contained in geographical periodicals, collections of voyages, and other extensive works of a geographical nature to be found either in the University

Library or in the larger libraries of Boston." This has already been done for the *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie* of Paris, and begun for the *Annales des Voyages* and the *Nouvelles Annales*.

A paper touching the duel between Burr and Hamilton, and the relations to it of Rufus King, as the friend of the latter, is the most significant contribution to the current *Magazine of American History*. Mr. King's opposition to and dissuasion from the duel seem established beyond doubt.

In the February *Shakespeariana* Mr. F. G. Fleay adduces evidence of allusions to Shakspere's plays in Marston's, and finds, for example, confirmation of his own conjecture that "Troilus and Cressida" dates back in its earliest form to 1598-99. Mr. J. Parker Norris, continuing his interesting papers on "The Portraits of Shakspere," discusses the famous death-mask, in the authenticity of which he is disposed to believe.

On April 15 J. H. Chambers & Co., St. Louis, will issue the first number of a monthly *American Journal of Ophthalmology*, edited by A. Alt, M.D.

The *Art Amateur* for March comes with a freight of designs of all kinds, *e. g.*, capital process illustrations of the Water Color Exhibition, and a delicate "process" of that most indelicate nude statue, Power's "Greek Slave"—a work which has so little of any of the great qualities of sculpture, or of any very remarkable quality except that of utter and conscious nudity, that it is scarcely creditable to the taste of the day that five replicas of it are in existence. Some spicy and relevant editorial comments are made on the Mackay-Meissonier broil—which, by the way, promises to develop into a social feud—and there is a notice of the Brooklyn Loan Exhibition, by Clarence Cook.

De Gubernatis's new *Revue Internationale* (Trübner) has a chapter from a work by Tullo Massarani on Charles Blanc and his work, here entitled "La critique d'art depuis Diderot," and of which the most just and intelligent part is that which is devoted to a really great and learned art critic, Théophile Gautier. As for Charles Blanc, his highest merit is that he knew how to use appreciatingly and edit cleverly the ideas of people who knew art better than he, but not always without gross blunders which showed that he was not *au fond* a true critic. When he ventured alone he fell. There is no vertebral uprightness in his work, no real integrity in his system; he was a master of phrase-mosaic, little else. To write a book on what he wrote is necessarily waste of words, whether it be to praise or blame.

Frederick Keppel & Co. send us the etching by A. J. Martial from the "Cancalaises," by Feyen Perrin—a charming work, to which incidental allusion was made in our review of the Etching Club. The subject is the annual festival of the people of Cancale (where are the great oyster beds of that district on the coast of France) to which on one day in the year all the Cancalaises are allowed access, with the privilege of taking as many oysters as they can carry away. It happens during the autumnal low tides, and as the rise and fall of the tide is very great, an enormous expanse of shallow water lies between the seaward limit of the beds and the shore, through which, coming back from their quest, the multitude of Cancalaises are marching towards the spectator on dry land. The rich ladies of the Cancale sometimes avail themselves of the privilege, and this will serve to explain why in the front of the long line of fisher people walk two who are evidently too delicately bred to be peasants or fishwives, and the refinement of whose faces has been the special study of the etcher. The etching is, in all the best qualities of the art, the finest large plate which has come under our notice. The exquisite delicacy of the distance of sky; the faintly marked sails of the fishing boats on the open sea; the breadth of the masses; and the extreme tenderness of all the gradations, from the artistically placed black of one of the leading figures out to the far-away stragglers just inside the surf—are the result of a firm and painstaking use of the needle, which our young etchers ought to be glad to see and proud to imitate. The recent death of the etcher makes the examples of his work the more valuable. The study of the three leading figures will teach a beginner in etching more of the art than a year's etching out of his own head.

Mr. James Clephan, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, reprints from the *Archæologia Eliana* a pleasantly discursive paper on "Some Old Forms of Law," in which he passes in review the ancient customs respecting the wager of battle, the *peine forte et dure*, and the repressive laws against the gypsies, taking as his text various incidents in the history of the Palatinate of Durham. Of course, in the compass of twelve pages no exhaustive treatment is possible, but the pamphlet contains several curious anecdotes well worth preservation. The fortitude with which Anthony Arrowsmith in 1597 submitted to the horrors of being pressed to death, in order to avoid the forfeiture of his estate and transmit it to his children, might well serve as the groundwork of an historical novel, if historical novels were not out of fashion; and even the admirers of Mr. Froude might question his admiration for the wholesome rigor of Tudor legislation, when tested by the hanging in 1592 of five "Egyptians," simply for the crime of being gypsies, under statutes which were not repealed until 1783.

There comes to us, from the Chilian Department of Commercial Statistics, a large and handsome volume pertaining to the year 1882, in which a marked gain is exhibited over the transactions of the preceding year. While Valparaiso, as the metropolis, is credited with four-ninths of the foreign commerce, the port of Iquique, one of the four acquired by annexation during the late war, stands for one-seventh, and the other three together for about one-sixth. An ironical feature of our American dealing with a nation whose commerce we aim to cripple by our tariff, is the fact that five-sixths of the timber for ship-building in Chili comes from the United States.

The report on the trade between the United States and Mexico, just elicited from the Bureau of Statistics by a resolution of the House of Representatives, is accompanied by a map of Mexico, colored to show the differences of elevation, and indicating also the lines of transportation between the two countries—finished and projected. The appendix is very full of information.

— Mr. Irving's visit furnishes a topic to two magazines this month—the *Atlantic* having an article on him by Mr. Henry A. Clapp, the *Century* another by Mr. J. Ranken Towse. Both critics take fundamentally the same view of Mr. Irving—that he is not an actor of the first rank, and that his intellectual conception of the parts he plays is far better than his actual delineation of them. One difficulty in arriving at a just estimate of Mr. Irving's powers arises, as in the case of most distinguished actors, from a lack of agreement as to the facts on which criticism is based. Mr. Clapp dwells at some length upon the "peculiarities of his delivery," and thus attempts to convey to the reader an idea of what they are:

"His oddities of utterance are no more English than they are Choctaw; sometimes they suggest Cornwall, sometimes Devonshire, occasionally Northern Vermont. But such hints are given by fits and starts; the dialect is always substantially his own—an Irving *patois*, developed out of his own throat and brain through the operation of the familiar law of the survival of the unfittest. An alternate swallowing and double-edging of consonants, a constant lapse into an impure, nasal quality, an exclusion of nearly all chest tones, the misdelivery of the vowels by improper prolongation or equally improper abbreviation, an astonishing habit of confounding and confusing different vowel sounds, are the most marked of his disagreeable peculiarities. The great broad vowels are the ones which fare the worst in Mr. Irving's mouth, and the reform of his delivery must therefore be regarded as hopeless: an actor of middle age whose chief pronunciations of 'face' are fāāāce and fēāāce, and of 'no' are nāo and nawo, is past praying for in this regard."

Now, we did not ourselves see Mr. Irving in many parts, but his *patois* must necessarily be substantially the same in all, and we heard nothing in it more than may be heard in any cultivated Englishman's speech, colored by a very bad stage rant and drawl, which it appeared to us he had affected for the purpose of artificial invigoration. The result is peculiar, undoubtedly, but not nearly so peculiar as the delicacy of ear which enables Mr. Clapp to detect Choctaw, Cornwall, Devonshire, and even Northern Vermont in his tones. A partisan of Mr. Irving might feel disposed, after reading this article, to raise the not irrelevant question of what Mr. Clapp's own method of speaking English may be. The fact is, that unless we know this, we are not in a position to determine how well the critic can judge of Mr. Irving's departure from recognized standards. It should, at least, be said in Mr. Irving's behalf, that actors' English pronunciation of the present day, at least in this country, is not so good as to make us dread very much the effect of his example: most of them mouth, some rant, almost all betray want of early cultivation. On the other hand, if they all pronounced perfectly well, the effect would be probably very depressing, for the people who come to hear them are by no means purists in this matter.

— Mr. Towse goes into Irving's principal parts in considerable detail, and his criticism has a great deal of permanent value. A hundred years hence it will enable a theatre-goer, not exactly to compare Irving with the star who may be playing *Matthias* or *Shylock* then, but to get an idea of what our age looked upon with respect and sympathy in the representation of such parts. Mr. Towse directs the attention of his audience to a point continually neglected in modern theatrical criticism, that the main question to be determined is how well the actor delineates human passion—not how he dresses, nor how much the scenery or curtain costs. In all his parts Mr. Irving is tried candidly, and found wanting in the capacity to represent the emotion or passion of the character accurately, or indeed so as to arouse the correlated sympathetic illusion in the audience. He keeps it—or leaves it—cold. In *Matthias* Mr. Towse finds the illusion "never quite complete, and the attention of the spectators is sustained not by engrossing interest in the fate of the mimic personage, but by admiration of the executive skill displayed by the performer." In *Charles I.*, where passion was needed, "there was no ring of honest feeling in his voice; no suggestion of heartfelt impulse in his gesture, which was conventional, stilted, and unimpressive." In *Louis XI.* there is "no manifestation of passion." In *Shylock*, "there was not one single note of true passion, or one touch of genuine pathos, while the lines were often made almost unintelligible by the vilest of elocutionary tricks." Without going any further into detail, this may be said to be a fair sample of Mr. Towse's criti-

cisms on this point, and it will be perceived that they throw a most important light on the question of Mr. Irving's rank as an actor. For those who take the view of the dramatic art on which they are based—and it was until within a generation the only view that any one took—Mr. Irving's great reputation will have to be rested on different grounds from those which support the fame of Garrick, or Edmund Kean, or Mrs. Siddons, or Salvini. The one essential thing for a great actor he has not. Many things not essential—a keen eye for the picturesque and a great faculty for management—he has; but he is, after all, a labored actor, and the spark of genius has been denied him.

—*Lippincott's* has a good illustrated article on "The Berlin of To-day," by Anna Maynard Butler, which contains a passage of some interest with reference to the education of women:

"In the education of girls, Berlin has always shown deep interest. Perhaps the decided strides onward in this direction taken during the present reign are due to the thorough culture and love of study possessed by the Empress Augusta. Certain it is that several of the best *Stifte*, or institutes for girls, have the patronage and untiring interest of the Empress to thank for their prosperity. Far on as American women are supposed to be in matters of study, I venture to say that the German girl is better grounded, better drilled, and far more logically taught than they. She is undoubtedly less able to make use of her knowledge, seldom does make the most of it, and upon her entrance into society is *womanish* rather than *womanly*; nevertheless, the fact remains indisputable that until her seventeenth year her education is based upon a system thorough, progressive, comprehensive, which, if pursued until the age of twenty-one, would make the women of the upper classes of her country the best-instructed women of our time."

Any one who has ever seen an American girl subjected to the German process of education must have been surprised to find how much real drilling and discipline a girl will take without injury. The thing in which American girls exceed all others is not knowledge or accuracy, but social readiness and adaptability. This comes, of course, from their early habit of taking care of themselves, and sometimes of their socially helpless parents; and also from their being thrown from their earliest years into the society of the opposite sex in a familiar and pleasant way. They enjoy, if not co-education, at least co-recreation, almost from the beginning of their lives.

—*Harper's* has an illustrated article by Mr. T. W. Higginson on "The Early American Presidents," in which he dwells upon the fact, often noticed by writers who have taken up this period, that French influence had very little effect upon American politics till a good while after the Government was founded. It was in its origin and nature English, and our Frenchmen, though living at the time, did not show their hand till later. But the reason that they did not do so is plain. It was the French who caught the contagion of our example, and went far beyond anything that we dreamed of, and it was not until they had brought a good deal of odium upon liberty, fraternity, and equality, that Jefferson and his followers, demagogues as they were (though, no doubt, as Mr. Higginson says, reformers too), re-echoed their wild talk on this side of the Atlantic. That sane Americans should ever have dreaded the establishment of an American aristocracy seems now incredible enough, but they really did. The frontispiece of *Harper's* shows that Mr. Abbey is in danger of acquiring some of the English vices of illustration. It resembles the weak and careless work which certain eminent painters are in the habit of sending to English illustrated magazines. His second full-page illustration is scarcely better. The Yorkshire coast illustrations are excellent, especially the "Early Morning at Whitby." The portrait of John Adams, cut by Kruell, is an admirable piece of work—one recognizes the textures of Stuart in the engraving. The cuts for "Nature's Serial Story" are in their way delightful both as design and engraving. The article on "Domestic Decoration" is too prescriptive and arbitrary, in its attempt to lay down rules, to be generally very useful. It is absurd, for instance, to say that "the most universally [generally?] recognized rule for determining the height of a room is the sum of half the width and the square root of the length"! But the proportions of any room depend on the uses of it and the general disposition of the house and style of architecture. There can be no such rule admitted by an architect of originality. "To make a room appear *wider* is accomplished to a certain extent by making it appear lower, but when this is undesirable, etc., the effect can be reached by adopting a mural decoration on a graduated scale of form decreasing upward, etc." But this is to effect precisely the contrary: this graduated scale adds to the apparent height of the room, and so, by the author's rule, must diminish the width.

—The second (March) number of the *Foreign Eclectic*, which, like its predecessor, shows good taste in its selections from French and German periodicals, reprints from *L'Univers Illustré* a fine poem by Paul Déroulède, "Le Clairon," which irresistibly recalls Freiligrath's equally fine "Die Trompete von Gravelotte." The two patriotic effusions challenge comparison by their points of resemblance as well as of contrast, whether accidental or not. Freiligrath's verses, which have found a permanent place in German literature, relate a true and simple episode of the Franco-German war. After a dearly bought victory a trumpeter, ordered to give the signal for rest, finds his trumpet pierced by a ball, and the sound which it gives forth seems like a wail of sorrow over the fallen:

"Nur ein klanglos Wimmern, ein Schrei voll Schmerz
Entquoll dem metallenen Munde;
Eine Kugel hatte durchlöchert ihr Erz—
Um die Todten klagte die wunde!"

In Déroulède's poem the trumpeter himself is struck, but with his dying breath he still sounds defiantly the bugle:

"Il est là, couché sur l'herbe,
Dédaignant, blessé superbe,
Tout espoir et tout secours;
Et sur sa lèvre sanglante,
Gardant sa trompette ardente,
Il sonne, il sonne toujours."

It were easy to draw from these two poems a lesson in what is termed the "comparative psychology of nations," did not German sadness in victory and French defiance in defeat, as here interpreted, strike alike a common human chord.

—We congratulate the Bostonian Society on its first publication—'Abel Bowen, Engraver,' a sketch by William H. Whitmore. The collector of local guide books prizes few above the second edition of 'Bowen's Picture of Boston,' published in 1833. This volume, admirable for its contents, was illustrated by a large number of steel plates, mostly containing four views each of the principal buildings of the city. These views are remarkable for their delicacy and fidelity, and are among the most precious and authentic memorials of the edifices delineated. A portion of them, together with several of Bowen's woodcuts, including a portrait of himself, having been acquired for the cabinets of the Bostonian Society, the occasion seemed a proper one for rescuing a highly-deserving name from oblivion. Mr. Whitmore has discharged his task with characteristic accuracy and particularity, and his little brochure is adorned with impressions from all the cuts and plates referred to. One of the larger woodcuts (that on p. 23), faithfully copied after the English engraver Thompson, was selected by Mr. Linton, in his 'History of Wood-Engraving in America,' as a sample of Bowen's singular skill in such reproductions. Mr. Whitmore shows that this artist was the real founder of wood-engraving in Boston. In March, 1834, he became one of the incorporators of the Boston Bewick Company, "for the purpose of employing, improving, and extending the art of engraving, polytyping, embossing, and printing." Bowen was also one of the first to experiment with lithography after its introduction. His services in connection with Snow's 'History of Boston,' and with other works commemorating his adopted city, were worthy of a native. He was in fact born near Greenbush, N. Y. We cannot conceive of anything better calculated to attract support to the Bostonian Society than a series of antiquarian publications like this, of which the get-up is simple and inexpensive.

—Several causes have delayed mention, on our part, of the initial volume of the Archives of Maryland, as undertaken to be published by the Historical Society of that State, by authority of the Legislature and at the public charge. The Society is now the custodian of the recovered archives, for which it has built a fire-proof receptacle; and the invaluable assistance of its librarian, Mr. J. W. M. Lee, has been freely given to the editor, Dr. William Hand Browne, librarian of the Johns Hopkins University, for the making of as creditable a reproduction of colonial records as any State can show. The first volume is a fine quarto of nearly 600 pages, and is entirely devoted to the Proceedings and Acts of the General Assembly of Maryland from January, 1637-38, to September, 1664. Such gaps as existed in the archives for this period were happily nearly all made good from duplicate documents found in the London Public Record Office, where, too, much else relating to Maryland was found and copied, and will duly see the light. A calendar of the archives, so far as these are in volumes, is here printed by way of preface. The utmost scrupulousness has been observed in transcribing literally, with the single exception that the abbreviation for *the* has been disregarded. There are four indexes—of bills read, and passed; of persons and places; of miscellaneous business—the last not sufficiently analytical, surely, and not to be compared with the topical indexes, say, of the Boston Record Commissioners. In all other respects, the execution of this task merits unqualified praise.

—What strikes one, in running through this body of early legislation, is the temporary character of it—a large part being enacted only until the next Assembly should meet, and having to be renewed from time to time. In extreme cases, as in the punishment of swearing, a term of three years seemed allowable. One advantage of this renewal of old statutes was the opportunity of improving them under better enlightenment. Thus, nothing gave more trouble during the period under consideration than the condition of white servants or apprentices, especially their bad habit of running away. The first "act against fugitives," passed in August, 1641, denounced their action as felony, punishable with death or servitude. After one or more renewals, in April, 1649, nothing but fine and doubling of time of service was exacted. Punishments were not peculiarly barbarous. The first case of flight and theft by a servant dealt with by the Assembly showed a majority favorable to John Richardson's being

whipped three several times, but "Mr. Greene to be hanged; Mr. Giles Brent to be whipd very severely; Mr. Fulk Siliter [similiter]; The Captain: to be whipped provided that he be Sorrowful for his fault; The President: to be laid in Irons and whipped three several times very severely." For treason, it was proposed that a man should be hung and quartered, a woman drawn and burnt. Acts of September-October, 1663, provide for erecting a pillory, stocks, and ducking-stool in every county of the province, and furnishing irons for burning malefactors. An act read but not passed at the session of February-March, 1638-9, "for allowing booke to certain felonies" (including runaways), adjudged "death by hanging except the offender can read Clerk like in the judgment of the court." The first "act concerning negroes and other slaves" was passed in September, 1664, and was an effort to put a stop to amalgamation; free women who consented to bear children to slave fathers being made slaves during their husbands' lives, and the offspring following the father's condition. "An act for the liberties of the people," not passed (February-March, 1638-39), was on behalf of "all the inhabitants of this province being Christians (slaves excepted)." Indians are more often referred to than negroes, as in "an act touching pagans." The morals of the "servants" are reflected in acts against bastardy, and in the curious case of defamation, reported at length, of Spinke *vs.* Barber; the Assembly, on a technicality, reversing the decision obtained by the "light carryaged" Mrs Spinke against her former master. Engrossing and forestalling, and "lawfull tender," were still other subjects of legislation. In measures, the "Winchester Busshell" was adopted in 1641. And in 1638-39 it was enacted that "all contracts made for paymt. in Corne shall be understood of Corne shelled, & a barrell of new Corne tendred in payment at or afore the fifteenth day of October in any Year shall be twice shaked in the barrell and afterward heaped as long as it will lye on; and at or before the feast of the nativeity shall be twice shaked and filled to the edge of the barrell or else not shaked and heaped as before. And after the said feast it shall not be Shaken at all but delivered by Strike."

—Few numbers of *Le Livre* have been of better quality than that for February, the fiftieth. It opens with an article by M. R. Chantelauze, on "The Last Love of J. J. Rousseau," which introduces to us a professed copy of a hitherto unpublished letter addressed by the philosopher on March 28, 1770, from Monquin, to Lady Cecilia Hobart, an English flame. This epistle, carefully written in a hand assigned to the close of the last or the beginning of the present century, is mainly a justification of suicide, conformably to the mood of his correspondent and her English lover (not Platonic), but indulges in rhapsodies about love in general and the writer's for her in particular, in a manner of which Rousseau was certainly capable, and in a style which is not obviously not that of the author of the 'Nouvelle Héloïse.' Lady Hobart has not been notorious among Rousseau's acquaintances, though she must have been a tremendously bright spot in his dismal English experience, nor have M. Chantelauze's researches put her existence and identity past dispute. He relies, therefore, chiefly upon the internal evidence, and offers some interesting comparisons from the 'Confessions,' etc. We will mention a possible confirmation which he has overlooked. The letter to Lady Hobart is very long, and even so is fragmentary, lacking the conclusion. In the known correspondence of the period it can only be compared for length with the letter of Feb. 26, 1770, to M. de Saint-Germain, which has very properly been styled the complement of the 'Confessions.' Now, on the same day that he was writing to Lady Hobart, he wrote to M. Moultou a much briefer note, cutting it short with the excuse, "Le papier me manque"; and it is small wonder if his stock of paper gave out after so prolonged a drain upon it as the Hobart letter called for.

—The second article, by M. de Saint-Heraye, describes the late Henri Martin's curious entrance into literature as a novelist, poet, and journalist. This is accompanied by a striking pen-sketch of the historian, made about 1860. The third article, by Adolphe Racot, is an entertaining review of the origin and development of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, apropos of its recent removal to new offices at No. 15 rue de l'Université, in the venerable hôtel once occupied by Joseph de Beauharnais. No one can read this narrative without a feeling of admiration for that *paysan du Danube*, François Buloz, and his able lieutenants, the grim Gerdès and the diplomatic Bonnaire. We pass over the "Recent Studies on Jacques Casanova," of whom a newly discovered bust is engraved expressly for this number. The editor, M. Octave Uzanne, takes the floor in a chat about men and things which promises to be a useful innovation in the scheme of *Le Livre*. He falls foul of the much lauded Lami-Lalauze designs for Musset, which he declares destitute of originality or fitness, and much inferior to Bida's. To accompany them, however, the publisher, Lemerre, contemplates a quarto *édition de luxe* of Musset's works, and M. Uzanne improves the opportunity to show how ill edited this author has been. In its amiable attention to American affairs, *Le Livre* makes this month the pardonable error of transplanting "le célèbre historien G. Bancroft" to Mexico, where he is said to be gathering observations for his great work on the aboriginal populations of America; Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft being certainly intended.

—Cowen, Moszkowski, Brahms, and Liszt were the very modern names on the programme of Saturday's Philharmonic concert in Brooklyn. Cowen was represented by his "Scandinavian" Symphony, and Brahms by his Variations on Haydn's Chorale St. Anthony, both of which compositions were heard at the last Philharmonic concert in this city. Of Liszt, the familiar symphonic poem, "Tasso," was given — one of the most original and most superb of modern compositions, sorrowful and weird in the "lamento" part, while the "trionfo" is an outburst of exuberant feeling that places it on a par with the most inspired national hymns. The novelty of the concert was Moszkowski's violin Concerto opus 30. In listening to this work it is difficult to realize the fact that the author has not yet reached his thirtieth year. It is easy to predict that his name will be very prominent on the concert programmes of the next twenty years and thereafter, if he fulfils the expectations raised by his compositions that have so far appeared. Some of his piano-forte pieces already enjoy a deserved popularity. They reveal the influence of the three most potent factors in modern musical life—Chopin, Schumann, and Wagner, coupled with a distinct reminiscence of Bach. Moszkowski's music, like his blood, unites Polish and German elements, his father having been a Pole, while he himself was born at Breslau. His violin concerto is a most valuable addition to the limited repertory for that instrument. In its orchestral part it frequently suggests "Tristan and Isolde" by its modulations and instrumental combinations. The theme of the first movement is vigorous, original, and finely elaborated; the second movement is a sweet, dreamy andante; the third appears of less musical value, but gives the soloist many opportunities to display his powers. The difficulties of execution are frequently very great, as they are not merely of a technical nature, but arise in part from the necessity of connecting the ever-changing harmonies by clearness of phrasing and correctness of accentuation. Mr. John F. Rhodes played the solo part with technical ease and elegance, pure intonation, and graceful and delicate movement of the bow. Far from being afraid of difficulties, he chose them where an easier version is offered for choice in the score. A broader and more sonorous tone would have been acceptable in some of the cantabile passages. The novelty was well received by the audience.

GREEN'S 'CONQUEST OF ENGLAND.'

The Conquest of England. By John Richard Green, M.A., LL.D. Harper & Bros 1883.

J. R. Green once said of himself: "I know what men will say of me—'He died learning.'" Nothing in the whole of his works affords a more striking instance of his penetrating insight than this casual remark, recorded in the prefatory memoir which precedes the 'Conquest of England.' "He died learning." These three words, like all true sayings, have a profound application; they hit exactly the most noteworthy, and yet perhaps the least noted, features of Green's rare and admirable genius. We may indeed doubt whether, like all men of vivid imagination, he did not overrate the intelligence of others. It is quite possible that critics might not of themselves have said of our author what he has said of himself. But the words, once uttered, are a revelation. Any person of ordinary acumen can see their truth. The true source of all that was best in J. R. Green's work was that he died, and one must add also *lived*, learning.

The saying we have cited has two sides. It points, in the first place, to the rarest among the many rare gifts possessed by the deceased historian. Every line of his writing, and even those passages which savor most of paradox, or may on other grounds be open to fair criticism, show that he never lost the inestimable capacity for learning. His mind remained, to the day of his death, open to new truth. He retained, to the end of life, a keener glance for new facts than is generally possessed even by men of high talent or true genius in the vigor of early youth. To compare the author of the 'Conquest of England' in this respect with living writers, would be invidious. But one may be allowed to illustrate his preëminence in respect of the capacity for receiving new ideas, by comparing him with men whose fame, like his own, has become a portion of English literature. Hallam and Macaulay have each attained a rank among the writers of their country of which a premature death has deprived J. R. Green. One whose course was only beginning can never, from the nature of things, accomplish those lasting results of life-long labor which can be achieved by men to whom nature has given rare gifts of intellect or imagination, and to whom fortune has granted the full length of days during which these gifts may be cultivated and developed. But though our author cannot exhibit such fruits of his labors as have been produced by the writers whom we have named, he may boldly compare with them in respect of openmindedness. Of neither Hallam nor Macaulay would any competent critic speak except in terms of profound respect. Yet whoever has studied their works will see that neither of these eminent men retained at the end of his career the peculiar capacity for receiving new

light which distinguished J. R. Green. Long before Hallam or Macaulay had ended his career, every one knew the way in which each of them would look at the problems—we may almost say at the facts—of history. They each exhibited, to the end of their lives, extraordinary power for seeing and expressing certain aspects of the topics with which they each dealt; they were each assiduous and conscientious workers; they each, therefore, accumulated additional stores of information. But of neither of them could it be said, in the same sense as of Green, that he died learning.

To say this is not to cast a slur on writers worthy of the high fame they have attained. But to point the contrast between them and the author of the 'Conquest of England' is a fair mode of calling attention to one of his noblest qualities. To men of even greater fame than he, the period of growth or development comes to an end at a very early time in their career. They spend the rest of their lives in using their full-grown and matured strength. They develop and work out ideas which came to them in the period of youth and of growth. Green never seems to have stopped growing Increase of years might no doubt have brought with it some pause in mental development; but those who recall the animated, unresting activity of a mind which seemed more alive at the very point of death than are the souls of most of us in the midst of full health and life, may well believe that age itself would not have dimmed the brightness of that light-loving spirit. One may well suppose that he, like Walter Bagehot, might, however long his life, have remained to its end capable of receiving all the new lessons which might be suggested by new discoveries and new theories. It is, at any rate, clear that his last volume was written by one who, in the midst of a desperate struggle for existence, could not, if he would, have diverted his mind from entering into every new path of speculation which opened to his view.

In nothing, for example, have even the best of English historians shown themselves, with some very rare exceptions, more lamentably blind to important phenomena than in their propensity to neglect the legal aspect of English history. So far has this negligence been carried that at the present moment we may fairly say that the speculations of lawyers are forcing new fields of inquiry upon the notice of historians. It is no marvel that in his earlier works J. R. Green should have been guilty of an oversight shared by writers of high standing and established reputation. What is noticeable is that unmistakable signs are contained in his last volume that he had opened his eyes to the vast importance of law as an explainer of history and as a part of history. The passage on early English jurisprudence, and the chapter on the "England of Ecgberht," put side by side with another passage contained in the chapter on "Wessex and the Danelaw," show plainly enough that our author had turned his mind towards the influence of law. Here, as elsewhere, he was learning to the last. Exactly the same characteristic exhibits itself in a somewhat different form when he is treating of a very different topic, namely, the character of Danish warfare. Any student who has read with any thoughtfulness the accounts of the attacks made by the Northmen on different parts of Europe, must have felt a vague kind of perplexity about the question how it can have happened that hordes of pirates harassed, alarmed, and in many cases conquered countries occupied by settled and comparatively civilized populations. To remain in this condition of vague and uninquiring perplexity was utterly foreign to Green's genius. One can see at a glance that he brought the whole stores of his knowledge, and the whole force of his vivid imagination, to the solution of a question of which many writers only half realize the difficulty, and therefore leave without a satisfactory reply. We do not assert that Green entirely solves a problem which, even after studying his pages, seems to us to present considerable difficulty; but we do assert that these pages throw great light on an obscure point. As you read Green's account of Danish warfare, the success of the Danes becomes at least comprehensible, and one for the first time realizes all the horror which this success excited in the minds of men who saw civilization itself menaced by a new attack of heathenism and barbarism.

This capacity for taking in at a glance the new and striking aspects of his subject was the main cause of Green's extraordinary literary success. A book written as a manual for students became suddenly one of the most popular works of the day. The 'Short History of the English People' had not been long published before it occupied on every drawing-room table the place generally filled by the last popular novel. The book was not written in the interest of any party; its author was not the assailant or apologist of any set of opinions; he propounded no new paradox; he did not tell a new story, but repeated a tale which had been told scores of times before. What, then, was the cause of the triumph achieved by his work? It was to be found in his invention of a new style in narration. He made a "short" history interesting by bringing into relief the salient and the noteworthy aspects of his subject. To do this with effect required, no doubt, remarkable command of all the resources of language; but something much more was needed than mere literary skill. The one quality which was absolutely essential to the due performance of the task Green had set himself, was a clear eye for the great outlines—for the important, and therefore interesting, aspects of English history. In this keenness of vision Mr. Green surpassed almost every other author who has tried to tell the tale of England's greatness. No doubt, with him as with other men, the strong and the weak side of his genius were closely connected together. While his attention was fixed on the great matters which interested himself and his readers, he occasionally fell into minor errors, which were detected by persons of not half his substantial knowledge. But let any critic who remembers Green's description of the effect produced by the translation of the Bible, say whether any one has ever excelled our author in the capacity for making clear to his readers the true signifi cance of the change, which opened to the whole people of England the hitherto-concealed treasures of Hebrew literature.

The 'Conquest of England' deals with a period which gives little scope for the full display of Green's special talent. His art as a narrator conceals from his audience how imperfect is our knowledge, and, we must in common honesty add, how dreary are the details, of the struggles between barbarians and settled races only a trifle less barbarous than their invaders. But whenever the opportunity arises for using his special talent, Green shows at once that the approach of death did not dim the brightness of his historical imagination. Cnut is, next to Alfred, the greatest of the rulers who come before us in Green's last volume. To most Englishmen he is little better than a name; but students who read these pages will, we are convinced, often feel that they for the first time understand the position and the greatness of the Danish monarch who identified himself with the national feeling of the people to whom by race he was a stranger. Green, we find, had till the very last day of his life something new to teach us. He died teaching, because he died learning.

But the saying with which we commenced this article has another and deeper significance. It calls our attention to Green's mass of learning and information. His talent as a writer has excited so much admiration that it has indirectly caused some injustice to his eminence as a master of his subject. His knowledge is so much part of himself that uncritical readers hardly realize how great his knowledge in reality was. They do not see that the vigor, the effectiveness, the very brilliancy of his style, is due in no small measure to his complete command of facts. A writer very different from the author of the 'Conquest of England' suffers at the present moment in popular estimation from much the same cause as that which unfairly diminishes Green's reputation for learning. The decision, the resonance, the ring of Macaulay's style strikes every one. It is natural enough that the qualities which for the most part evoke popular admiration are really the source of Macaulay's influence, and more than one imitator has imagined that to catch Macaulay's style was to seize the secret of his power. But whoever has tried the experiment must have found that while to imitate or parody the vices and even the merits of Macaulay's style was easy enough, such imitation always ends in the dreariest of failures. The imitator has seized the form, but has lost the spirit which alone made the form bearable. Macaulay's force lay at bottom in his minute and, so to speak, personal acquaintance with the times in which he wrote. This personal relation to the men of past ages, which occasionally displays itself in the prejudices and passions of a person who might have been actually contemporary with Penn or Marlborough, or Addison or Johnson, produces that fertility of allusion, that aptness of trenchant and superabundant illustration, which is the permanent charm of the celebrated 'History of England,' or of the even more charming 'Critical and Historical Essays.' Yet the majority of the world, because they fancy that Macaulay's real power lies in his style, deny or overlook the amplitude of his knowledge. So it is too apt to be with the current critics of J. R. Green. He is so brilliant as a writer, his skill in presenting to our view the most striking aspect of his subject is so obvious, that even intelligent students overlook, even if they do not deny, the compass of his knowledge. He never plays the pedant, and therefore he never gets with the public full credit for learning. But whoever reads Green's notes on the condition and history of English towns—notes which, as we understand the matter, have not received the last touches that would have been given them by their writer if he had lived—will easily see that he was, in spite of the brilliancy of his style, something much better and greater than a striking writer, and that he died learning because he had lived the studious, concentrated life of a learned man devoted to learning.

BEAUREGARD JUDGED BY HIMSELF.

Military Operations of General Beauregard. By Alfred Roman. In 2 vols. Harper & Brothers.

THIS book contains much of interest and value. General Beauregard was one of the highest officers in rank in the Confederate service, and was concerned in many important operations during the civil war. The narrative throws light on not a few of the great junctures of that struggle, and is enriched by a mass of official documents, many of which are published for the first time. The arrangement is clear and the style easy and attractive.

When this much has been said, there remains

but little more in praise of this book. Its faults are too many and glaring to be overlooked. The chief sufferer from its publication is likely to be General Beauregard himself, and it had been better for his reputation if he had assumed less directly the responsibility for Colonel Roman's work. The book is not so much a history of General Beauregard's career as it is a fulsome panegyric of him, an overstrained and often disingenuous defence of everything he did, or did not do, during the war, and an unfair and ill-natured critique upon the conduct of his superiors. We believe there is not a single superior officer of General Beauregard that is not disparaged in this book, and accused of damaging, at one time or another, the cause of which General Beauregard is represented as the only ever wise and ever unselfish defender. The object of our author's special hostility is Mr. Davis, but the Confederate Secretaries of War, the chiefs of the war bureaus in Richmond, and Generals Cooper, Lee, A. S. Johnson, J. E. Johnston, besides many of lower rank, come in for their share of criticism; a criticism often ill-judged, in most cases partial, and nearly always truculent.

The author's mode of dealing with history is illustrated by his account of the first battle of Manassas. The facts in regard to this are simple. In July, 1861, the Confederate Government had two principal bodies of troops hastily collected to oppose the invasion of Virginia, threatened by the as hastily gathered levies of the Federal Government. The larger of these, under General Beauregard, held the line of Bull Run, and in its front was the principal Federal army under General McDowell. Beauregard's force was being augmented by new regiments as fast as they could be armed and equipped out of the meagre supplies the South could then command, and by the middle of July numbered about 20,000 men. The other Confederate army, of about 10,000 men, under Gen. J. E. Johnston, was opposing General Patterson's advance into the Shenandoah Valley. Besides these, General Holmes had a small force on the lower Potomac. Both of the larger bodies were greatly inferior to the Federal forces opposing them. McDowell had about 35,000 men and Patterson about 20,000. As McDowell's was the principal Federal army, it was pretty clear that the first serious advance would be made by it. It was also evident that the Confederate forces at Manassas would not grow fast enough to place it on an equality with the army in its front, and therefore General Beauregard suggested the expediency of uniting the forces of Johnston and Holmes with his own for a sudden attack upon the Federal armies in succession. This proposal Beauregard submitted through one of his staff to Mr. Davis on the night of July 14. Generals Cooper and Lee were called in conference by Mr. Davis. The plan required that General Johnston, who was seventy-five miles away, should leave 5,000 men to hold Patterson in check, and rapidly join Beauregard with 20,000. This would double the Confederate force at Manassas and make it superior to McDowell, who was to be attacked and beaten. Then Johnston was to return with his own and 10,000 of Beauregard's men and overwhelm Patterson. Beauregard thought a week would suffice for this, after which Johnston was to reinforce Garnett in West Virginia and destroy McClellan. Then Johnston's and Garnett's forces were to cross the Potomac and attack Washington in rear, while Beauregard assailed it in front. This scheme was rejected as impracticable by all present at the conference, because, 1, Johnston had hardly 10,000 men, instead of 25,000, which Beauregard's plan assumed; 2, McDowell's army was too close to Washington to permit of its being crushed in the way indicated. If pressed, it could readily fall back to that city and its reserves. Another reason General Beauregard might himself have added: neither of the Confederate armies was supplied with transportation or stores sufficient for the complicated movements mapped out.

On July 17, the third day after this conference, McDowell advanced, and Beauregard telegraphed the fact and asked for reinforcements. Johnston was then ordered to join him if practicable with his effective force, and Holmes was also sent up. Next day occurred Tyler's attempt at Mitchell's Ford, ending in a Federal repulse. Beauregard's report apparently caused the Confederate authorities to think that McDowell had been severely checked, for next day (19th) Beauregard was telegraphed as follows: "We have no intelligence from Gen. Johnston. If the enemy in front of you has abandoned an immediate attack, and Gen. Johnston has not moved, you had better withdraw the call upon him, so that he may be left to his full discretion. . . ." Beauregard, seeing that the Federal army in front was only perfecting its plans for attack, of course did not stop Johnston, who reached Manassas on the 20th, followed by his troops during that night and the next day. As Johnston had merely eluded Patterson, who must soon learn of his movement, both Confederate generals felt that no time was to be lost in fighting McDowell. Johnston was senior, and in command, but, having no time to learn the country or disposition of the troops, adopted Beauregard's plan of attacking McDowell at Centreville next day (21st). The aggressive movements of the Federals early on the 21st prevented the execution of this plan. Beauregard then proposed to check McDowell's movement against the left by attacking with the Confederate right. This, too, was approved and adopted, but the orders sent by Beauregard failed to reach the Confederate right in time. Meantime, McDowell had turned the Confederate left and was pressing back with overwhelming force the troops there stationed. All plans of aggression were now abandoned in order to resist McDowell's attack, and a battle, unforeseen in character, location, and disposition of troops, ensued. Both generals hastened to the point of danger and exerted themselves successfully to stay the progress of the Federals. Johnston then left Beauregard in command of the troops engaged, and, taking a position with reference to the whole field, devoted himself to hastening forward reinforcements. These came up so promptly that Beauregard, taking advantage of the check which Jackson's stubborn stand had wrought, was soon able to resume the offensive, and within a short time the Federals were not only defeated but routed and driven with fearful panic across Bull Run.

Mr. Davis reached the field after the battle was over, and that night, when the panic of the Federal army had become partially known, was anxious for an immediate advance toward Washington. Both generals thought this inadvisable, so great was the exhaustion and confusion in the Confederate ranks produced by the battle, and so inadequate the stock of supplies and transportation then available. On the night of the 22d, at another conference, the generals declared it was impracticable to cross the Potomac or to advance at once on Washington in the wake of the defeated army. Mr. Davis seems to have been satisfied with the propriety of this judgment, and the idea was abandoned.

Such are the facts. Let us see what Colonel Roman makes of them. On the basis of the reduction of Fort Sumter, General Beauregard's skill and reputation are spoken of in the most extravagant terms. He then describes the proposal of July 14 as a troke of genius, and says: "A high tribunal, composed of the President, Generals Cooper and Lee, took upon itself to check and render barren the strategic powers so greatly developed in General Beauregard, and in which the immortal Jackson alone is acknowledged to have been his peer." Over and over again, with tiresome iteration, are Davis, Cooper, and Lee denounced for not committing themselves without hesitation to a scheme utterly impracticable as Beauregard put it, since it assumed nearly three times as many troops with Johnston as he actually had. Had the troops been at hand, half-drilled, inexperienced, badly equipped, with insufficient transportation, as they were, the chances of success would not have been more than one in one hundred, and there is nothing in General Beauregard's subsequent career to lead to the conviction that he was the man to seize that single chance. Again, the despatch of the 19th is tortured to mean a withdrawal of assent to the union of Johnston and Beauregard, and the latter is highly praised for pocketing the despatch and thus insuring the junction of the two forces, while Mr. Davis is unsparingly condemned for sending it. The despatch shows for itself. Johnston was not to be stopped unless McDowell had abandoned his immediate attack, and even then discretion was left with Johnston (the senior officer) as to his movements. McDowell had not abandoned his attack, and therefore Beauregard did simply his duty in holding the despatch. Colonel Roman goes on to say:

"We assert it as an incontrovertible truth, fully proved by later events, that the President of the Confederacy, by neglecting to compel his Q. M. General to procure the transportation which could have been easily procured more than a month before the battle of Manassas; by refusing, as early as the thirteenth of June, to assent to General Beauregard's urgent request that authority should be given to concentrate our forces at the proper moment at Manassas Junction; by again refusing, on the fifteenth of July, to allow him to execute his bold, offensive plans against the enemy, the certain result of which would have been the taking of Washington—that the President of the Confederacy, by thus persisting in these three lamentable errors, *lost the South her independence.*"

It is hard to tell whether the absurdity or the vanity of this statement is most striking. That the Quartermaster and Commissary, as well as all other departments of the Confederate Government and army, were new and in many respects inefficient, was certainly the case; but probably no country without any military establishment or central government, and peopled by citizens untrained to war for generations, ever acted with greater energy than did the South in the three months between the opening of the war and the battle of Manassas in raising and supplying armies. The victory of Manassas is itself one of the best proofs of this. General Beauregard is entitled to a large share of credit for this remarkable victory, and we think this has been accorded to him; but it must have been under some malign star that he allowed his biographer to make such claims as we have quoted.

Our author continues in the same strain in regard to Beauregard's position on the field of Manassas, about which there is no proper room to doubt. He was second in command under Johnston, who adopted his plans until McDowell's advance checkmated them, when each in his sphere did his best to secure success—Beauregard as commander of the troops engaged, and Johnston as commander-in-chief. After the battle Johnston was strongly opposed to advancing, and so, too, was Beauregard for a time. But Colonel Roman, through many pages, labors to prove that Johnston had nothing to do with the battle of Manassas except to act as a

dead weight upon the soaring genius of Beauregard; and he only ceases to abuse Mr. Davis and the Quartermaster-General for not permitting him to take Washington, in order to criticise (in milder terms, it is true) General Johnston for the same fault. Yet while there are plenty of complaints of others, and numerous suggestions as to matters beyond his jurisdiction, there is no practicable plan of offensive campaign, after Manassas, proposed by General Beauregard.

A similar tone pervades the whole book. When General Beauregard is sent to the West, he finds everything wrong in Gen. A. S. Johnston's department. The line of defence has been badly chosen, the works to strengthen it have been laid out without judgment, the vital importance of the defence of the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers has not been foreseen or properly provided for. General Beauregard promptly proposes a plan of operations to counteract these blunders. It is not adopted, and hence follow, in his opinion, the fall of Donelson and the subsequent disasters of the Confederates. Again, it is General Beauregard who, in spite of the indifference or opposition of his Government, and without the aid of his commanding officer, collects and organizes an army at Corinth, urges and finally induces General Johnston to unite his forces with it, and plans and does everything about the battle of Shiloh—except to fight it. General Beauregard is made to stand out as a solitary rock in a sea of incompetency and petty jealousy. Yet when the chief command devolved upon Beauregard, by the death of Johnston, we see little to justify Colonel Roman's estimate of his ability. A great victory was just within the grasp of the Confederates. It was allowed to slip away from them. Next day the tables were turned, and Beauregard was forced to retire to Corinth. Weeks followed, during which not a single stroke by the Confederates checked the onward progress of the Federal arms in the West. Beauregard's strategy consisted in sacrificing garrisons along the Mississippi, and in waiting at Corinth until the advance of the Federal army made a retreat necessary. He then fell back, with losses the amount of which is matter of dispute, to Tupelo. Yet these feeble operations are extravagantly lauded by our author.

One of General Beauregard's striking propensities seems to have been to draw up elaborate plans of operation on every possible occasion and for everybody. These schemes are usually based upon the maxim that it is wise to concentrate one's own masses against the fragments of the enemy. This rather obvious maxim is repeated time and again, as if it were not apt to occur to any one besides General Beauregard himself. The maxims of war are simple enough, the difficulty lies in their application. There is nothing in the retreat from Corinth, and still less in the retreat before Sherman through South Carolina, to show exceptional readiness or skill on the part of the Confederate leader in the application of his own maxim. But so large were the views of General Beauregard that they were seldom confined to his own department. He was ever ready, without solicitation, to prove to his superiors, from the President down, that he knew their business better than they did themselves, and Colonel Roman is never tired of assuring us that the result of the war would have been different if General Beauregard's genius had been allowed full scope. Prophet-like, Beauregard continued to deliver his message, whether heeded or not; and even when the Confederacy was *in extremis*, and when all his energy should have been directed to concentrating the troops of his department on Sherman's front, he found time to say to Mr. Davis: "I earnestly urge a concentration, in time, of at least 35,000 infantry and artillery, at Salisbury, if possible, to give him battle there and crush him; then to concentrate all forces against Grant, and then to march on Washington to dictate a peace. . . ." Colonel Roman zealously defends this proposition against the criticisms of Badeau, who attributed it to ill health. Sometimes a man's enemies are kinder than his friends.

General Beauregard's ideas of official propriety were in some respects singular. He early became engaged in controversy with Mr. Davis about his report of the first battle of Manassas, to which he prefixed unnecessary and improper statements. Most remarkable, however, is the complaint made about his removal from command after his retreat from Corinth. The Confederate army had just fallen back before overwhelming forces, the Mississippi seemed about to fall into Federal hands. It was the first of June, when the Union armies might be expected to push their advantage with increasing vigor. At this juncture, without conference, and without any notice beyond a telegraphic despatch to his Government, General Beauregard proposed to leave his army, on a surgeon's certificate, to seek rest and recuperation at a distant watering-place. General Bragg, the next officer in rank, had been ordered elsewhere by his Government, but General Beauregard retained him, turned over the command to him, and actually left his post for the purpose indicated. The Richmond authorities promptly relieved Beauregard and placed Bragg permanently in command, and yet Colonel Roman, with the sanction of General Beauregard, bitterly complains of the injustice and harshness of the Confederate Administration! Mr. Davis has always been represented as being possessed of no little infirmity of temper, but after reading this book we have come to the conclusion that his faults in this respect have been grossly exaggerated.

Colonel Roman's book is so filled with indiscriminate praise of General Beauregard, and indiscriminate blame of nearly everybody else, is so taken up with showing what "might have been," and in pointing out how it was always somebody else's fault that General Beauregard's splendid schemes failed of their end—how, for instance, it was the lack of the car-load of generals, which was denied him, that paralyzed the Confederates at Shiloh; how it was Whiting that saved Butler from ruin at Petersburg; how it was Hood alone that destroyed the Confederate army in Tennessee; how it was Hardee that lingered in Charleston so long as to defeat a concentration in Sherman's front—that we are apt to lose sight of General Beauregard's real achievements. These were solid. The defence of Charleston, on which General Beauregard's military reputation will rest most firmly, was a fine exhibition of engineering skill and of indomitable energy and determination. It will give him a high rank among military engineers long after the extravagant claims set up by Colonel Roman in regard to his skill as a strategist shall have been forgotten.

MINOR FAUST-LITERATURE.

Goethe und Kein Ende. Rede bei Antritt des Rectorats der Königl. Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität zu Berlin am 15 October 1882 gehalten von Emil du Bois-Reymond. Leipzig. 1883.

Die vegetarische Weltanschauung in Goethe's Faust. Vortrag gehalten am 22 Januar 1883 im Musiksaale der Königlichen Universität zu Breslau von Max Engelmann. Breslau. 1883.

Das Buch Hiob und Goethe's Faust. Vortrag gehalten im Kaufmännischen Verein zu Darmstadt von Dr. Julius Landsberger. Darmstadt. 1882.

PROFESSOR DU BOIS-REYMOND'S address consists of several lines of reflection suggested by passages in "Faust," and is especially interesting as containing the conclusions of its author concerning the merits of Goethe as a scientific investigator. Commenting first upon the saying of Mephistopheles:

> "Grau, theurer Freund, ist alle Theorie,
> Und grün des Lebens goldner Baum,"

the speaker points out the real diabolism of such doctrine for the university student, and then passes on to notice the fact that Goethe is constantly pressing this antithesis between theory and life, and always at the expense of the former. He is forever preaching his gospel of practical activity and physical enjoyment, and seeming to set these above mental toil and the joys of the lonely thinker. But surely the mass of men are sufficiently inclined to pleasure by nature, and as for work, they are compelled to it. How then is Goethe's oft-repeated counsel to be justified or even understood? By way of answering this question the address propounds a theory that Goethe's gospel of work was due to an original defect in his own endowment. Instead of possessing that perfect equilibrium of powers which has been so much wondered at, he was by nature indolent, and his philosophy of life was influenced by his own conscientious effort to overcome this weakness. He assumed that others were like himself, and hence his frequent and urgent advice, so superfluous to the great majority, "resolut zu leben." (But the question is, after all, whether laziness like that of Goethe is not a more widely diffused fact of human nature than the Berlin professor supposes.)

Attention is then drawn to the "psychological untruth" of Faust's character. He purposes to end his life because he sees that "we can know nothing." But the will to live is always stronger than the desire of knowledge, and then, too, Faust's *ignorabimus* has no sense. He believes from the outset in a spirit-world, he talks with spirits, yet he professes to be in doubt about a future life, and he bewails the loss of his early religious faith. What need of faith in one for whom sight has already solved the all-important questions? Or why should one who is cheek by jowl with a personal devil refuse, when catechized by Margaret, to admit a personal God? The explanation offered for these incongruities—and it may be said in passing that neither the difficulty nor the solution is at all new—is that the supernaturalism in "Faust" is a part of its sixteenth-century *costume*; beneath the costume we find people of a later time.

The discussion of Goethe's scientific standing comes apropos of the lines in "Faust" beginning:

> "Ihr Instrumente freilich spottet mein."

It is remarked that these lines express Goethe's deep-seated aversion to the methods of the laboratory—that is, to physical experiment and the mathematical treatment of the same. This aversion is the occasion of the polemic against Newton. What Goethe lacked—so Du Bois-Reymond judges—was the idea of mechanical causality, an idea which from the very nature of the human mind must lie at the basis of physical science. But Goethe took no interest in causes. He confined himself to a purely graphical description of facts, or, in his experimenting, he merely tried to bring one phenomenon out of another and to note the result in much the same temper as one watches the transformation of one cloud-image into another. In spite, there-

fore, of Goethe's undoubted successes in lines of investigation where this sense of mechanical causality is of less importance, and where the artistic sense of form is available as an instrument of research, that is to say, in animal and plant morphology. Du Bois-Reymond is of the opinion that "without Goethe's efforts science would be just as far advanced as it now is." Objection is made to Haeckel's regarding Goethe as a precursor of Darwin; for though the poet certainly had the idea of the kinship or common descent of all living forms, yet the essential and important thing was not to get hold of this idea, but to find the proofs of it. From Darwinism, as we understand it, Goethe would have turned away in disgust. But what need any one care—the address asks in conclusion—about the exact value of Goethe's scientific studies? Like the poetry of Frederick the Great, the science of Goethe should be allowed to rest, and not be continually extolled to the uncritical multitude to the provocation of those who know better.

Thoroughly pleasant is the impression which Herr Engelmann's address leaves upon the mind, although an attempt to present Goethe as an apostle of vegetarianism might seem in advance a little precarious. But the vegetarianism of Herr Engelmann, we are assured, is no mere question of the stomach: it is a "poetic principle in the fullest sense of the word"; the "only possible solution of the social question"; an "important philosophy which is now victoriously advancing everywhere, opposing itself alike to fantastic idealism and to crass materialism." After a preliminary clearing of the ground, Herr Engelmann defines the vegetarian position about as follows: We can recognize no better or higher aim in life than to enjoy that life with every fibre of our being to the last breath, and that the rather since the most of us do not believe in a future life for the individual. The gaining of eternal bliss does not interest us, since we can form no conception of it, and the idea of non-existence affords us an equal satisfaction. The earth, in its manifoldness, suffices us. Nature is our paradise, for we understand her language and submit ourselves joyfully to her laws. That which others call the universe or God, we silently honor as the Eternal Riddle. For the vegetarian, therefore, as for Faust, the supreme question is the question of enjoyment; and, like Faust, he finds this at last in simply accepting the human situation, ignorance and pain included, and going briskly to work for the comfort of his neighbors. Herr Engelmann goes through the entire drama, to conclude ultimately that it is "a history of the development of the vegetarian—that is, of the healthy, natural philosophy which shuts out all extremes."

Rabbi Landsberger's oration draws an interesting parallel between "Faust" and the book of Job. Each poem has its prologue in heaven. Each is founded upon a popular religious saga already in existence. Both heroes are tempted by the devil in the direction of moral ruin, and the devil is in each case commissioned by the Lord, with definite restriction of powers. In the one case, the tempter's instrument is misfortune; in the other, it is pleasure. Both heroes succumb temporarily, and both are finally saved by one and the same power—namely, love.

When one sees what all can be, with more or less plausibility, read out of or read into Goethe's wonderful drama, one is reminded of the Manager's words in the prelude:

"Ein jeder sucht sich endlich selbst was aus.
Wer vieles bringt, wird manchem etwas bringen,
Und jeder geht zufrieden aus dem Haus."

Mozart. By Dr. F. Gehring. [Hueffer's Great Musicians Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

Dr. Gehring's monograph on Mozart consists of 130 pages, and forms a useful addition to Dr. Hueffer's series of musical biographies. It does not contain much that is new, but collates the well-known facts, with occasionally an excessive regard for insignificant dates and details. The greater part of the book relates to Mozart's early life, which gives rise to the suspicion that the author commenced his work on too large a scale, and was subsequently forced to economize space. But the truth is, that more is known of Mozart's childhood than of that of any other composer, owing to the preservation of the valuable family correspondence; while later in life his operas and concert pieces did not receive that attention in the political and musical press which similar compositions would receive at present. Mozart enjoyed considerable popularity during his lifetime, but few had an idea of the greatness of his genius. Among his chief admirers were Haydn and Gluck. On one occasion, after playing the violin part in some new quartets, Mozart taking the viola, Haydn exclaimed to Mozart's father: "I tell you, by God, and as an honest man, that I acknowledge your son to be the greatest composer of whom I have ever heard; he has taste, and possesses the most thorough knowledge of composition." And it is reported that his great rival and enemy, Salieri, said, after Mozart's death: "It is indeed a pity for the great genius, but well for us, that he is dead; for, had he lived longer, no one would have given us a crust of bread for our compositions." At the present day no one would give a crust of bread for a composition of Salieri's, nor for the opera "Cosa Rara," by a musician named Martin, which supplanted Mozart's "Figaro" after its ninth performance. Very curious are the opinions passed on an earlier opera, "Die Entführung aus dem Serail," which has now almost completely disappeared from the stage, as its music appears too "thin" for modern taste. In 1782 it was judged differently. "A great deal too many notes, my dear Mozart," said the Emperor; and Mozart replied, "Exactly as many notes as are necessary, your Majesty." It was also urged that the accompaniment overpowered the singers! These criticisms probably originated among the ancient Greeks the first time a voice was accompanied by one or two instruments in unison, and have been urged ever since against every noted composer by his contemporaries. And yet it is often asserted that man is a reasoning animal, who learns by experience to avoid the follies of his ancestors.

Those things in Mozart's compositions which were most severely criticised in his day we now admire most; and those which he wrote to please his contemporaries are consigned to oblivion. That he often did make concessions to the prevailing taste is clear, and we have his own word for it. His father once urged him to bear in mind the unmusical public, and not forget the "Popolare," that tickles long ears. Mozart replied, "Do not trouble about the 'Popolare,' for in my operas there is music for all sorts of people, not excepting those with long ears." The necessity of working for a living and attaining a certain amount of popularity may excuse these concessions to some extent; but to us they render many of Mozart's works, despite occasional tidbits, unpalatable in their entirety. It might be supposed that the excitement-loving, pessimistic audiences of our day would be fond of Mozart for a change; but his uninterrupted good humor and placidity are almost exasperating. Perhaps they would be more relished were it not for the monotonous, stereotyped cadences which break up his compositions into regular eight-bar divisions, like the independent segments of some of the lowest animals, which are not inseparably united with the rest of the body, but are capable of leading an independent life if severed from it. Owing to their artificial, *inorganic* form, most of Mozart's pianoforte compositions and symphonies are dead, notwithstanding the exquisite passages which many of them contain. He will live chiefly through some of his chamber compositions and his three best operas: "Don Juan," "Magic Flute," "Figaro." These have in them the elements of immortality, and are at present, in Germany, second in popularity to Wagner's operas only. In the last act of "Don Juan," Mozart forsakes his lyric boundaries, and his style distinctly foreshadows the modern music-drama. He died at thirty-five. Had he lived another thirty-five years, and accepted the offer of the King of Prussia at a salary of 3,000 thalers, instead of starving and working himself to death in ungrateful Vienna, we might now have a dozen more "Don Juans," some of which would perhaps equal "Lohengrin" in dramatic truthfulness. For Mozart was essentially a dramatic composer, whose inspiration warmed with the intensity and interest of the situation. His chief mission was to irrigate the rich harmonic fields of German music with the limpid stream of Italian melody. He did little to develop musical form; but he advanced the art of instrumentation by many new and beautiful devices. He cultivated every branch of his art, but has been surpassed in every branch by other composers—by Beethoven, Schumann, Rubinstein, in chamber music and symphonies; by Weber and Wagner in opera. Schubert is a more original melodist; Bach, Chopin, Schumann, Liszt, and Wagner more profound harmonists.

Scientific Results of the Vega Expedition. (Vega-expeditionen vetenskapliga iakttagelser). 8vo, pp. 516, 32 pl. Stockholm, 1883.

The second volume of the observations and results of the *Vega* expedition around Europe and Asia has lately been issued, and in the variety and interest of its contents is not inferior to the first volume, which we have previously noticed in these columns. The contents, except when otherwise noted, are in the Swedish language, but will be translated into German for wider circulation ere long. Dr. Kjellman opens the volume by an account of the flowering plants of St. Lawrence Island, Alaska. One hundred and thirteen species are noted, of which eleven belong to the grasses and nine each to the Ranunculaceæ and Compositæ. Fifty-one species are common to Spitzbergen, and sixty-two to East Greenland; three new forms are figured. This is followed by an account of the plants of West Eskimo-land, in which the collection is compared with Seemann's memoir contained in the botany of the *Herald's* voyage. A new Draba is figured.

Nordqvist follows with an account of the mammals of the Siberian coasts. Interesting details are given in regard to the wild and tame reindeer, and the little tame reindeer of the north of Europe are compared with the fine animals of the Chukchi. The Chukchi hare, a new variety of the Arctic *Lepus timidus*, is figured and described. A bat is supposed to inhabit Chukchi-land, but in view of the absence of trees or caves, and the severity of the winter climate, this must be considered doubtful until specimens are obtained. The snow sheep of Eschscholtz (*Ovis nivicola*), which was heard of but not seen by them, is doubtfully referred to as *Ovis montana*, the American form, which it certainly is not. Altogether the region shows (not including whales) twenty-nine species, of

which seventeen or eighteen are truly terrestrial.

Dr. Nathorst contributes an important memoir on the fossil plants of Japan, illustrated by sixteen fine plates. Seventy-seven species are mentioned or described, of which about thirty per cent. are common to the leaf-bearing strata of Alaska.

Lieutenant Nordqvist gives us a general account of the language, religion, and physical characteristics of the Chukchi. Much of this has appeared elsewhere. He found the average height of the men to be about five feet five inches, and of the women five feet and half an inch. The height varied, however, among men from five feet eleven to four feet eleven inches, and among the women from five feet eight and a half inches to four feet eight and a half inches. Experience further south with the inland Chukchi gives the impression that they are taller, on the whole, than the above inhabitants of the Arctic coast. The proportions of the skull also varied from extreme dolichocephaly to sub-brachycephaly, as has been observed by previous travellers. Indeed, many of the heads of these curious people, especially among the Karaks, their near relatives and neighbors, seem almost unnaturally distorted, and would drive a phrenologist to despair.

Otto Pettersson reports on the properties of water and ice, and on the hydrography of the Siberian Sea, in the English language. The former paper excited much attention among hydrographers when a summary in Swedish first appeared under the auspices of the Academy at Stockholm. We have here the full report, written with admirable lucidity. The author devised special instruments for his investigations, and accompanied the Swedish expedition to Spitzbergen for the purpose of settling some moot points. Among the more important researches contained in it are those on the changes of volume of pure and impure water and ice under changing temperatures. Sea ice is found to expand enormously from the freezing point down to a certain temperature, which depends on the chemical impurities contained in the water. A very small admixture of saline matters alters in an extraordinary degree the physical properties of the ice. From the undefined point above mentioned, sea ice slowly contracts. Pure ice, on the other hand, expands from the freezing point to a point less than a degree lower, when it begins to contract slowly but continuously, and with great regularity. Hence the crushing and fissuring of salt ice by sudden fall in temperature is ascribed by Pettersson, not to contraction (as formerly supposed, and as is the case in fresh-water ice), but to the great expansion of the upper layers, away from the sea water. It was the opinion until recently that in the process of freezing the ice excluded its salts, and that such as remained in it were merely mechanically-entangled particles of brine or salt-crystals. Pettersson shows that ocean water is divided by the process of freezing into two saliniferous parts, a solid and a liquid, of different chemical constitution. The ice is richer in sulphates, the brine in chlorides. Cryohydrates also form in crystals almost as stable as the ice itself. Time and changes of temperature continue in the ice the processes which were begun in the water, and more and more of the chlorides are eliminated. Sea ice is the reverse of homogeneous, and in a state of nature is subject to constant change. A factor in the climate of the Arctic regions which has been overlooked is pointed out to exist in the latent heat given out by water at the moment of freezing. The water of the Gulf Stream, for instance, may arrive in the Arctic seas with a temperature of 32° F. only, yet on freezing, the latent heat given out (which has actually been carried from the tropics) must modify to a certain extent the superincumbent atmosphere.

In his second paper Pettersson discusses the hydrography of the Kara Sea and of the Siberian Sea. In the latter the main mass of the fresh water derived from any one of the large Siberian rivers was always found somewhat eastward from its mouth, while an influx of cold bottom water from northward was always drawn in to fill the vacancy. This indicates the easterly set of these waters beyond controversy. At Bering Strait the observations were rather sparse, but indicated the absence of any polar current. The aborigines stated that in autumn and winter the current through the strait was in a southerly direction, at other times it was the reverse of this. The warmest water encountered by the *Vega* in Bering Strait, away from the direct influence of the shores, was 45° F. (6.5 C.), which agrees very well with the Coast Survey observations.

Dr. Wirén discusses the Chætopod annelids of the expedition at considerable length, and his paper is illustrated by several plates. Several new or particularly interesting forms were obtained. Dr. Wijkander contributes a first paper on the magnetics of the *Vega* party, which is in the French language. Observations were made at twelve stations besides those in Sweden. They present nothing remarkable. At Pitlekai the diurnal variations were intermediate between the true Arctic and temperate types. The principal easterly maximum occurred at 9 A. M., and 9 P. M. There was a weak westerly maximum about 2 P. M. These results accord with those of Mr. Marcus Baker, of the U. S. Coast Survey, taken at various points in the adjacent region. The concluding paper of the volume, by Arvid Lindhagen, summarizes the determinations of latitude and time for localities between Nova Zembla and Bering Strait.

George Washington. By John Habberton, author of 'Helen's Babies,' etc. [Lives of American Worthies.] Henry Holt & Co. 1884. Pp. 345.

IN the preface to this work we find a justification of the aim and style of this "unconventional" series of books, with much of which we agree. We, too, would paint men and things as they were, without overmuch regard to the dignity of the historic muse; and we agree that Washington, like other heroes of the series, has suffered from being treated too much like "a tea-shop chromo." We do not suppose that the projectors of the series really intended "to belittle the great personages of American history." On the other hand, we cannot agree that famous men should be *written* about "in the manner that is the rule in familiar conversation about historic characters." Much easy rhetoric and off-hand jesting does very well in "familiar conversation," which reads poorly enough: just as we would not paint the portrait of Washington as he looked when just returned from a ride in a hot spring day over the muddy acres of his plantation. Mr. Habberton tells the story of Washington's life for the most part in good style and with an excellent spirit; but if some friend could have gone over his manuscript and run his pen through all the passages which appear to have been called out by the special requirements of the series, his book would have been vastly improved. It would then have been really an unconventional sketch; the funny parts are generally conventional. For example (p. 116), where Washington, "in his anger, even dashed his hat upon the ground, which was very injudicious, for new hats were not easy to get just then"—the joke is good enough in itself, and the fact it alludes to is worth mentioning; but the introduction of the joke at this point interrupts the narrative and diverts the attention of the reader. But we will do Mr. Habberton the justice to say that in the main he has kept his disposition to joke very well under control.

Wisdom, Wit, and Pathos of Ouida's Works. By F. Sidney Morris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

A VOLUME of extracts from "Ouida's" novels has at least the advantage of showing how small a proportion of her work will bear quotation, after the descriptions are counted out. These have always been recognized as beautiful and vivid; but of the good things we have in novels, good description (except of character) is the most abundant, so we care the less to have it cut out for us. Of such selections in general, there is a word needful as to the difference between taking from such an author as Ruskin (who was one of the first to be served up in this way), and from any writer of fiction. Of the first class, all comes from the writer's own standpoint. In a novel, he may speak in his own person or in that of any character, from the villain to the saint; so that the quotations, given as they must be without reference, may do gross injustice to the writer, as well as be false to reason and right.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, R. C. History of the United States in Rhyme. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 60 cents.
Alcott, Dr. W. A. Tea and Coffee. Fowler & Wells. 25 cents.
A Fool's Paradise: a Story of Fashionable Life in Washington. In rhyme. Washington: W. H. Morrison. 25 cents.
Ashton, John. The Adventures and Discovrses of Captain John Smith. Printed in old-style type. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Barnes's New National Readers. Nos. 1, 2, and 3. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Barnes, T. W. The Life of Thurlow Weed. Vol II. Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50 per set.
Blackburn, F. A. The Essentials of Latin Grammar. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.10.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 113-120. B. Westermann & Co.
Caird, Sir J. India: The Land and the People. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Caton, J. D. The Antelope and Deer of America. Second edition. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.
Croker, B. M. Pretty Miss Neville. A novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Delitzsch, Dr. F. The Hebrew Language Viewed in the Light of Assyrian Research. London: Williams & Norgate.
Draheim, H. Deutsche Reime. Inschriften des 15. Jahrhunderts und der folgenden. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung.
Ebstein, Dr. W. Corpulence and its Treatment on Physiological Principles. Brentano Bros.
Farm Conveniences. 212 illustrations. Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
Fricke, F. W. Erziehungs- und Unterrichtslehre. Mannheim: J. Bensheimer.
Green, J. R. The Conquest of England. Harper & Brothers.
Guyot, A. Creation, or the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of Modern Science. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Harland, Marion. Cookery for Beginners. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
High, J. L. A Treatise on Extraordinary Legal Remedies, embracing Mandamus, Quo Warranto, and Prohibition. Second edition. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Household Conveniences: being the Experience of Many Practical Writers. 220 illustrations. Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
Hudson, J. R. Tables for Calculating the Cubic Contents of Excavations and Embankments. John Wiley & Sons. 75 cents.
Jeans, W. T. The Creators of the Age of Steel. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Lowell, E. J. The Hessians and the Other German Auxiliaries of Great Britian in the Revolutionary War. Harper & Brothers.
McCarthy, J. A Short History of Our Own Times. Harper & Brothers.
McCosh, James. Locke's Theory of Knowledge with a Notice of Berkeley. Philosophical series. No. V. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
The Miz Maze, or the Winkworth Puzzle. A Story in Letters, by Nine Authors. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Thorold, Rev. A. W. The Yoke of Christ in the Duties and Circumstances of Life. $1.25.
Toy, Prof. C. H. Quotations in the New Testament. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.50.
Tracy, R. S. Hand-book of Sanitary Information for Householders. D. Appleton & Co.
Tufts, J. H. Rote-Songs of the Normal Music Course, with Accompaniments for the Pianoforte. D. Appleton & Co.
Turgenieff, Ivan. Mumu: and the Diary of a Superfluous Man. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Williams, R. E. Cremation and other Modes of Sepulture. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.

Worman, Prof. J. H., and Monsanto, Prof. H. M. First Spanish Book. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Fine Arts.

MR. WALTERS'S ART GALLERY.

THE collection of pictures and Oriental bronzes, carvings, enamels, etc., etc., made by Mr. W. T. Walters has long been famous to connoisseurs as containing some of the most valuable examples of various branches of art, Eastern and Western, known to collectors. It opened last week to invited guests, and has been placed at the disposal of the Decorative Art Society on the Wednesdays of March and April, for public exhibition for charitable purposes. It is, for this hemisphere, unique and likely to remain so, and should, for its pictures alone, be sufficient to make any man famous, not only for its catholicity and the intrinsic value of the individual pictures, but for the number of pictures which have become classic or are known to be the *chefs d'œuvre* of their respective painters. There is Delaroche's small repetition of the Hemicycle of the École des Beaux Arts, the work which more than any other in existence represents the learning of the school of which Delaroche was one of the most illustrious examples, and at the same time the highest success in modern times of distinctly academical work in painting. The excessive (and in our way of thinking, disastrous) devotion rendered to the purely personal and individual qualities of art has brought Delaroche into a comparative neglect, which far more than balances the high popularity he attained in the day when he painted his "Queen Elizabeth," the "Princes in the Tower," and other works which were grateful to common-sense people bewildered by the state to which French Renaissance painters had brought their art, but who were not prepared to accept the romanticism of Delacroix or to consider the *tant soit peu* panoramic and realistic painting of Horace Vernet as true art. Delaroche was a distinct painter of history, but, as fortune would have it, rather a painter of historical ideals than of historical incidents. In the "Death of Queen Elizabeth" it was the type and character of the Queen which he rendered, without concerning himself in the least to procure, after the manner of the restorers of to-day, Elizabethan furniture for the room. He had intellectual rather than artistic ideals to realize, and while his work lacks the *brio* of such men as Delacroix, Géricault, Decamps, and other passionate painters, he had a serene and certain power, and a secure method which was far from weak or even without a certain technical inspiration. He was, in fact, a strong, deliberate painter, who united the best traditions of the Academy to great technical powers and thorough appreciation of the dignity and worth of orthodox Italian art, without being, like Ingres, a devotee to it. In the Hemicycle what imposes on criticism and makes the picture, in spite of its spectacular quality and its being composed entirely of second-hand material, a work of great and true art, is the nobility of pose and action of all the *picturæ personæ*, and the way in which the composer has managed the very difficult undertaking of grouping together an enormous assemblage of distinguished men, of whom none shall be permitted to lose their distinction, none shall be awkward, and none depreciated. Raphael alone, in the "School of Athens," has succeeded as well in such an undertaking, and he had liberty of choice in material, costume, type, and personalities which Delaroche had not. Every figure in Delaroche's picture is a portrait, in accordance with the best authority known, and this alone will show how great the difficulties and the success of the work. The *esthétique* of the work was inevitably sacrificed to a certain extent to such various and rigorous conditions as were imposed on the subject, but is still far from weak, the drawing of the figures being in many cases very beautiful, and the composition of the various groups dramatic and harmonious at once. The Hemicycle is too well known to need description or criticism, but it is a consolation, in the day of a morbid quest of individuality, often running into sheer and mere eccentricity, to look at work which was conceived in the Olympian calm and carried out in the gravity and deliberateness of this. It is a perpetual lesson to our petty, sparkling geniuses, inculcating the value of academic routine and hard unflinching labor.

The collection is rich not only in having good examples of various schools, but pictures which have marked phases of these schools and which belong to the history of art—part of the documents on which our art education has been based. Some of our readers can remember vividly the advent of the Düsseldorf Gallery here, and would recognize a marine, by A. Achenbach, which was one of its most striking pictures, and is now in Mr. Walters's collection. Others will recognize the "Lost Illusions" of Gleyre, the galley floating away into the twilight—visionary barque charged with angelic forms, the illusions of youth and hope, drifting into the land of dreams, the twilight of memory; a pathetic and poetical picture, as remote from the realism of our present art as the Hemicycle. Here, too, is the "Edict of Charles V.," by Baron Leys, one of the few modern painters to whom it has been given to produce a new type in art, and who stands alone among European painters of his time as master of that rare and precious quality in historical painting, the dramatic unity of his assemblages. A certain archaic manner of being, a resuscitated air, as if the company had just left the palace of the Sleeping Beauty, marks his personages and gives the picture the air of an awaking of the Middle Ages; but it derives from the inherent vitality and dramatic conception of the whole that this antique exterior strikes one with such vivid force. The composition seems but a chance market crowd, suddenly struck motionless by enchantment, every one where his own purposes had led him, with nothing academic or artificial in the getting together, but with such coherence as might be expected from a vivid imagination striking out the whole picture instantly. And the huddled, antique town behind has the same air, and makes one wish that Netherlandish towns were now what they once were. Of Isabey, one of the strong, original painters of the picturesque of the French school, antiquated now, having taken his first medal in 1824, there is a fine bit of dancing sea, with a fishing boat painted in a style which goes with that of Dupré, and two drawings which are admirable in their freedom and picturesqueness. Ary Scheffer contributes a drawing for the "Temptation on the Mount," a picture long become classic, in spite of great technical shortcomings, for its singular expression of the spiritual nature in the physical form; and another for the "Dante and Beatrice," of which Mr. C. C. Perkins has the finished picture.

Of Jules Breton a charming little picture shows his happiest vein, "The Close of the Day," two women standing in the sunset light, resting on their rakes in the grain field; and another, better in technique if not in subject, a girl coming down a sloping path with a jar of water, of which the landscape is excellently painted. A Calame, "The Jungfrau," is another of those distinctive forms of art which have in their time had their part in making the landscape painting of the day. Of these the painter painted few and is better known by his lithographs, of which he did many. But no gallery of modern art could be complete which had not a Calame. To Jalabert is credited a picture which is known as widely as any modern religious picture, the "Christian Martyr" of Delaroche, whose the original is (this being a replica commenced by Delaroche and completed by Jalabert); one of those few works of Delaroche's later time when, feeling the shadow of death coming, he began to paint pictures that expressed the deep religious feeling with which he awaited the eclipse—a sweet dead face of a young girl this, floated by the river as she drifts, with her hands tied, down the current, the halo of martyrdom above her head.

A flower piece and fruit piece of Saint Jean are models of true flower painting, and can hardly be surpassed in this vein, modest and naturalistic at its best. Nothing can tell better the transparency of the rose leaf, its fragility, and the moist heart of the full-blown flower, or the delicacy and perfect botanical character of a buttercup, given without laboriousness or loss of any most delicate trait.

Of Millet there is a magnificent picture, the "Flax Dresser," strongly marked by the painter's best qualities, exquisite in color, superb in action, and in execution all that he could make a picture; then a landscape—a wheat-field with a single figure seated, sharpening his scythe, a canvas full of harvest gold; and a group of figures, "potato harvesters," scarcely less fine than the flax dresser, but darker in tone and less simple in composition. Besides these there are several chalk drawings by Millet, most interesting as showing how he approaches his subject.

Of another school is a remarkable drawing by Green, member of the Old Water Color Society of London, "The Derby Day," one of those dramatic mob-pieces, huddles of men, women, and children of all classes and types, of which Hogarth set the example, and which no art has ever handled so well as the English—half literary, half naturalistic.

Of Alma-Tadema, a much overrated man, we are convinced, there are several examples, of which the Sappho, much belauded by English literary journals, is the worst. Alcæus reads to Sappho in a Greek theatre, the marble seats of which are so well painted that the figures make blots in the picture, and are lost and pale before the realism of the mere matter. No great painter ever made such a blunder. A small picture, "My Sister is Not Here," a theme borrowed from that true poet, Hamon, who told it with infinitely greater grace, is the best in painting, and least objectionable in its treatment throughout, of the seven pictures by this painter which Mr. Walters possesses, and is perhaps as good an example of his art as one could have. The "Catullus" is overloaded with detail of the still-life kind, and very much undercharged with animation and dramatic feeling. Of Gérôme, the best of the four (and to our mind, one of the painter's best) is an Arab boy holding two greyhounds in a leash on the desert—everything admirably painted, from the great drifted sandhills to the sharp-nosed hounds and the wind-blown garments of the boy. It looks alive, dogs and keeper alike.

The catholicity of Mr. Walters's collection is not one merely of schools, but of tastes. Difficult indeed must be the man who finds nothing here which satisfies his ideal. An important landscape by Durand, a South American sunset by Church, landscapes by J. M. Hart and H. B. Jones, figure subjects by Darley, Eastman Johnson, and Woodville, portraits by Elliott, Stuart, Stone, and Baker, with statuary by Palmer

and by Rinehart, a sculptor whose brief career, so full of achievement and promise of better, owed its spring to Mr. Walters's appreciation, represent American art, though the example of Church is hardly one which represents the best side of that original painter.

Among the more important works is a small picture by Decamps, "The Suicide," which, though not indicating the great power of the artist, is very remarkable for the massive effect of light and shade and its extraordinary facility of execution. The dead man lies on his cot, with a burst of sunshine falling on his chest and shoulder—a warm golden light, beyond which all is deep mysterious shadow, almost in monochrome, and in vigor of execution and chiaroscuro like a Rembrandt. De Neuville and Detaille are both present in characteristic and good examples. Both are of the class of painters whom we gauge more by what they tell than by how they tell it; truth of representation necessarily takes precedence of style where they cannot walk together, and probably the whole field of art contains no other work so true to the details of war as the works of these two painters. A shade of idealism in conception or treatment, or even a strong idiosyncrasy in the latter, would damage *pro tanto* the realism of such painting, which (not necessarily in the low sense of realistic treatment) is an essential to its success. Even the dash and rapidity of execution, which is, in De Neuville, so marked, helps by sympathy the impression of hurry and struggle which are indispensable as an element in battle-painting. A battle-piece in the deliberate and minute execution of Chavet or Plassan would hardly impress us as an event of actual occurrence, as do the pictures of these painters. Of their master, and the leader, in order of time, if not of talent, of realistic battle-painters, Horace Vernet, there is also in Mr. Walters's collection a picture which had already in 1830 determined the type of battle-painting. That which divides broadly Vernet and his school from the battle painters of earlier times is not the studying of the actual accessories, as against the nude heroics of David, because Benjamin West had already painted a battle in which this was done, but in the utter rejection of all the conventions of composition or treatment; and if an arrangement is invented it is a case of the rule of *ars celare artem*—the study to arrange must not be suspected.

In passing, we wish to put in a protest against the use of this maxim in the universal application generally given. Latin æsthetics were very one-sided, and made little if any distinction between *art* and *artifice*, so that unless we may accept the sense of the dictum as that the perfection of artifice is to conceal the artifice employed, it becomes a complete misleader. True art, in the sense of the quest of the ideal, cannot be hidden—no one could for a moment imagine that a landscape of Turner, a composition of Raphael, or a picture of Delacroix portrayed something that happened *just so*. And the higher and more unusual the character of the art, the further it divides itself from the mock presentment of the thing represented. The noblest composition is that in which the harmonies of line and form are carried to the greatest perfection, though we know that no accidental grouping can approach the best of art, and the color of a great colorist is the more perfect the further it is removed (always being in harmony and pure) from the actual color of nature. If it were necessary to insist further, the aid of the analogies of art may be called in, for as singing (*e. g.*, opera) is not, and cannot be, even in its simplest forms, confounded with speech, so its analogue, color, in its distinctive art relations, cannot be for an instant confounded with realistic painting. In Mr. Walters's gallery one sees this practically in the comparison between the Neuville and the Delacroix which hangs not far away. Delacroix's is also a battle-piece, but one feels in it none of the emotion which the realistic battle-piece is intended to raise. The colorist translates his "combat" into a world where only the emotions proper to art can come: his combatants have a "go" which is fury and dramatic passion, but we know all the time, as we do when we see a scene in tragic opera, that there is nothing coming of it. Illusion, horror, grief, and tears belong to the lower arts, where, only, illusion is possible. Delacroix's work is one of the unfailing line of protests of the ideal against the materialistic tendencies of art. As the ideal is truer than the actual, so too is idealism in art truer than realism—deception is not among its ends.

Another great name in the French school was that of Couture, who contributes to the collection a characteristic picture, allegorical, which was a weakness of the painter, and always a mistake in one in whom the technical ability dominates; but the peculiar system and facility of Couture may be well studied in it, and its technical qualities are sufficient without the allegory, or rather in spite of it. No picture should need explanation in words, and literary art is generally the weakest in its final hold on us, as it is generally the resource of inferior artistic faculties.

Belgian art is represented by Leys, Willems, Van Marcke, Van der Helst, Gallait, one of the most noteworthy of the historical school of the past generation, and Clays; German by the Achenbachs, Becker, Hiddeman, Kurzbauer, Pettenkofen, Preyer, Múnkacsy, Müller; Spanish by Zamacoïs (with a picture which shows all the bloody and repulsive excellence of the realistic art), Jiminez, Fortuny (with a piece of audacity which does not succeed in being artistic, a portrait on a flat vermilion background, chosen evidently for its difficulty, and not overcoming it), and Villegas (by a piece of brilliant, gem-like realistic painting); English by the Green already mentioned; a Wm. Hunt still-life (water-color); a Millais which the artist would never have allowed to leave his study if he cared more for his reputation than for his pocket; Herring; and an ambitious and theatrical picture by the most singularly overrated painter, so far as we know, in England, Briton Riviere. This is called "Syria, the Night Watch," an old lion prowling in the moonlight among some ruins, followed by some quadrupeds of which we could not decide whether they were bears or lionesses, but more like the former—all going their rounds like educated beasts in the circus under a stage moonlight and in a stage ruin. It does not possess one of the great qualities of art, and the circus function of the king of beasts must have been suggested by his restless rounds in the cages of the Zoölogical Gardens. The art of Riviere appeals to that shallow literary sentiment which with the English public is more powerful than any perception of art. To turn from these tame wild beasts to Barye's magnificent drawings of animals, of which Mr. Walters has thirteen, besides, among minor bronzes, a magnificent group in bronze, cast in *cire perdue*, of a tiger hunt, tigers and an elephant, is a lesson in art. Here is nature told in an art which has no need of artifice or extraneous sentiment—water-color used as a master uses it, to tell his facts; subtly modelled, every form told as in sculpture, no pettiness, hide-textures, or attempt at realism; the beast *felt* out, his action unchecked, or his lying in wait full of treacherous preparation clearly evident, easy telling of what is too well known to need petty arts to make it pass muster, or moonlight solitudes to make it terrible.

We do not know to what school Knaus assigns himself, but he has given here one of his happiest pictures, "Mud Pies," with a pleasant landscape and his inevitable hogs, in the distance; however, the children as happy and as jolly as can be, painted largely and in the main so well that one can hardly insist on the conventional and mechanical touch which is the same everywhere and not in all cases appropriate. Here is Schreyer, too, hovering between schools and almost, we might say, between good art and claptrap, always repeating himself with immaterial variations. Here, too, is the best picture we can recall of Fromentin, "Camp in the Atlas," a long line of Éd. Frère's peasant biographies, a Vautier, the inevitable Swiss genre painter, unvarying and equable.

But the peculiar triumph of the collection, if one thing may be singled out, is a group of landscapes, the "Givre" of Rousseau, in which with a rapidity and largeness of execution we remember in no other of his pictures, he has challenged Dupré on his own best effect (and to see how well he has succeeded one must go to the gallery's length to study the picture); a Dupré, "The Old Oak," which meets Diaz on his chosen ground, which Diaz might have been glad to own, and which tries the open landscape subject and method of treatment and execution of Rousseau. Except the last, an "Effect of Autumn," they are all large and are all important pictures. Then there is a magnificent Dupré, dated 1836, which has the quality of a Ruysdael. Three excellent Daubignys will only demand repetition of what we had to say of that painter weeks ago; and who visits the collection will be unfortunate if he misses a pen-and-ink drawing of a mass of trees by Rousseau.

A (Not Quite Harmonious) Symposium of Critics.

From the *Critic and Good Literature's* notice of a 'A Latter Day Saint':

"When a story so worthless in all respects as A LATTER DAY SAINT appears with the imprint of reputable publishers, one hesitates whether to ignore or to denounce it. The book is not only naughty, but silly; not only unjust, unjustifiable, but uninteresting; not only bad, but stupid. The critic who is obliged to read a novel of Zola's does not feel himself seriously contaminated. But the reader of A LATTER DAY SAINT feels contaminated through and through with the low, petty, mean, base views of life that it presents. You may throw the book into the fire, but you cannot shake the dust of it from your soul"

From the *Nation's* notice of the same book:

"Opens happily a new series of American novels. Utters philosophy and sarcasm with a piquancy and good temper which recalls Thackeray's lighter manner without echoing it. The amusement afforded by the frank recital of a career glorious or inglorious, according to the point of view, is heightened in that of the conversion."

From the N. Y. *Tribune's* notice of the same book:

"It is deftly put together, its points are well made, and its implied satire is good. The cold and debased glitter which becomes such a story and such a heroine is well preserved throughout. There is not a little art in the consistency with which Ethel's heart of stone and forehead of brass are kept to the fore."

HENRY HOLT & CO., Publishers, N. Y

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 13, 1884.

The Week.

THE decisive vote taken by the Ways and Means Committee on Thursday to report the Morrison Tariff Bill to the House, seems to imply that there is to be no more fooling, and that the Democrats intend to pass it and send it to the Senate at all hazards. If they do so they will have made clear one of the issues upon which the Presidential campaign is to be fought. After electing Mr. Carlisle Speaker on this issue, it would have been fatal to suppress the bill in committee. The people would have taken the party at their own estimate of themselves, and would have said at the polls: "Inasmuch as you have confessed that you do not know what you want, we are sure that we do not want you." Some kind of a bill was as necessary to them as it was to the Republicans in the last Congress. It did not make any great difference what reduction of duties was proposed, but it was indispensable that the promise made should be performed in some way. The bill as it comes from the Committee is not at all startling. It proposes nothing more revolutionary than the Morrill tariff of 1861.

The correspondence about the Lasker resolution has been sent to Congress, and contains nothing of importance which was not already known except Mr. Frelinghuysen's acknowledgment of the return of the resolution. This is simply a dignified repudiation of the idea that the resolution was meant to be anything but a courteous expression of sympathy, and an intimation that he did not see how the presentation of it to the Reichstag could be taken as an endorsement by Prince Bismarck of the political views of Mr. Lasker, but that the Prince's feelings on this point are his own affair. This is really all there is to be said about the matter on our side, and it ought to be allowed to drop here. A quarrel over a man's grave, between two governments, one insisting on expressing sorrow for him to the other, and the other refusing to be sympathized with for any such reason, would be even more ludicrous and unseemly than a similar quarrel between individuals. It is necessary to say this because some people think we ought to resent Prince Bismarck's course by some formal mark of defiance, like the resolutions introduced by Mr. Hiscock in the House of Representatives, and which, we trust, have found their grave in a reference to the Committee on Foreign Affairs. These resolutions declare that the Lasker condolence was "arbitrarily intercepted and returned by a person now holding the position of Chancellor of the German Empire," and intimate that this "person" is a "too powerful subject," "and that he has detracted from the position and prestige of the crown on the one hand, and from the rights of the mandatories of the people on the other," and winds up with a renewed and somewhat fierce tender of sympathy about Mr. Lasker's death. If these resolutions were passed it would convert the mourning over Lasker into something not unlike the fights for the possession of the corpse which now and then take place at Irish funerals.

Whether Prince Bismarck is or is not a "too powerful subject," is, of course, a question for the German Emperor and people to determine; and whether he "arbitrarily intercepted" the resolution is a question for German lawyers and publicists to pass upon. We have nothing to say about either. In sending the resolution to the German Foreign Office, we acknowledged that the Chancellor was the proper medium for its transmission to the Reichstag. If he has improperly withheld it from the Reichstag, it is for the Reichstag, and not for us, to call him to account, and the latest news from Germany shows that those members of the Reichstag who resent his action in the matter are not disposed to be silent about it. In their hands courtesy as well as common sense requires us to leave it. The German Liberals will certainly not be likely to thank the American Congress for undertaking to look after the rights and dignity of the German Parliament, and the German Emperor certainly will not thank us for taking charge of "the position and prestige of the crown," or for trying to prevent Bismarck from encroaching on the Imperial authority.

The abuse of Mr. Sargent by the Berlin press continues, and is undoubtedly officially instigated if not inspired. Combined and persistent attacks of this kind on a foreign minister would certainly not be ventured on in Berlin if they did not receive encouragement from the upper region of the bureaucracy. This of course makes them all the more offensive. Such a mode of getting rid, or attempting to get rid, of an obnoxious minister is something which our Government may well consider as an indication of unfriendliness, and treat accordingly. But it hardly comports with our dignity to expose Mr. Sargent to it in definitely, still less to replace him by anybody in case he is recalled. Keeping a representative at a foreign court is a sign of mutual respect and good feeling. If the mutual respect and good feeling have disappeared, diplomatic relations become as inadvisable as personal intercourse would be between individuals after a serious difference.

Mr. Buckner, of Missouri, Chairman of the Banking and Currency Committee, overrules the legal-tender opinion of the Supreme Court, in an interview published on Friday morning, and declares that not one in ten of the constitutional lawyers of the country will accept it as a correct interpretation of the Constitution. What the constitutional lawyers think about it, however, will have comparatively little immediate practical effect, as neither they nor any one else can reverse the decision; but Mr. Buckner's opinion is vastly more important than it was before the court decided the case, because it is such committees as his, and such members of Congress as himself, who must in future decide whether we are to have a currency redeemable in gold, or a "fiat" currency. He believes that one of the consequences of the opinion will be that the average politician will come to the conclusion that it is a great folly to "maintain a fund of $100,000,000 (coin) to redeem that which needs no redemption, and is money itself (greenbacks)." In other words, it will revive the greenback craze. It does unquestionably give any inflation party, like that which Butler has tried to get up, a weapon that it never had before, and makes it all the more important that Congress should bring silver coinage to an end.

Several constitutional amendments were introduced on Monday in Congress designed to meet the legal-tender decision. Mr. Hewitt's declares that Congress shall not have power to make anything but gold and silver coin legal tender in the payment of debts. This would not prevent Congress from debasing the coin currency. Mr. Potter's takes from Congress the power to make anything but coin a legal tender, except in case of war, but this is open at least to the same objection as the former. Mr. Garland's limits legal-tender Government notes to the sum of $350,000,000, unless an increase is ordered by a two-thirds yea-and-nay vote of both houses of Congress—a measure much more objectionable than either of the others.

Mr. Bayard has gone to the root of the matter, and wishes to have an amendment providing that Congress shall not have power to "make anything but gold and silver coin a legal tender for the payment of debts, nor pass any law impairing the obligations of contracts." That the States should, by the Constitution, be prevented from framing laws impairing the obligations of contracts, while there is no express prohibition against Congress doing this same thing, is one of the strangest anomalies of our Government; and, with the lax system of construction adopted by the Supreme Court, some such amendment may be considered of vital importance. It would, if it were passed, probably prevent not only greenback inflation, but debasement of the currency effected by such causes as the present silver coinage. What the Supreme Court has just decided is that the occasional impairment or destruction of the obligations of contracts between man and man, by means of laws affecting the currency, is one of the sovereign powers incidentally conferred upon Congress by the States. As we cannot reverse the decision, the sooner this power is taken away the better.

On Saturday last the Cotton Exchange of Galveston, by a unanimous vote, passed resolutions urging the Senators and Representatives of the State of Texas to oppose the further coinage of silver dollars on the present basis of valuation. This is the first weighty expression of opinion adverse to silver coinage that has come from any part of the country where the Silver Bill was originally favored.

It happens to come from the quarter which was supposed to be most stubbornly committed to it. The action of the Galveston Exchange confirms our view that the silver craze which prevailed so widely in the year 1878 has substantially died out except in the silver-producing districts, where the Coinage Act is looked upon as a means of making a steady market for the product of the mines. All indications point to the conclusion that the great body of the people in the West and South are now indifferent to its fate, and that any decided expression of the views of the business community adverse to the continuance of the coinage would find no opposing force, and would probably be heeded by Congress. The action of our Chamber of Commerce was therefore most timely and important. If it were generally followed by the commercial organizations of the country, it would be possible to have the coinage suspended before Congress adjourns this summer.

Why should it not be suspended? The evidence is now conclusive that the limit of the demand for silver certificates has been passed —the demand for silver coin ceased long ago—and that the continued operation of the act is simply a tax of $24,000,000 per annum laid upon the people in order to bring financial confusion and disaster upon us at some future time. The singular part of the Silver Coinage Act—that which lifts it into the region of unique and conspicuous folly — is its departure from all the principles of business and the practice of nations, by compelling the Treasury to coin money not called for by any human being or any human want. Science stands aghast at such a spectacle, and it is no wonder that bi-metallists abroad cry out against it as a violation of common sense. In their view, and tested by the principles they advocate, the supporters of our Silver Bill are playing fantastic tricks before high Heaven, the purport and aim of which are beyond human ken.

Mr. Henri Cernuschi, after a long silence, has resumed the agitation of international bi-metallism. The approaching end of the Latin Monetary Union (which continues in force, however, till the close of next year) furnishes the text and occasion for his latest pamphlet. With the field of silver thus circumscribed, and with the suspension of coinage in the United States, which Mr. Cernuschi and all the European bi-metallists desire to see brought about, he thinks that a silver crisis would be precipitated upon England, through her relations with India, which would force that stubborn country to join in a movement for the "double standard." Bi-metallists in the United States generally concur with Mr. Cernuschi in this view, and desire to discontinue the coinage of silver dollars. The reason why they have so little influence in Congress is that the supporters of the Silver Bill are not bi-metallists at all. They do not want a double standard; they do not want a standard that has any gold in it. They want a silver standard, or an inferior standard of some kind. They have a muddled notion that the poor man needs a poor kind of money, and silver happens to be the poorest kind that they see any chance of getting adopted as a permanent currency. Perhaps they will change their plans since the Supreme Court has decided that Congress can make money out of paper in time of peace in any quantity; but at present they are satisfied with silver as the cheapest thing available.

The London *Economist* drops a stone on Mr. Cernuschi, telling him that England would much prefer that the silver output of the world should be sent into the channels of trade instead of being locked up, in large part, in the United States Treasury, an inert and useless mass, doing no good to anybody, but on the contrary preparing the way for great commercial disturbance in the future, when the quantity shall become so great as to burst its bounds. Silver is a valuable metal, and if the United States exported $24,000,000 worth per year more than she does export, her trade would be augmented by that amount, and the countries trading with her, Great Britain included, would be gainers and not losers. The currency systems of the world would not be threatened with the unlocking at some future time of a great mass of silver —like that of Germany a few years ago—to come upon the market like the bursting of a dam. The trade of India, it says, is not disturbed by the fact that silver stands at 51 or 52 pence per ounce, but by the variableness of the price; and variableness is promoted and increased by legislative interference, like that of the United States, with the operation of supply and demand. For these and other reasons England would look with entire satisfaction upon the cessation or suspension of silver coinage by the United States. So far from feeling any nervousness over the calamity presaged by Mr. Cernuschi, she is concerned rather to avoid the greater calamity which our absurd and unnatural treatment of silver is storing up for ourselves and those with whom we have intimate commercial relations.

The statement of ex-Postmaster-General James, before the House Investigating Committee on Wednesday, is likely to become the accepted historical account of President Garfield's attitude toward the Star-route prosecutions. Mr. James makes it clear that Garfield entered upon the reform with a full knowledge of the magnitude of the task, and of the possible consequences to members of his own political party. When the figures which showed the extent of the frauds were laid before him, he was asked whether he favored instituting civil suits for the recovery of the money, or criminal proceedings against the implicated parties, and he replied at once in favor of the latter. When he was told that by following that course he might strike men in high places, might change the Republican majority in the United States Senate into a Democratic majority, and might affect persons who claimed that he was under personal obligations to them for services rendered in the campaign, he reiterated his reply in these memorable words: "I have sworn to execute the laws. Go ahead regardless of where or whom you hit. I direct you not only to probe this ulcer to the bottom, but to cut it out." During the same interview Mr. James says that when the evidence was shown to Garfield, implicating certain men, he displayed great surprise, and added that he had been providentially saved from falling into a trap which had evidently been set for him. This undoubtedly refers to the effort made through Jay Hubbell to get a letter from him pledging his protection, in case he was elected, to the Star-route thieves in return for a campaign contribution, and it is likely to put an end to the persistent efforts which his enemies have been making since his death to prove that the formal response which he sent was such a pledge.

Senator Hoar's committee ought not to have been confined to an examination of the condition of manners and morals of Mississippi. They would find a rich and entertaining field in South Carolina also. There never was a better illustration of the closeness of the relation between the tragic and comic in human affairs than the case of W. B. Cash in that State. He is the son of old Cash, the duellist, and murdered two men in cold blood the other day in Cheraw, and, for some unexplained reason, fled to his father's house. The Sheriff went after him, found him, and took a drink with him, and came away reporting that Cash "declined to be arrested." Hopes were, however, held out that he might at some future time find it convenient to give himself into custody. These hopes are now abandoned, however. Meanwhile, old Cash has allowed the Sheriff to take him to jail, but has "solemnly protested against going to jail and against the whole proceeding," *i. e.*, we presume his arrest and the pursuit of his son. He has, however, as is usual in the case of prisoners of war of high rank, had handsome quarters assigned him, very comfortably furnished, and with an open wood fire, and receives his friends as he pleases. Indeed, no comfort seems to be denied him except his family pistol and shot-gun. The Emperor Napoleon after Sedan was not better treated. We need hardly say that his counsel is suing out a habeas corpus, and that the Attorney-General has been notified. Old Cash has not, it would appear, as yet communicated his present condition to foreign Powers, but this will come in due time. His stronghold is said to be in the possession of the police, and his heir is in the swamp closely pressed, but surrounded by a small band of devoted followers. Two very nice letters have been published, one from young Cash, expressing the hope that Richards, one of the men he had shot, would die, and one from old Cash, saying that had his son failed, he would have killed Richards himself the same day. A stranger social product than this family Christendom probably cannot show. To match it, we should have to go to Albania or the Sudan.

The "Louisiana Republicans," as they are humorously called, held their convention on Thursday, and elected an uninstructed delegation. It is carefully selected, and consists of a surveyor, a collector, a naval officer, a Custom-house clerk, a postmaster, a sub-treasurer, a collector of internal revenue, a deputy surveyor, a district attorney, two Custom-house inspectors, a deputy collector of internal revenue, and an appraiser. There is also a member of Congress, Kellogg, and a State Senator, and one

delegate who is not an office-holder. When it gets to Chicago, there will be few white Republicans left in Louisiana.

As "canvasses" go, we are inclined to think that the one which has been made by the Boston *Traveller*, the organ of the Boston Custom-house, is the ablest of the season. The entire business community of Boston has been interviewed, and not a man found who is not favorable to President Arthur's renomination. The editor says he considers the canvass very remarkable, and calls it "a unanimous verdict." Apparently unmindful of the fact that the "logic of events" in this neighborhood has been shown to point unmistakably to Blaine's nomination, he draws this inference from the result of his investigations: "The logic of the situation is plain. If the Republican party desires to make sure that its candidate will have the cordial endorsement and support of the business class, without which it will surely be defeated, it is easy to see how it can do it."

The American hen has made her first appearance as a public question, and before many months have passed may become an "issue" of as much moment as the American hog. The Central Ohio Butter and Egg Packers' Association have just closed a convention, in which they showed that at least one-half the eggs taken into New York during the past six weeks were from Europe; that in consequence the home trade was seriously injured; and that in the unanimous opinion of the Convention the matter must be laid before the National Conventions and before Congress. In what form the subject is to be presented we are not told, but it will probably result in a request for an amendment to the tariff laws by which the native American hen will be protected from the infernal activity of the pauper hens of Europe. It can probably be shown that the foreign hen is entitled to no mercy, since her greatest activity in production is displayed at that season of the year when her competition is especially damaging to the home-egg industry.

The *Evening Post* prints a letter from the Rev. Theodore L. Cuyler, giving in his adhesion to the Roosevelt High-License Bill, which we earnestly commend to the attention of other Prohibitionists. As we have frequently said, the Prohibitionists are the one body of persons in the State whose hostility to drinking is both persistent and determined, but they cut themselves off from the very powerful coöperation they could and would get from the far larger body of the moderately and spasmodically hostile, by refusing and denouncing everything which falls short of the summit of their desires. In any other practical matter they would individually consider such conduct insane, but somehow, in the matter of diminishing drunkenness, they look on it as the highest wisdom. We have no doubt that a union of *all* the enemies of drunkenness would, in a very few years, drive whiskey, at least, out of politics in this State, and perhaps in the Union, and make dram drinking at bars disreputable and odious; and that this would be an immense moral and social gain, no one who reads the statistics of this (one may say without exaggeration) infernal product, can deny. But our Prohibitionists put it away from them and continue to shout heroically for what they know they cannot get, while the whiskey interest is every day growing more powerful, its hold on universal suffrage in the cities more fixed, and the political activity of grog-shopkeepers more fruitful and impudent.

The remarkable effort of the students of Princeton College to "discipline" their Faculty has ended in most humiliating failure. On the feeble basis of an anonymous letter, they assembled in mass-meeting a few days ago, and resolved that the Faculty were enforcing a system of espionage, which was "cowardly, contemptible, and degrading"; that the officers of the College had been "listening at doors, and gaining admission to rooms under false pretexts"; that a "barber had been questioned by the Faculty and threatened for withholding information"; that a member of the Faculty had attempted to bribe a student to be a spy by offering him a room free of charge; that another member of the Faculty had offered former students of the College a "premium for giving information against men in college"; and, that in view of all these degrading acts on the part of the Faculty, a "thorough investigation" ought to be made by the Trustees "with a view to reforming these abuses." In the same resolutions the action of the Faculty in relation to athletic sports was "disapproved" and a petition made to have it "rescinded." On Friday the students assembled again in mass meeting, and resolved to draw up a formal apology for and retraction of all their charges, having discovered that they were entirely baseless. One of the seniors is quoted as saying that he believes the affair will have the desirable effect of restoring "harmonious relations" between the Faculty and the students, by clearing away unjust suspicions which have long existed concerning the conduct of the College authorities. That is very handsome of him.

There has been no change for the better in the business world during the past week. Much of the sluggishness in the movement of merchandise is attributable to the long continued bad weather; but, after allowing for this factor, there remains a residuum of dulness which finds its expression and most forcible illustration in the export of $7,500,000 gold. This movement signifies that the demand for our breadstuffs abroad has fallen off seriously, and this again implies merely that other countries are underselling us in the British market. Such a condition of things is a new experience for us, but it is one which we seem likely to face for the greater part of the present year, if not longer. Australia reports a surplus of 200,000 tons of wheat for export, which must come in competition with us this summer and autumn. Our own visible supply is 10,000,000 bushels larger than it was at this time last year. Therefore we must look for further exports of gold, but this movement could not come at a time when it would be less harmful, so sluggish is the demand for money here. Railway earnings have fallen off perceptibly, though not largely, and the stock market is extremely dull. Prices have been maintained, however, by the main strength of large operators and by the timidity of the bears, who are still smarting under the punishment they have received in the cornering of Lackawanna and other specialties.

The bearing of the *Alabama* case on the dynamite question does not seem to be very well understood. The *Tribune* on Friday argued at some length that it has no bearing whatever, because in 1861 "there was a civil war in the United States, and the British Government had issued a neutrality proclamation warning the Queen's subjects against equipping vessels for privateering purposes, supplying munitions of war, or doing any act calculated to afford assistance to either belligerent. There is no military rebellion in Ireland against British authority; the dynamite conspirators are criminals plotting in one country against the laws of another, and cannot be considered belligerents under the law of nations, and consequently the provisions of any Neutrality Act cannot be enforced." It is perfectly true that the provisions of our neutrality acts cannot be enforced against the dynamiters, but it is not an enforcement of their provisions that the English want. What they want is the application of the principle on which the neutrality acts are based—that our territory shall not be used for hostile operations or conspiracies against a friendly Power or its citizens—to a new case. A glance at our neutrality acts (U. S. R.S.§ 5281 *et seq.*) will convince any one that while they are intended to provide against armed expeditions, they do not contain anything about "belligerency." If the dynamiters were collecting money to fit out a ship to sack an English seaport they could be arrested and imprisoned. What they are really doing is something designed to produce much the same effect in a different way. The case resembles very closely the Orsini case, in which the plot was to kill the French Emperor; but there was also a very important difference. Then the crime was plainly political, while it is by no means so clear that collecting money in New York to blow up a railroad station in London can be considered anything more than a very base crime against life and property. It is absurd to suppose that the English Government is unaware of these distinctions.

The Emperor of Germany's speech in opening the Reichstag on Thursday foreshadows additional legislation for the benefit of the working classes. Not only is the state to provide insurance against accidents, but also against old age and infirmity. This, the speech says, is intended "to prevent any possible justification" for the socialistic attacks on the existing order of things. This is, however, by far too roseate a view of the socialistic aims. Nothing can well be further from the truth than the notion that the Socialists seek simply security against want or infirmity. They desire also positive enjoyment of the good things of this life while they are at the enjoying age, such as now falls to the lot of the rich, and we doubt if anything short of this will ever satisfy the extremists, who rely on violence for the accomplishment of their ends.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 5, to TUESDAY, March 11, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE German Minister in Washington on Friday received the Lasker resolutions with Bismarck's letter, which has already been partly published. It expresses the Chancellor's regret that he felt compelled to return the resolutions.

A copy of a letter on the Lasker incident, dated March 10, from Secretary Frelinghuysen to Minister Sargent at Berlin, was sent to the House of Representatives on Monday. In it he said: "The resolution was passed by the House with the most courteous motives, for the single purpose of expressing sympathy with the corresponding branch of the Government of a friendly nation in the loss of one of its distinguished members, who died within the national jurisdiction of Congress. If any other purpose has been surmised, the indisposition of this Republic, as proved by the history of a century, to obtrude upon other nations the sound political principles upon which our own prosperity is founded should have counteracted that surmise. In the customary order of transmission the resolution came into the possession of his Excellency, who is pleased to explain the embarrassment under which he conceives he would labor by forwarding it to its destination. This position, and the personal convictions to which he alludes, are matters affecting his Excellency alone, and upon them it is not becoming that I make any remark further than to say that it does not occur to me how the transmission of the resolution would have involved an endorsement of the political views of Mr. Lasker. . . . The sentiments of the resolution are now generally known; their merits or demerits can be judged; and its non-transmission officially, as it was intended and claimed on its face to be of friendly intent, while a matter of regret, is not one of concern to either branch of the Government of the United States."

Resolutions were immediately offered in the House and referred to the Foreign Committee, expressing surprise that "it should be, even temporarily, within the power of a single too-powerful subject to interfere with such a simple, natural, and spontaneous expression of kindly feeling between two great nations, and thus to detract from the position and prestige of the Crown on the one hand, and from the rights of the mandatories of the people on the other," and reiterating the previous expression of sympathy contained in the Lasker resolution.

The Senate, on Tuesday, went into executive session on the Mexican treaty and ratified it by a vote of 41 to 20, just one vote more than the requisite two-thirds. This is the Grant treaty which was signed by Commissioners more than a year ago.

The effect of the legal-tender decision was seen in the Senate on Monday, in the introduction of two resolutions for amendments to the Constitution. Mr. Bayard proposed that the States in their Legislatures shall vote upon the proposition that Congress shall have no power to declare any money a legal tender except gold and silver. Mr. Garland proposed an amendment that the legal-tender notes of the United States shall never exceed $350,000,000, unless an increase shall be sanctioned by at least a two-thirds vote of Congress. Both resolutions were laid upon the table in order that the movers may speak upon them. Constitutional amendments with a similar end in view were introduced in the House.

The United States Senate, on Wednesday, passed the bill extending the limits of the Yellowstone Park by adding about 2,000 square miles to the 3,300 square miles of the park. The bill places the park under the general legal jurisdiction of the Territory of Montana.

The Naval Appropriation Bill was passed by the House on Thursday. On Saturday Mr. Morrison (Dem., Ill.) made an effort to call up the Whiskey Bond-Extension Bill, but he was defeated by a vote of 115 to 127.

The Ways and Means Committee of the House, by a strict party vote, on Thursday decided to report the amended Morrison Tariff Bill at once. The Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee will all prepare views on the bill, and submit them as a basis from which a short report against the bill will be made. The purport of it will be that it is desirable that further action shall be postponed until the effect of the last revision is known, and that the country desires rest. On Friday the Democratic members of the Ways and Means Committee were said to be of the opinion that their Tariff Bill could not pass unless they made some concessions to the Ohio Democrats in the matter of wool. The bill was reported to the House on Tuesday.

The House Committee on Civil-Service Reform decided on Saturday unanimously to report the bill abolishing the four years' term for Federal officers. On March 17 the House will be asked to suspend the rules and pass the bill.

The House Judiciary Committee has agreed to report favorably the Bankruptcy Bill. It is identical with the Senate bill, and is the Lowell bill with some of the amendments recommended by the Bankruptcy Convention.

In the Star-route examination, on Tuesday, W. A. Cook, one of the Government counsel in the cases, testified. He adhered to his theory that Guiteau had fellow-conspirators. He said that several days before the assassination Guiteau went into a gun-shop on Ninth Street with three men, and inquired for a pistol; that he (Cook) furnished the District Attorney with an affidavit to this effect, but that it never was used in the trial.

Ex-Postmaster-General James made a long statement before the Star-route Committee of the House on Wednesday. It was carefully prepared and printed. It reviewed at length the general history of the Star-route cases with which the public is familiar. One of its striking features was the statement that on June 27, 1881, W. A. Cook informed him that he feared that something terrible was going to happen to President Garfield. On Thursday ex-Attorney-General MacVeagh testified. He spoke of his relations with Presidents Garfield and Arthur. He said he left the Cabinet because he was diametrically opposed to the political views of Mr. Arthur, and because he could not receive any moral support in the prosecution of the Star-route men. It was evident, he declared, that the Administration of Mr. Arthur was in sympathy with the accused. He acknowledged having advised President Garfield to go slowly in prosecuting such men as Dorsey and Brady, as these men were reported to have letters in their possession which President Garfield would probably not want to be made public property, because there was a split in the party at that time, and to attack men so influential in Republican politics might ruin it altogether. Ex-Senator Spencer, of Alabama, gave interesting testimony on Friday, and A. M. Gibson on Saturday and Monday.

The bill appropriating $1,000,000 for work on the new Capitol at Albany was passed on Friday in the Assembly.

In the State Senate, on Wednesday, the Roosevelt bill giving the Mayor of New York the sole power in appointing heads of departments was passed, after a spirited debate, by a vote of 24 to 7. The negative votes were all Democratic. The bill then went to the Governor for his signature.

In order to render effective this excellent measure, supplementary bills were immediately introduced, among them one terminating on January 1, 1885, the terms of all officers, commissioners, and heads of departments in New York who shall be appointed during the term of the present Mayor, either for a full term or unexpired term. Within ten days after his term begins, the next Mayor shall fill the vacancies thus created. Another bill terminates on June 1, 1885, the term of the Mayor of New York elected in November, 1884, and provides for the election thereafter of a Mayor on the second Monday in April biennially; also for the election by the people of the President of the Board of Aldermen.

A bill to make the City Comptroller elective was introduced in the Assembly, and on Thursday was ordered to a third reading.

The Roosevelt Assembly Committee, which has been investigating the New York city departments, has finished its work. The investigation has been conducted with a view to laying a basis for legislation, rather than to discover evidence upon which to prosecute offenders. There will be probably six bills reported from the Committee. Two will relate to the County Clerk's office, two to the Sheriff's office, and two to the Register's office. The County Clerk and Register will be put on a salaried basis. The bill likely to excite most debate and most general opposition will be one to abolish arrests on processes for debts, this line of prosecution being, in New York city especially, a most fruitful source of abuse in the Sheriff's office.

A reception to the Civil-Service Commission of New York State was given on Friday, in behalf of the Civil Service Reform Association of the city, by Everett P. Wheeler, Chairman of the Association's Executive Committee, at his house, on Park Avenue. A number of distinguished citizens of this city were present.

The new Republican County Committee met in this city on Tuesday night and elected John J. O'Brien permanent Chairman. There were 252 out of 273 delegates present. Mr. O'Brien received 143 votes and Marvelle W. Cooper 109. The proceedings were animated, but no ill feeling was shown. This is a victory for the old Machine element of New York city politics.

The Louisiana Republican Convention on Thursday nominated a full State ticket, with John A. Stevenson, a wealthy sugar planter, for Governor, and a full set of delegates to the Chicago Convention, all but two being Federal office-holders.

The Harvard College Faculty has voted to ask the other colleges for a further conference on the question of regulating athletics. This reopens the whole question, and is a practical yielding to the universal protest of the students against the regulations.

Kenneth Rayner, Solicitor of the Treasury, died in Washington on Wednesday at the age of seventy-six. He had been Solicitor for eight years. In 1866 he wrote a 'Life of Andrew Johnson.'

FOREIGN.

With the usual formalities the German Reichstag was opened on Thursday. The speech from the throne asserts that the chief task of the Reichstag lies in the domain of social and political affairs, and says that the Emperor's wish, which has been solemnly and repeatedly expressed, for the improvement of the condition of workmen, has met with full appreciation on the part of the German people. Among the numerous bills announced is one providing for a scheme of accident insurance, after the adoption of which the Emperor recommends the formation of a system of insurance for the infirm and aged. A bill will be introduced extending the anti-Socialist law for a further period. The speech declares that the foreign relations of Germany are in a highly satisfactory condition.

A fusion of the Secessionist and Progressist parties has been effected. The new combination will be called the German Liberal party. Its programme embraces strict adherence to the Constitution, annual budgets, universal suffrage, secret voting, the payment of members of the Reichstag, the liberty of the press, of public meetings and of association, equality

before the law, religious liberty and perfect equality of all creeds, economic progress, the suppression of State Socialism, just assessment and taxation, with the exemption of articles of consumption. It favors progress based upon allegiance to the Emperor and the Federal Constitution.

In the German Reichstag on Friday there was a great uproar over the Lasker resolution. The President announced the names of members who had died during the recess, Herr Lasker among the rest. Herr Rickert, an Independent, speaking, as he explained, on the order of the day, expressed thanks in the name of Herr Lasker's friends for the numerous tokens of sympathy which had been received. He was particularly grateful to the American Congress for the action of the House of Representatives. The President called him to order. A Conservative member protested against the action of Herr Rickert and of the American Congress. Dr. Haenel, Progressist, said: "When a body like Congress adopts flattering resolutions we should pay as much regard to them as is consonant with parliamentary usages." In the course of further remarks Herr Rickert spoke of Bismarck's "unjustifiable interference." This was followed by great uproar. The Imperial Secretary of the Interior protested against any criticism of Bismarck. Herr Richter, Progressist, maintained that Deputies have a perfect right to criticise the official acts of the Chancellor. Regret is expressed that Herr Lasker's name should have been made the occasion of a stormy debate.

Much attention is drawn in political circles in Berlin to an article in the Cologne *Gazette* denouncing Herr Rickert's attitude in the Reichstag. The *Gazette* says that even Americans are recognizing that Prince Bismarck was justified in refusing to send the Lasker resolution to the Reichstag.

A Berlin despatch on Saturday said: "Minister Sargent has decided not to resign. He will submit the matter to the authorities at Washington." The Berlin *Deutsches Tageblatt* called attention to what it styled Minister Sargent's "incompetence" as compared with his predecessors.

The Berlin *North German Gazette*, Bismarck's organ, in an article published on Monday said: "Had Mr. Sargent, like his predecessors, cultivated the usual confidential relations with the Imperial Government, the Foreign Office would have confidentially directed his attention to the fact that Prince Bismarck was unable to make himself an instrument for conveying an expression of thanks for an opposition policy directed against himself. Mr. Sargent's singular conduct has been so contrary to all diplomatic usage that this confidential channel of communication enjoyed by his predecessors was closed against himself, which fact rendered it necessary to return the resolution through Herr von Eisendecher." It is believed that Bismarck aims at a rupture of diplomatic relations and a tariff war between Germany and the United States, in order to effect the industrial isolation of the former country.

The interview between the Czar and the Emperor William has been arranged to take place in June, at Darmstadt.

The lower house of the Prussian Landtag has rejected, by a vote of 209 to 152, Herr Windthorst's motion to repeal the law abolishing the salaries of Catholic priests.

In Vienna the police have discovered that the Anarchists possess a large quantity of dynamite. Lectures were given last autumn in the workingmen's quarters on the best methods of making and storing explosives. The police made a raid and discovered three laboratories fitted up for making explosives, with large quantities of dynamite.

Legitimist circles in Paris are excited over the fact that on Friday last a package handed in at the railway parcel office at Lyons, and addressed "Comte de Paris, at his hôtel, Rue de Varennes, Paris," was found upon examination to contain an infernal machine.

A circular has been recently issued from the French Ministry of the Interior asking the Prefects privately to advise the Government whether there exists within their respective departments a propaganda in favor of the Comte de Paris. It is taken as an indication of a desire on the part of the Government to expel the Count from France on the very earliest pretext for such action.

The majority of the French Parliamentary Committee who have been examining the question of the importation of American salt meats, are in favor of the Government's proposal to appoint officers to inspect the imports on their arrival in France.

It was reported in Paris on Friday that the French had begun their advance on Bacninh in Tonquin, in two columns under General Millot. Later news represents that the column proceeding from Haidzuong had met the enemy successfully. War preparations in China still continue.

The activity of the English police in searching for Irish-American dynamiters has been unabated. The movements of six men, three of whom landed at Southampton on February 20 from a New York steamer, were carefully traced. It is supposed that six men all told were concerned in the plot, and that they divided themselves into three parties on Feb. 21. Descriptions of the suspected dynamiters were sent to all parts of Europe, and steps were taken to have them arrested at any port. The English detectives at New York have been provided with portraits of suspected dynamiters.

A box containing a galvanic battery and a bottle filled with a dark fluid was found on Wednesday in the railway station at Weston-super-Mare, a watering place in Somerset, on the Bristol Channel.

The British Foreign Office has sent despatches to Mr. L. Sackville West, the British Minister at Washington, in regard to the dynamite outrages. It is supposed that they are intended as a basis for overtures with the United States Government.

The House of Commons, on Wednesday, rejected Mr. Parnell's bill, amending the Irish Land Act, by a vote of 325 to 72.

The Parnellites are irritated at the refusal of the Government to reopen the Irish land question. Their intention now is to begin forthwith a great agitation in Ireland. They will make strong appeals to the Irish to demand an amendment to the Land Act. Subscriptions to a special fund for the purposes of agitation will be opened, and Mr. Michael Davitt's services will be secured.

In the House of Commons on Thursday the Marquis of Hartington moved an appropriation of £380,000 to cover the cost of the Sudan expedition. Mr. Gladstone replied to criticisms of the Conservatives. He said the Government had no intention of assuming the government of Egypt. The troops would be withdrawn at the earliest possible moment. Mr. Labouchere, Radical, moved to reduce the appropriation to £100,000. The appropriation was passed on Monday night.

Despatches received in London on Thursday reported that a thousand men who were marching from El Obeid upon Khartum had been defeated by tribes friendly to General Gordon.

As a result of a British Cabinet Council, Earl Granville, Foreign Secretary of State, has written to Sir Evelyn Baring, first, that the Egyptian frontier, as maintained by English forces, shall not extend beyond the First Cataract; secondly, that Zobehr Pasha, or some other ally of the Mahdi, shall be appointed Viceroy at Khartum, with the understanding that he shall maintain the trade routes between Khartum, Berber, Korosko, and Suakim; thirdly, the Mahdi shall be appointed Sultan of Kordofan, with sovereignty over the regions of the White Nile, Darfur, and Bahr Gazelle; fourthly, that the Red Sea littoral from Kosseir to Ansley Bay, south of Massowah, shall be a dependency of England; fifthly, England will cede to Abyssinia two harborage ports upon the Red Sea, with a band of territory in Southern Sudan.

A despatch from Khartum on Monday said: "General Gordon advises the appointment of Zobehr Pasha to succeed himself as Governor of the Sudan. He thinks that Zobehr, if adequately supported, would dispose of the Mahdi within a year. He strongly denounces the proposed British expedition to reconquer the Sudan, and expresses deep anxiety for the situation at Khartum. Unless the British act promptly in regard to Zobehr Pasha's appointment, the victory of General Graham will, in his opinion, have been useless bloodshed. He does not believe in sending further telegrams."

The Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for War, on Monday said that none were more surprised than the members of the Government at the suggestion to appoint Zobehr Pasha Governor of Khartum. General Gordon had been asked for a full explanation.

General Graham and his forces arrived at Suakim from Trinkitat on Wednesday. On Friday, Osman Digma refused to negotiate. He was at Tamanieb wells, urging his followers to fight, and assuring them of victory.

Admiral Hewett and General Graham on Thursday issued a joint decree summoning the Sheiks of the tribes to Suakim, and saying that if they came they would be protected, but if they refused, the fate of Teb would await them. Two chiefs responded, with 120 men. Others were reported wavering on account of the British victory.

The Porte has sounded the Powers in regard to the Sudan. Germany replied that she would not intervene, and suggested that Turkey arrange the matter directly with England. The other Powers made similar replies. In view of this, Musurus Pasha, Turkish Ambassador at London, has requested Earl Granville, Foreign Secretary of State, to use the Sultan's influence in seeking to conciliate the Sudanese.

Earl Granville, British Foreign Secretary, has assured France that England intends to maintain the existing conventions with the Sudan. It is necessary first, however, to restore the prestige of the English name in that quarter. The acts of General Gordon are only partly approved.

Herbert Spencer has declined to become a candidate for Member of Parliament.

Blanchard Jerrold, the well-known English author and journalist, eldest son of Douglas Jerrold, is dead at the age of fifty-eight. He was the author of a number of novels, books of travel, and magazine articles. In 1874 he issued the first volume of his 'Life of Napoleon III.' Of this important work three volumes have been published, and the fourth and concluding volume is in progress.

Mr. Spurgeon, the eminent Baptist preacher, of London, has fallen heir to a large fortune, left to him by the late Mr. Joseph Pool, of Leicester.

A bill has been introduced in the Canadian House of Commons to amend the present copyright law, by placing dramatic authors in the same position as to copyright as other authors. The copyright will be vested in the author and his heirs for fifty years after his death.

Oxford University has decided to grant women the same examination as is given to men.

The existing Cabinet troubles in Italy were still further complicated on Monday by the resignation of President Farini, of the Chamber of Deputies, when a decision of his had been overruled.

The treaty of peace with Chili has been ratified by the Constituent Assembly of Peru.

THE COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL SITUATION.

THE London *Economist's* "Commercial History and Review of the year 1883" says that the year has been a disappointing one in almost every department of trade, for although the aggregate volume of business has been somewhat greater, both in quantities and in values, than was that of 1882, profits have been seriously curtailed. Prices of the twenty-two selected articles of food, raw materials, and manufactured goods chosen as a basis of comparison are five per cent. lower than last year, and ten per cent. lower than the year before. Manufacturers, shippers, and wholesale dealers have striven to recoup themselves for their lessened profit on each yard or pound by increasing the number of yards and pounds; but the only effect has been to cause an unusual number of business failures in the latter part of the year, showing that the limits of demand have been reached. Only one great branch of industry has remained in a prosperous state—that of coal production, which last year reached the unexampled figure of 163,750,000 tons, an increase of 7,250,000 tons over the previous year. The price of coal shows a slight advance, notwithstanding the increased output.

The fact that food supplies have been abundant, and that the average price of wheat for the year has been two shillings per quarter less than for 1882, introduces a puzzling element into the situation. It would seem, in spite of all that political economists tell us, as though the world had at last reached a state of "general overproduction," and not merely of disproportionate production. We have been led to believe that since products of all kinds are merely exchanged for each other, there could be no such thing as general overproduction; but here we have the fact before us of an excessive supply of agricultural products coexisting with an excessive supply of manufactured products and an excessive supply of means of transportation, both by land and by water. This condition exists in Great Britain and in the United States. It exists in France and Germany as well. What does it mean? What is the world coming to? Are we approaching a condition where everybody will have so much to sell that nobody can sell anything at a profit?

Not exactly. Yet we can conceive that if everybody's stock of commodities were doubled by a miracle overnight, there would be a great decline of prices and much subsequent embarrassment, growing out of contracts and engagements based upon an altogether different state of things, and that, as regards agricultural products especially, the population of the world would have to be doubled (or nearly so) before the commercial equilibrium could be reëstablished. For although wants multiply with the means of satisfying them as regards most things produced by labor, they do not multiply as regards food. Enough is as good as a feast, and while human desires may take an infinite range in the way of fine houses, clothing, equipage, furniture, travel, books, pictures, etc., they are limited, fortunately, to a nearly uniform quantity of bread and meat per day. If an excessive quantity of these is produced, it can only be taken at a profit to the producer after population has correspondingly increased. That population will increase under such conditions is positively certain, but it cannot increase suddenly.

We in America have been surprised to learn within the past few months that our command of the grain markets of the world has been brought in dispute by the wheat fields of India, South America, Russia, Australia, and Egypt. Whether the increased competition of these countries results from improved means of inland transportation in which we have merely preceded them by a few years, or from exceptionally good harvests occurring simultaneously in many different places, the fact is plain that we have not so good a market to sell in as we have been accustomed to for a long time. When wheat falls below a dollar a bushel in Chicago, bad times are in prospect. Other trades, of course, reap the advantage of cheaper food, but breadstuffs constitute so large a share of our annual production and trading power that any curtailment in the price we receive for our surplus makes us distinctly poorer as a whole. We have that much less on the credit side of the national ledger at the end of the year.

Both our exports and our imports are falling off. The former show a decline of $6,500,000 for the month of January as compared with last year. Nevertheless, our exports for the month are nearly $20,000,000 greater than our imports. Seeing that we have begun to export gold in rather large amounts—$7,500,000 having gone out last week—we must infer that our securities are coming back from foreign investors. This is the only unknown factor in our foreign trade that could account for so large a discrepancy in our trade balance. The other unknown elements, undervaluations of imports and interest on securities held abroad, could not possibly account for it in so short a period.

What we require to recover our ground in the foreign grain markets is cheapness of production. The American farmer may be trusted to find the way out for himself. When he finds that he cannot raise the prices of what he has to sell, he will naturally search for means to lessen the price of what he has to buy. He will not search far till he strikes his head against the protective tariff, and when he does, that wall will fall down as suddenly as those of Jericho fell at the blast of Joshua's trumpet.

THE GRANGER LAW OF TENNESSEE.

THE three United States Judges in the Sixth Circuit have rendered a decision enjoining the Railroad Commissioners of Tennessee from carrying into effect the Granger law of that State. The decision is not final, but the opinions rendered are very elaborate, and must, unless the case meantime develops some new and unexpected feature, be made perpetual in a few weeks. The questions involved are of great interest to "anti-monopolists," and the case shows plainly what sort of Granger legislation *cannot* be enforced. No judges can be expected to draft a scheme of legislation for reformers like the Grangers. The utmost that they can do is to point out the legal and constitutional limits which hedge in and confine such legislation.

The Tennessee Railroad Act, passed only a year ago, vests the Commission called into existence by it with the entire supervision of all the railroads of the State, and makes it their duty to revise all the railroad tariffs. In case they find the rates to be more than a "just and reasonable" compensation, or when the rates amount to "unjust and unreasonable discrimination," against any person, corporation, or place, they are to notify the railroads affected of the changes necessary to reduce the rate to "a just and reasonable compensation" and to "avoid unjust and unreasonable discrimination"; and "when such changes are made or deemed unnecessary," the Commissioners are commanded to append a certificate of approval to the schedule of charges so authorized by them, and the rates thus established are made prima-facie evidence of the reasonableness and justice of the charges fixed by them.

The act does not in express terms command the railroads to adopt these rates, but provides that if they shall exact more than "just and reasonable" rates, or make any "unjust or unreasonable" discrimination, they shall then be held guilty of the crime of extortion, as defined by the act, subject to its pains and penalties, and also subject to a civil suit by any "injured" party for ten times the damages sustained, and a "reasonable" counsel fee. Further, the Commissioners are charged with the duty of "investigating" and "determining" whether any of the provisions of said act are violated; and whenever satisfied that violations have occurred, they are peremptorily commanded by the statute to bring suits for every such violation against the offender in the name and for the benefit of the State. And if upon the trial the jury believe, from the testimony adduced, that the charges are "unjust and unreasonable," or that they "amount to unjust and unreasonable discrimination," their verdict must be for the State, and they are required to assess and return a penalty of not less than $100 nor more than $1,000. Finally, the Legislature added the remarkable provision that rates charged by any railroad should not be deemed extortionate if it appeared that the net earnings would "not amount to more than a fair and just return on the value of such railroads, . . . to be assessed for taxation."

There are various objections to this legislation. It leaves it entirely to a jury to determine what the profits of any railroad in the State ought to be. One jury might think a four per cent. basis for punishment a fair and just one; another might think a railroad free from all guilt until it got about six per cent., and these different rules might be applied by different juries to the same road. As to "discrimination" also, it fixes no legal standard whatever, but leaves it for any jury to determine whether a difference in rates is discrimination, without any legal guide, and, in fact, gives the jury the power no jury can ever have, to first define and then punish the crime. The act also conflicts with the Fourteenth Amendment, and is objection-

able because, by giving prima-facie weight to the rates fixed by the Commission, it sweeps away the ordinary presumption of innocence of all persons accused of crime, and substitutes for it one of guilt.

Besides all this, the judges hold that the act is contrary to the Constitution of the United States, as being a regulation of inter-State commerce, and this point will no doubt be strongly contested when the case gets to Washington. The Supreme Court may perhaps avoid considering it, but the deliberate opinion of three Federal judges that Granger laws are beyond the scope of State legislation, is entitled to great weight. If it holds, all the Granger laws will be swept out of existence except such as are entirely local. We have no space to discuss at length Judge Hammond's opinion on this point. The decision ought at least to bring to an end all such wild attempts at local interference with the railroad system of the country as that attempted in Tennessee.

DIVORCE FRAUDS.

THE mock-divorce exposure in Brooklyn has led to the dismissal, by the judges, of Law, the clerk through whom the trade in divorce was carried on. He was not dismissed, however, until he had been brought up on a charge of forgery. His connection with the case has attracted less attention than it deserves. Not only is he charged with deliberately conniving at a constant abuse of the laws of the State, but with forgery of judicial records—an offence, in a man holding such a position, of the blackest sort, especially when it is done, not in a single instance, under pressure of some great temptation, but habitually, from week to week and month to month, and carried on as a trade too, for money. The worst of it is, that there are a great many courts in the United States constantly exposed to just such accidents. Clerks of court, in the States where the elective system has been thoroughly applied to the administration of justice, are politicians or henchmen of politicians, and owe their appointment and their hold on their office to "influence" of some sort. They often remain clerks a short time, and regard a clerkship as a place like any other which is to be used for their private purposes. The judges themselves are apt to feel a good deal of dread of their clerks and deputies, as persons who are put into their court by the same power to which they owe their own seats on the bench, and over whose tenure of office they have very little control. The old feeling that the clerk is an officer of the court is very nearly gone. No one can have read the testimony recently given here by Mr. Keenan, the County Clerk, or Mr. Trainor, one of the Surrogate's clerks, before the Roosevelt Committee, without perceiving that these officials do not regard themselves as clerks in the employment of the Surrogate or the Supreme Court, but of what they call "the people." A great Clerk like Keenan speaks of himself as distracted from the duties of his office by "politics." A little one like Trainor explains how he is forced to support himself by charging illegal fees. This, it must be remembered, is the account given of clerks by themselves. If this is the picture they are willing to put forward of the working of the system, we know what opportunities there must be for all sorts of wickedness behind. A fraudulent divorce lawyer would find in some obscure and dishonest clerk a natural ally; and if the accounts published of the Brooklyn divorces be correct, he is an ally who may carry on a business in fraudulent divorces for a long time without much danger of detection. Owing to the present connection between politics and the courts, judges dislike excessively to interfere with their clerks, or to behave toward them as if they suspected them, and the result is that they actually often do not know what is going on in their own courts. The routine of business falls into the clerk's hands, and he really has much of the power of the court in his control. Law appears to have acted as the court throughout. He was referee, judge, and counsel for both sides all in one. Nevertheless, the judges seem to have acted with great deliberation, even after Law was actually held for forgery. Judge Pratt is quoted, for instance, as refusing to state whether Law had been removed or not, as it might "prejudice the minds of the public."

Of course there are no statistics to show how much divorce business in the State courts is fraudulent, and there never will be; but with such opportunities for fraud existing all over the country, it is safe to assume that a considerable part of it would come to an end if the judges knew how their courts were being used; and the Brooklyn divorce cases really constitute a powerful argument in favor of the transfer of the whole business to the National Judiciary. The superiority of the latter for such a purpose lies, of course, in the fact that both judge and clerk have in the United States courts a responsible tenure, and the clerk stands in awe of the judge instead of the judge having in a certain sense to look up to the clerk. The clerks in United States courts do not come from the class which supplies us with Laws, or even with Keenans or Trainors; and the use of a Federal court and its seal to carry on a "divorce mill," instead of being something that we might fairly expect, would be a very improbable contingency. This is an aspect of the divorce problem which those who are considering the advantage of a national law ought not to overlook.

THE IRISH TROUBLE IN A NEW SHAPE.

THE late discussion in the House of Commons on Irish affairs, though no discussion on Irish affairs can now have much novelty, had at least the merit of taking a new form. The contest between the Parnellite or Nationalist party and the Orangemen, which raged in Ulster during last autumn and winter, was now fought over again in the House of Commons. It was even extended, for it became a triangular duel, in which Mr. Parnell attacked not only the Orangemen, but also the Government, for having unduly favored the Orangemen by prohibiting Nationalist meetings, while in the House of Lords the spokesmen of the Orangemen proposed to censure the Government for punishing the Orange leader, Lord Rossmore, by removing him from the magistracy. Each of the cases presented against Lord Spencer's action had enough plausibility to make it worth while to state them a little more in detail.

Mr. Parnell's charge was, that the Irish Executive neglected its plain duty of securing, by the employment of force, the exercise of the right of public meeting. His party had resolved to carry on a political campaign in Ulster, with the view of winning over other counties there as they won Monaghan last summer. Nearly half the population of Ulster is Roman Catholic, and therefore prima facie inclined toward the Home Rule party. In some districts the Catholics are in a large majority, and it was in these districts that most of their meetings were summoned. There has been little agrarian outrage and no political assassination in Ulster during the last few years, so there seemed no likelihood that Home-Rule meetings would produce crime; the rather as crime, whether agrarian or political, has almost ceased through the whole country during the last sixteen months. The Nationalist leaders had not talked sedition at the first meetings they held, nor was it alleged that the advocacy either of further land reforms or of a separate Parliament for Ireland could be deemed seditious. They were, therefore, strictly within their constitutional rights in proposing to address the people on these subjects, and apparently entitled to the protection of the police against those who should attempt to disperse them by violence. To prohibit their meetings, therefore, only because Orange mobs threatened to attack them, was, they insist, not only to favor the Orangemen, but positively to encourage the lawless attitude of that faction, who would be able to suppress political agitation by the simple expedient of summoning their bludgeon men to appear at the spot selected for a Nationalist meeting. Mr. Parnell and his friends further urged that Orange offenders had been let off easily by the Government; that violent language held by Orangemen had passed unnoticed by the authorities, when in the mouths of Nationalists it would have led to a prosecution; that Lord Spencer himself had, by staying at the houses of Orange landlords on his last visit to the North of Ireland, gone far to represent himself as a friend to that party.

On this last charge it may be observed that as nearly all the persons of rank and wealth in the North of Ireland are Tories, Lord Spencer's only alternative would have been to refuse every social invitation, and lose part of the utility of his visit by staying only at hotels. However, there is some measure of truth both in the charge and in that of tolerance for Orange offenders. The Irish Executive has always kept itself in such close social relations with the landlord class that it has incurred the suspicions of other parties. The unpaid magistracy is filled by landlords, nearly all of them Episcopalians and Tories. The paid magistracy and subordinate officials generally are related to and socially dependent on this same land-owning caste, so that they are inclined to be more tolerant of heated language or violent acts spoken or done by its members or in its interest. This is a part, and not the smallest part, of the permanent difficulties of

Irish government. And in this particular instance an impartial observer will conclude that more severity might properly have been exercised toward the Orangemen, and thereby a more emphatic proof have been given of that desire to hold the fair balance with which the Irish Government may be credited.

The case of the Orangemen, which they presented in Parliament much more temperately than they had done in the Irish press or on their own platforms, was shortly this. These Parnellite agitators, after having convulsed the South and West of Ireland, and produced a crop of crime which it needed the most stringent legislation to check, have invaded the one part of Ireland which has hitherto been free from crime and loyal to the union with Great Britain. If we let them inflame the simple peasantry of the northern counties, who are no doubt largely Roman Catholic, not only will the seeds of outrage and sedition be sown, but England will believe that Ireland is unanimous n desiring separation, and we, the loyal population, the industrious, peaceable, intelligent Protestant population, will be the sufferers, for England will be the readier to abandon us to the mercy of this ignorant and passionate majority. It is all very well to talk of legitimate and constitutional agitation, but these so-called Nationalists did not agitate legitimately or constitutionally in the South and West: they silenced all opposition by intimidation and boycotting. Here in the North they may not venture on threats, but they will mislead the poorest class by falsehood, and stimulate them by ferocious invective. We must stop them before they have got a head. We must let England see that we too are alive and exerting ourselves, and that here at least loyalty is stronger than sedition. We, too, are entitled to hold our meetings, and to hold them at the same times and near the same places as the Separatists, for this is what makes the protest effective. Did not Mr. Gladstone himself once tell us that we had not spoken out as was our duty, that we had not given the Executive the support it had a right to expect from law-abiding men? So, if the Government cannot be absolutely neutral, it ought rather to incline to our side, since we are the loyal and meritorious subjects, they the apostles of crime and disunion. Instead of this the Executive has chilled our zeal, has dismissed Lord Rossmore from the magistracy for an indiscretion pardonable in a young man indignant at the disturbers of public tranquillity, has thrown away the help which we have sought to render.

The assumptions or fallacies in this argument are easy to discover. The landlords of Ulster are fighting more for their own incomes and their own ascendency than for the general weal of the kingdom, while their followers among the workingmen of towns like Belfast are animated by the old hatred of faith and race against Romanists and Celts. It would have been possible to oppose the Nationalists without endangering the public peace by collisions of armed men, and thereby forcing the Government (since it could not send large bodies of soldiers and police wherever a meeting was to be held) to prohibit meetings. However, the pleadings of the Orangemen have been received with some sympathy by English opinion, not so much that it favors them as that it dislikes and distrusts their opponents. The spectacle of those who practised or tacitly approved intimidation in other parts of Ireland complaining with injured innocence of its employment against them in Ulster, has amused the British public, which in its rough way thinks they have been rightly served, and will not closely scrutinize each act of the Irish Executive. It trusts Lord Spencer's honesty and admires his firmness. Even the House of Lords was unwilling to adopt the resolution offered by Lord Dunraven blaming the Government for removing Lord Rossmore, since this would have weakened the Viceroy's authority; so the resolution had to be withdrawn.

AN ARCHÆOLOGIST IN TUNIS.

JERBA, February 14, 1884.

THE island of Jerba, from which I write these lines, is certainly one of the finest and least-explored sites of the Tunis Regency. We may count on the fingers of one hand the number of *literary* travellers who have devoted some attention to it, and, until quite lately, Jerba, the Homeric Lotophagitis, was a *terra incognita* to archæology and art. The principal reason for this is the insecurity which prevailed in the southern parts of the Regency before the French occupation, and the complete —or nearly complete—lack of regular means of communication. The French and Italian steamers have only recently begun to land passengers at Jerba, on their road from Sfax or Gabes to Tripolis. Indeed, if it were not for the commercial transactions brought about by the presence of a small French garrison at Jerba, it is doubtful whether any steamer would stop there at all. The northern coast of Jerba is extremely shallow, and the large steamers of the French Transatlantic and Italian Rubattino Companies are obliged to lie at anchor at a distance of six miles from Houmt-Souk, the capital of the island. The sea is never very rough, being broken by the neighboring shoals; but when the wind is fresh, passengers and goods must be landed on an old pontoon, anchored about five miles off from the shore, until the small boats and barges can approach and land them. In the good season and with little wind, sailing vessels take at least three hours from the steamer to the harbor; and when the tide is low (the sea rises nearly six feet in the minor Syrtis), there are no other means of landing than the shoulders of the Arab fishermen. This, of course, is a great nuisance, which prevents many tourists from visiting Jerba, and puts a disagreeable obstacle in the way of commerce. If we may believe the 'Odyssey,' the charms of the Lotophagitis land—identified with Meninx or Jerba from the days of Alexandrian scholarship—are powerful enough to induce travellers to forget their native country. The truth is, nowadays, that it is more easy to get to Jerba than to get out of it. When the steamer coming from Tripolis is in sight, a fresh northern breeze may prevent the boats from reaching it in time, and many French soldiers have had to wait a fortnight before being able to leave the Homeric island. A tourist who decides upon visiting Jerba must have time to spare and no lack of good temper; if he fulfils these two requisites, he will certainly not regret his time, money, and patience.

Situated in the western gulf of the minor Syrtis, Jerba is at but a little distance from the southern shore of the Regency. The modern port of El Kantara, corresponding to the ancient Meninx, capital of the Island in Greek and Roman times, is five miles off the African coast; and the sea is so shallow in the whole gulf which separates Jerba from the mainland, that Roman engineers had built a causeway between Meninx and the opposite shore. This road or wharf still exists to a great length, and is sometimes used by Arab caravans, in spite of the ruined state in which it has been left for many centuries. The natives call it *Urek el-Jemel*, or the road of the camel. A wealthy merchant of Jerba has determined to rebuild it—the expense of the work, amounting to £10,000, to be covered by the fees levied on the travellers who use the road during the ensuing ninety-nine years. If the Government of the Bey gives its assent to this enterprise, we may expect a large revival of Jerbian commerce and prosperity, so greatly impeded by the shallow waters all about the island. It is, in fact, nearly impossible to dig a channel or to build a wharf in the port of Houmt-Souk; and when once Jerba can be easily reached by land, passengers and goods will willingly abandon the sea route, which is subject to the many inconveniences I have already noted.

One of my friends and myself, sent by the French Ministry of Public Instruction to explore the ancient sites of Jerba, have passed about a month in the island, and visited nearly all the villages it contains. Houmt-Souk, the capital, is a neat little place, lying between the sea and beautiful gardens. The population amounts to 3,000 souls, the whole island containing about ten times as many. The inhabitants are chiefly Arabs, Berbers, Maltese, and Jews. They are a very peaceable lot, entirely devoted to agriculture, industry, and the commerce in sponges, quantities of which are daily sold on the market-place of Houmt-Souk. The sponges of Jerba are very large, but much inferior in quality to those about Sfax and Tripolis. In the last few years, prices have greatly risen, although the annual export has increased; and thus the sponge fisheries have become a source of wealth for the Jerbians, who are in commercial intercourse with some large firms at Marseilles. The other articles exported from Houmt-Souk are chiefly olive oil and woollen plaids. The oil is most abundant, the whole island being covered with olive trees, some of which are many centuries old. No olive tree is allowed to be cut down without the leave of the Khalifa, who never gives permission if the tree is looked upon as sound. The woollen plaids are of a particular design, with large red and green stripes; they are much in favor among the Arabs, although a European traveller must find them rather vulgar and coarse. Jerba also contains about 10,000 palm trees, yielding an abundant crop of dates; but the climate is not hot enough to make them rank among the better ones of the Regency, and those of the Jerid and the Nefzaoua, on the frontier of the desert, are far superior to them in size and in flavor. Every reader of the 'Odyssey' knows that the great attraction of Jerba, in the Homeric age, was the fruit of the lotos, "the fruit as sweet as honey," which made the stranger forget his fatherland. Herodotus says that this fruit was like the date, but nothing further is known about it. Botanists have tried to identify it with the jujub, the fruit of which is certainly not worthy of the Homeric praise above alluded to. A more recent and more satisfactory hypothesis is the following: One of the names for the date, in Arabic, is *rotob*, a word which does not seem of Semitic but of Libyan descent, and may correspond to a forgotten term in the most ancient language of Northern Africa. The Homeric word *lotophagi* would be a corruption for *rotophagi*, the phonetic change of *r* to *l* being supported by many

instances, and brought about in the present case by the analogy of the Egyptian *lotos*, a plant well known to the Greeks of remote times and figured on their most archaic pottery. We may well suppose that the Jerbian dates were superior, thirty centuries ago, to what they are now, and resembled those of the Jerid, which are the sweetest fruits in existence. Thus, the hypothesis of a small climatic and phonetic change seems to explain fairly enough the verses of Homer, which have puzzled so many commentators, and naturally occur to the mind of every scholar landing at Jerba.

The island, taken as a whole, is a large oasis, very little raised above the level of the sea, covered with palm, olive, and orange trees, extending over more than twenty square miles, and well furnished with wholesome water. The climate is wonderfully temperate; no grave cases of malarious fever have ever occurred. In the very height of summer a light breeze, rising from the sea, makes the heat very supportable, while the opposite coast is nearly uninhabitable for Europeans. If Jerba is yet a poor country, with a very scanty population, the reason of it is only to be sought in the exactions of the Tunisian tax-gatherer, and that general mismanagement which seems a natural plague in the Levant. French occupation will certainly bring about a revival, especially when the state of things shall have been settled by the complete suppression of the Capitulations. A few Jerbian farmers have already planted vineyards, which yield large crops and a very strong white wine. The Arabs understand nothing about the culture of vineyards, and still less about the making of wine; but when the extent of the vineyards shall have increased, Sicilian vine-growers will come to Jerba and instruct the natives in the art they lack. Within ten or twelve years a good part of the Regency will be planted with vines, and the *crus* of Jerba may certainly be reckoned among those which will be the most in favor among European drinkers.

The day may come when Jerba, with its good water, its shadowy palm trees, and its admirable climate, will be a privileged retiring place for the sick and tired of the Old World. French military doctors have already thought about establishing there a sanitarium for the troops of occupation, so greatly tried by the tropical climates of Gafsa, Gabes, and Ras-el-Oued. There are naturally no hotels at Houmt-Souk; but the French garrison is established in a vast Arab *bordj*, or castle, where a room, a seat at the mess, and good hospitality are readily offered to every stranger who comes to Jerba with another purpose than commerce. After having passed there a few days in most agreeable company, we expressed the wish of undertaking excavations at El Kantara, which, as I have already said, is the ancient town of Meninx, and lies on the southern coast of Jerba, twenty miles distant from Houmt-Souk. Captain Laferrière, the commander of the French force, gave us an escort of twelve men, furnished with all the necessary implements for digging. The road from Houmt-Souk to El Kantara is really charming, and goes through a long succession of gardens, not an inch of the soil reminding us that the Libyan deserts lie very near. The last village we crossed, called Houmt-Sedouikh, afforded us an agreeable surprise: a Maltese, who keeps a little bar, could speak some words of French, and enabled us to talk with the Khalifa, a very intelligent Arab, who promised us all possible means of subsistence, which he accordingly forwarded to us on the following day. Three miles further on we reached El Kantara, where there exists but a small Arab *bordj*, beside the ruins of Meninx. Happily, a French battalion had encamped last year on the same spot, and the officers had built a little house, or rather a room, which relieved us from sleeping under our tents. The next morning before sunrise our soldiers were at work among the ruins, and we could take a view of the whole plain.

The ruins of Meninx form a vast field of marbles and mosaics, extending over more than two miles in length and half a mile in breadth. In no place, not even in Greece, have I met with such a profusion of precious marbles cut into gigantic blocks. Two Roman emperors, Volusianus and Trebonianus Gallus, were proclaimed at Meninx, and it is probable that they did for that city what Gordianus did for Thysdrus, where he assumed the crown. The central part of the site is occupied by the remains of an immense marble palace, which must have ranked, in splendor and magnitude, among the finest of the ancient world. The soil is strewn with columns of red and green marble, some of them ten yards long and one yard in diameter. The cornices and mouldings are also of an extraordinary size, and of careful, though rather frigid, workmanship. Eleven statues, representing emperors and victories, all of violet or yellow marble, were lying among the ruins. We contrived, with great pains, to have them set upright, and were able to take some good photographs of them. Unfortunately, all the heads were missing, and our excavations could rescue but fragments of them. The palace is surrounded with Roman houses, which are sometimes in an extraordinary state of preservation. Nearly every one of them is adorned with a pavement in good mosaic; some walls are still covered with stucco, where the remains of mural paintings may be traced. At the western end of the town is a fine Byzantine church, from which a large baptismal font, in white marble, was taken away last year by a French cruiser, and now lies in the arsenal at Tunis, waiting to be shipped to Toulon by some man-of-war returning home. After having taken a number of photographs and copied several Roman inscriptions, we drew a plan of the whole site, and returned to El Kantara with a few specimens of sculpture.

Our next expedition, accompanied by twenty men and a lieutenant, led us to Hadjim, a little port on the south side of Jerba, where we saw an old Arab captain, formerly the English consular agent, who begged me to translate for him a letter from the Foreign Office which he had been unable to decipher. The letter, signed Earl Granville, was a polite *fin de non-recevoir*, opposed to certain demands of the old man. I told him that Earl Granville sent him his compliments—which was not untrue—and he proudly enclosed the paper in a small box along with testimonials given to him by French officers. The captain sent for a large lighter and had us taken over to Bou-Grara, on the opposite coast, where we spent some time in excavating. Bou-Grara, a quite desert and very insecure place, is the present name of the ancient Gightis, a flourishing Roman town, where Guérin and Wilmanns, the only two archæologists who have visited that part of the Regency, had already discovered a few inscriptions. We began digging at the four ends of the forum, and were soon rewarded by the disclosure of several large pedestals with dedicatory inscriptions, of three statues more than life-size, and especially of a fine head of the Emperor Augustus, veiled as a pontiff. Bou-Grara is certainly a place where large excavations should be undertaken, for we hardly spent an hour there without discovering an inscription or a piece of sculpture. As our time was limited, and the provisioning of our escort gave some difficulty (Bou Grara is thirty miles distant from the nearest village), we abandoned in four days that interesting site, and re-embarked on our lighter. The wind was very unfavorable, and instead of reaching Hadjim at sunset, we spent the whole night on board, and were obliged on the following day at noon to land at Kelela, another Jerbian port, which occupies the site of the ancient Hares. Our friends in Jerba were getting anxious about us, and on setting foot on the island we were surrounded by the sheikhs of the neighboring villages, who had hastened to bring us our luncheon, which we were greatly in want of. The same day, or rather the same night, we got back to Houmt-Souk with our archæological booty. I will not trouble your readers with details concerning our further rambles in Jerba. Let it be enough to say that on leaving Lotophagitis we feel truly sorry, like Ulysses and his companions, not on account of the sweet lotos, but in consideration of the sweet climate and kind hospitality, which, to the same extent, we are sure not to find at Zarziss and on the frontier of Tripolis, whither the course of our archæological journey now obliges us to direct our steps.

SALOMON REINACH.

THE DEBATE ON SUDAN.

LONDON, February 20.

THE long debate on the behavior of the Government in Sudan has at last reached its close in a division taken last night. It has been extended two days beyond what was originally contemplated, nominally on the ground that so large a number of Opposition members desire to expose the faults of the Ministry. The Ministerialists, however, insinuate that the real motive for the dilatory tactics of their foes has been the hope that the news of some further disaster at Khartum or on the Red Sea coast might arrive before the division was taken, and thereby a number of wavering members be detached from the Ministry. Contrary to the usual course of things, the conflict which began in general excitement and alarm on the part of the Liberals, became every day less and less animated because its issue became more and more certain. The silence of the Government, the misfortunes which had befallen the Egyptian forces on the Red Sea coast, the anxiety with which General Gordon's perilous journey across the deserts of Nubia to Berber on the Upper Nile and thence to Khartum was watched, produced a general sense of anger among the Conservatives, of despondency among the Liberals, of irritation and restlessness in the general public. The Ministry themselves were not free from apprehensions as to the result, because they knew that some of the members for small boroughs who support them, desiring to postpone a redistribution of seats which will extinguish those boroughs, would be glad of a good pretext for deserting their standard; and the fact that the fall of the town of Sinkat and slaughter of its garrison was announced just when the debate began, struck every one as a bad omen. If Tokar, the other beleaguered stronghold, were also to fall—most people said—or if anything untoward befalls Gordon, the Ministry may prepare to quit Downing Street.

Sir Stafford Northcote opened the battle with a speech less vigorous and combative than the occasion called for. He is a very able man—perhaps the ablest man, after Lord Cairns, that the Conservative party possesses—full of knowledge, a close reasoner, a fluent speaker, with great administrative tact and long Parliamentary experience. But he is not forcible in debate, and least of all forcible in attack. He did not charge like a man who expects to break the line, and, indeed, seemed to damp the ardor of his followers. In listening to him you usually get the impression that he feels the weak points

of his own case, and has not that oratorical passion, that gift of working one's self up into an emotional pugnacity, which enables some great advocates to speak better against their convictions than with them. Mr. Gladstone, who followed immediately, was, on the contrary, in his best mood. He reminded one of a horse long kept in a stable, and happy at last to breathe the air of combat and thunder over the field. Contrary to expectation, he was cheerful and even playful, seeming to welcome the direct challenge of his policy, and demanding its approval as one who felt himself so clearly in the right that he could not doubt the issue. Sir Stafford Northcote's resolution of censure blamed the policy of the Government for its "vacillation and inconsistency." Mr. Gladstone set himself to show that, whether right or wrong, it had at any rate been consistent; and here he carried his party with him, because every one felt that if he had erred, it was in having clung too tenaciously to a complete abstention from interference in the affairs of Sudan, and in having insisted on the abandonment by the Egyptian Government of its attempt at reconquering the revolted provinces. Neither this, however, although a fair argumentative point to score, nor his defence of the questionable parts of his whole Sudanese policy, seemed to affect his audience so much as the spectacle of the orator himself, displaying in his seventy-fifth year a force and fire, an ingenuity, and readiness, and fervor such as none else in England has displayed within the memory of living men. The contrast between the brilliance of this sun, almost touching the horizon which will soon conceal him, and the pale rays of his enemies and his friends alike, told upon those who watched him, and produced a rapid rally of personal loyalty. Yet, like most of Mr. Gladstone's speeches, there is little in this one which deserves to be read a month hence, or which will convey to posterity any notion of the sort of power he exercises. His words, and even his arguments, sink toward the level of ordinary oratory when separated from the voice and manner, from their aptness to the particular occasion, and from the whole impression of this wonderful personality.

There was little remarkable in the further course of the debate, though a skilful and minute defence of the Government was offered by Sir Charles Dilke, and a powerful review of the whole position, dwelling on the difficulties which the Ministry had to encounter, but not sparing their mistakes, came from Mr. Goschen. The bad habit which has sprung up of extending discussions over more days than they used to occupy hours, makes the later stages of our debates tedious. In this instance, however, a new agency has been called in by the Opposition. Encouraged by the universal sympathy of the fashionable world, and indeed of the mass of the richer and professional classes in London, they have got up public meetings, to denounce the cowardice and inhumanity of the Cabinet in suffering the town of Sinkat to be captured and its population slaughtered, and in so long delaying to send succor to Tokar. At these meetings, held one in the Guildhall of this city (which the Lord Mayor, who is a strong Tory, granted for the occasion), and the other in the West End, vehement invectives against the Ministry were delivered to excited and sometimes uproarious audiences. In London, with more than 4,000,000 of people, it is of course easy to get the largest room filled by an audience sympathetic with any cause which has some vigorous leaders, so that the mere fact of meetings being held and resolutions carried, might not seem to mean much. In this case, however, there can be no doubt that strong feelings do exist, not only among the Conservatives, but also in that class which, while considering itself Liberal on certain domestic questions, is in favor of a spirited, and possibly even aggressive, foreign policy. The dinner-party view of politics is warmly condemnatory of the Government; and it is natural that the political leaders who find London society with them should believe that the country also is so. In the great cities, except Liverpool and Sheffield, the Liberal party holds an easy majority; but in the centre and west of London, Toryism is even more distinctly superior, so that this is the best place in which to overawe a Government, and impress the country by popular demonstrations.

That these demonstrations produced no effect on the votes of members was partly due to the heated and extravagant language which the leading speakers used. To call Mr. Gladstone the Moloch of Midlothian, and describe his Cabinet as wading knee-deep in blood, because they had not relieved the garrison of Sinkat, is not the best way to move that middle section of our public which holds the balance between parties. Moderate Liberals who censured the inaction, as they think it, of the Ministry, or its too obstinate adherence to a line of conduct which events were daily making less and less possible, began to forget these faults in their disgust at the intemperance with which the Tory skirmishers assailed the Government. The question became less and less a question whether the Cabinet had taken the wisest course, and more and more a fight between the two great parties, in which of course party ties asserted their strength. Those who had been disposed to vote against the Ministry asked themselves whether, after all, they would mend matters by admitting Lord Salisbury and Lord Randolph Churchill to hold the reins of power, and extricate us from this very perplexing situation. They found it the easier to adhere to their old banner because the language now held by the Government, as well as their more recent acts, indicated a change of policy, and the adoption of a clearer responsibility not only for the settlement of the Sudan question, but also for the administration of Egypt proper. This, they said, is after all the main thing, and if Mr. Gladstone will but do this, we had better leave the threads in the hands which now hold them.

Fortune, too, aided the Government. No further bad news arrived, but instead telegrams announcing General Gordon's arrival at Khartum, his enthusiastic welcome by the population, his own growing confidence in the issue of his mission. It also came to be seen, as the debate lingered on from day to day, that the excitement of London society was not shared by the North of England, or by Scotland, where the whole Liberal party, even if some of its organs gave but doubtful approval to the Government's past action, remained faithful to Mr. Gladstone. These causes made it plain that he would obtain a sufficient majority, so that the only question of interest came to be, how the party of Mr. Parnell would vote. Their general attitude is that of hostility to all ministries, Tory and Liberal alike, since their avowed object is, by playing off one English party against the other, to hold the balance of power, and thus extort concessions. These considerations suggested their voting with Sir Stafford Northcote. On the other hand, there was the fact that the present Ministry is pledged to bring in a bill largely extending the franchise in Ireland, a bill by whose help they expect to win several seats, and this bill would, of course, be thrown off for years if the Ministry were to fall. It is a pretty illustration of the position of this group of members, showing how insignificant to them are all questions except so far as they affect those Irish aims on which they are bent, that the question of the substantial merits of the Ministerial policy was not expected by any one to influence their votes. As some of them had expressed a hearty sympathy with the Mahdi now, as with Arabi Pasha previously, and as the Government was blamed for not having resisted his troops and assumed a more absolute control over Egypt, they might seem to be far more in accord with Mr. Gladstone than with the Tory leaders. But their decision, taken, it is said, by a narrow majority in their own council, was to vote with Sir Stafford Northcote against the Government, and so they voted accordingly. Notwithstanding this addition to the hostile forces, the Ministry obtained a majority large enough (312 against 262) to reinvigorate their party both in Parliament and in the country, and I believe that they stand better now than when Parliament met. The diminishing weight of the House of Lords has received a remarkable illustration, by the fact that the vote of censure on the Government which they passed over one night's debate, was hardly noticed even by the organs of the Opposition.

Y.

Correspondence.

THE PROSPECT OF A PREMIUM ON GOLD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few obvious considerations may perhaps tend to quiet the nerves of those who apprehend an early return of the premium on gold, and a depreciation of our currency to the silver standard, as a result of enforced silver payments by the Treasury. In the first place, a premium on gold cannot be maintained except where there has been an overissue of currency not convertible on demand into gold. Till we have not merely enough, but more than enough, of greenbacks, national-bank notes, and silver or silver certificates in circulation, to occupy the whole field of currency, there must be some gold in use as money, and so long as this is the case there can be no real premium on gold. Such a premium could only result from a depreciation of the currency; and in order to have depreciation we must first have inflation.

To assume that we could have a depreciation of the currency down to the silver standard, occurring simultaneously with a great contraction of the circulation by the withdrawal of gold, is to forget one of the fundamental laws governing the value of money. If the 500 millions of gold now included in the currency were withdrawn, without being replaced by an equal amount of some other form of circulating medium, not only could there be no depreciation of the remaining currency as a result, but every dollar left in circulation, of whatever material composed, would rise greatly in value. Instead of a premium on gold, we should have a sharp decline in prices, a great falling off in the importation of foreign goods, and a large inflow of gold from abroad. Conceivably it is possible for the holders of gold in any country, at any time, to produce these effects by a combined movement. It was as possible with us in 1883 as it will be in 1885. Our protection against it lies, first, in the fact that effective combination among so many cannot be maintained; and, secondly, in the fact that there would be nothing to gain by the movement. The only use open for the gold withdrawn from circulation would be exportation to pay for imported goods; but, in the nature of the case, there could be no demand for gold for exportation. The present situation, we must bear in mind, differs widely from that of 1862-3. We have now no flood of

irredeemable paper pouring out upon us. The greenback is fixed in amount and redeemable in coin. The national-bank circulation is contracting rather than increasing. The only source of inflation at present is the coinage of silver dollars, and this, fortunately for us, is kept down to two millions a month.

The situation, then, is briefly this: We have at present upwards of 500 millions of gold in use as money. That our currency, this gold included, is not much, if at all, in excess of our proper needs, may be inferred from the fact that the gold, having largely come to us from abroad, has shown so marked and decided a tendency to remain with us. Now, towards replacing this gold, and thus releasing it, or expelling it, from the circulation, the Treasury has only 35 millions of available silver—that being the amount it holds in excess of the outstanding silver certificates. This leaves a balance of 465 millions to be made up by the slow process of coining. At the rate of two millions a month, nearly twenty years would be required for the operation. In the meantime the currency must include some gold, and while this is the case there can be no premium. But once the point is reached at which the supply of currency other than gold is sufficient to do the whole work of currency, gold will disappear and will begin to command a premium. But even then we shall not at once "drop to the silver standard." This will not occur until, by the further coinage of silver, the whole volume of the currency has been inflated some 12 or 15 per cent.—a process which, at the rate of two millions a month, would occupy five or six years more.

It may be thought by some that the 143 millions of gold belonging to the Treasury ought not to be regarded as forming part of the currency, especially when the Treasury is said to be threatening us with payments in silver. But this view leaves out of sight the currency obligations of the Treasury. There are in actual circulation about 300 millions of greenbacks, which the Treasury is bound to redeem in specie on demand. With gold at a premium, not much less than a reserve of 300 millions in silver would be required to protect the gold in the Treasury from the public. The present available reserve of thirty-five millions would be brushed aside in a few days Now, at the rate of two millions a month, the Treasury would require eleven years for coining the needed addition. But in order to accomplish the task it must, in the meantime, not only abstain from forcing silver on the public, but must even carefully hoard every new dollar coined. Under these circumstances there would of course be no inflation going on, and so no tendency towards a premium on gold. In order to produce that tendency the new silver must be paid out; but if paid out, it could no longer serve as a screen to protect the Treasury gold from the public demand; so that even after the Treasury had accumulated 300 millions of available silver, we should still be saved from the worst effects of the silver malady by the absence of inflation.

The case is still further strengthened by taking into account the circulation of the national banks. This amounts at present to about 346 millions. The holders of these notes are entitled to call for the redemption of them in some form of legal tender—that is, in gold or in silver dollars, or in greenbacks— and the Treasury is charged with the duty of carrying the redemption into effect. In case of a premium on gold, the Treasury could not ward off the onslaught on its gold reserve, and on the gold reserves of the banks, by paying out the redeemed greenbacks in redemption of the bank notes; for all greenbacks so paid out would be instantly presented for a second redemption in specie. Evidently, then, for this purpose, the Treasury is in the same position as it would be if the greenbacks outstanding were 646 millions instead of 300 millions. The only difference is that it would have the aid of any silver in the hands of the banks. But this brings us back to the point that, until there are some hundreds of millions more silver dollars in existence than there are at present, we are in no danger of a premium on gold. Any attempt on the part of the Treasury or the banks to hoard gold from the public may undoubtedly cause disturbance and inconvenience of other kinds; but it will certainly fail, under present conditions, to send gold to a premium and keep it so.

The advent of a premium on gold is therefore as yet a somewhat remote contingency. Of course this is no argument in favor of maintaining the present absurd and injurious law relating to the coinage of silver. The full effects of the silver evil will be slow in making their appearance. But this very slowness will make them all the more crushing and difficult to remedy if they should unhappily be allowed to come upon us. With a mass of perhaps 800 millions of highly inconvenient and, in relation to other civilized countries, uncurrent silver dollars on our hands, with our paper depreciated to the silver standard, and our gold exported as merchandise, the task of restoring our currency to a sound condition would be one of gigantic proportions, and would prove both costly and difficult to an extent which can hardly be estimated at present. And even though these worst consequences are still somewhat distant, every day that passes leaving the present law unrepealed, removes us one step further from a perfectly healthy currency, and increases the difficulty of the task which, sooner or later, must be faced.—Yours very sincerely,

S. M. Macvane.

Cambridge, Mass., March 3, 1884.

MORMON LIFE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For a whole generation this has been one of the many vexed questions before the American people: How shall Mormonism be managed? What shall be done to end the crime and scandal which centre in the Great Salt Lake Basin? There, sure enough, is the seat of a hideous monster, but how shall a hook be put in his nose, and he be subdued to good morals and manners? Nothing is more certain than that before the difficulty can be solved, its real nature must be accurately understood. The terms of the problem must shape the course of the solution. The nation at large, and even editors, statesmen, and clergymen, in other matters well informed, are here deplorably ignorant. Too often rumor and gossip with regard to Utah affairs have passed for settled fact, while blind prejudice and heated passion have prompted tongues and pens. There is no small ground for the conviction that the action of Congress two years since was based upon a misapprehension approaching the ludicrous. Such facts as the following are patent to every non-Mormon resident of Utah.

The growth of Mormonism and its present strength are apt by alarmists to be much overrated, and some would have it that the nation is as much imperilled by the Latter-Day Saints as by the hordes of the queued and almond-eyed from over sea. Last fall the telegraph, multiplying the number by ten, made Mr. Cannon say that 23,400 converts had been baptized in six months, and so the statement went forth everywhere. But the total of immigration to "Zion" from the Old World since 1840 is only some 86,000. For the first decade the annual average was 750, for the second decade 2,000, for the third and fourth 2,500, while for the last five years it has ranged from 2,500 to 3,000. At the death of the "Prophet" in 1844 the number of his adherents was estimated at 150,000, but so terrible was the scourging that followed that less than 50,000 were found to make the memorable exodus to Salt Lake. As for the large majority they lived and died in the "Babylon" of "Gentile" regions, satisfied with the taste they had had of Mormon good things. And now, after forty years, not more than 100,000 are found in all the Rocky Mountain Territories, including the lukewarm and children (all of eight and over are members of the Church). Then the saving clause of the system is found in the ease with which its yoke is cast off. Probably 50 per cent. of all who are baptized apostatize sooner or later. Thus eight of the eleven "witnesses" fell from grace within ten years, and were cut off, and also a majority of the original "apostles," while of some 35,000 converts gained in Sweden between 1850 and 1882, 11,000 repudiated the faith *before emigration*.

The mass of the people in Utah are not monsters, horned and hoofed, but, on the contrary, are honest, industrious, well-meaning, conscientious, and as virtuous as the same intellectual and social grade of English or Scandinavians in Wisconsin or Minnesota. Belonging by birth to the lower classes, and living upon the rough frontier, they are rude, as a matter of course, and exhibit much of the animal; but licentiousness, drunkenness, and deeds of violence are far from common. Of patriotism, it must be confessed, there is general and serious lack. And this, in part, because born and reared under other ideas and institutions; in part because their coming to this land was far less to become Americans than Mormons; but chiefly because the church which holds and rules them is essentially and utterly non-American and anti-republican. Civil government, whether State or Federal, is ignored as both useless and usurping. The chief end of man in Utah is to stand by the priesthood and obey it in all things.

Polygamy is by no means universal, and may fairly be called exceptional in Utah society. There are more men than women by about 6,000. The Commissioners could only find 12,000 or 15,000 whom the Edmunds bill disfranchised on account of plural marriage. In some communities the number of polygamists is quite large, and in others very small. In one county, out of eight bishops only two have more than one wife. In a town of 1,500 inhabitants but six families are obedient to the "celestial law," and in another of 800, but two. Multitudes hold to the theory with great zeal and tenacity, but nevertheless in practice are monogamous, and numbers are in open opposition both in tongue and deed. A meeting was lately held in a certain settlement, at which, on the part of the elders of Israel, there was great lamentation and weeping over the fact that the rising generation of girls was so depraved as to be determined to have a whole husband or none, and one heart-broken septuagenarian possessed of only seven or eight marital partners declared, with heaving breast, that if he should need a young wife in addition, he knew not where to look for the same. Evidence abounds that this abnormal and obnoxious institution has passed its hey day and is in the sere and yellow leaf. The climax of the abominable was reached twenty-five years ago when polygamy was the staple of exhortation and command. Now it is held to be only for the few, the *élite*, the chiefs; is the reward of special virtue, and constitutes the badge of aristocracy. The maximum of wives, too, grows steadily less. Once ten or fifteen were not uncommon, but now three or four are held sufficient to enable

one to rise and reign in the eternal worlds. The female fashions of the times make it impossible to clothe so many, and the settled judgment of Christendom makes itself felt more and more. No doubt, though, polygamy will continue to be preached for years. In spite of the Edmunds bill the Endowment-house week by week receives such as desire to be "sealed for eternity." And this will not cease so long as women, all things considered, prefer plural to single marriages.

The situation in Utah steadily improves, has changed vastly for the better within twenty or ten years The nadir was reached in 1857 during the days of the dreadful "Reformation," that veritable reign of terror, when the Mountain Meadows massacre was committed, when "blood atonement" was in vogue, and apostates and other foes were "used up" by the hundred at the command of the priesthood. But, fortunately, in the nature of things such frenzy as marked that period was of short duration. All concerned in those excesses were appalled and disgusted. In 1863 the Federal army took up permanent quarters at Camp Douglas near Salt Lake City, and activity in mining operations soon followed, and a large influx of Gentiles. In 1869 the Pacific Railroad was completed, bringing Mormonism face to face with the nation: and in the same year occurred the "Godbeite Movement," a determined and most vigorous strike for free speech, free thought, and public decency in the conduct of church affairs In 1877 died Brigham Young, whose iron will for thirty years had been undisputed law, and whose resistless grasp had been on the minds and hearts of the whole people to fetter, and crush, and deform. Since then other railroads have been added, and miners by thousands throng the mountains, every one a fearless and outspoken hater of ecclesiastical arrogance and impertinent meddling. An untrammelled press has conquered a large place. Christian schools and churches are rapidly multiplying, so that there are now to be found 90 of the one, with 175 teachers, and 35 of the other, with 40 ministers. Person and property are as safe from violence as in any of the States or Territories. Life is tolerable, at least in many communities, for Gentiles, and even for apostates from the Mormon Church. But the case even yet is bad enough, and in any other Territory would be counted unendurable. And the evil and curse centre in the facts which follow.

The most characteristic and essential feature of Mormonism, as well as that in which it is most hostile to ideas most cherished in the nineteenth century, and especially in this nation, is found in its dogma of an inspired and infallible priesthood, in daily and direct communication with the Most High, uttering his voice, and clothed with power and authority to rule and fashion in all things whatsoever, whether religious, social, business, or political. Joseph Smith founded a kingdom of God, literal, temporal, material—no mere paltry affair of repentance, faith, baptism, and the like, but including all civil functions from the greatest to the least, and be they executive, legislative, or judicial. All officials, Presidents, Governors, Judges, Congressmen, and the like, to hold legitimate power must be chosen by revelation, and must be of the holy priesthood. *Vox populi, vox dei*, is a damnable and heaven-defying heresy. The people are to have no voice—at least the law of the kingdom is *vox dei, vox populi, i. e.*, let God speak (of course through Taylor, Cannon, the Twelve, the High Priests, etc.), and let the ballot box only echo and register the theocratic decree. Here is political bossism with a vengeance. Nor is this merely a dogma for the theologians to argue over and to slumber harmless in musty books, but it is living and mighty. Under just such a régime is every Latter-Day Saint living to-day, and is taught to call it perfect freedom. This is the crucial test of Mormon orthodoxy. As polygamy was an afterthought, an addendum, an excrescence, so the law concerning it may by the priesthood be repealed; but this absorption of the state by the Church, this preposterous and unbounded assumption of right to absolute and universal rule, is certain to continue to the last. Of course there is no room for political parties, for how can there be an opposition when Heaven directs the ballot? The Mormon vote always has been, and in the nature of the case must always be, cast solid. It was for following the hierarchy in this thing that this people came to such bitter grief in Missouri and Illinois, and their very presence became intolerable. It was political hate and fear, far more than religious, that cost the prophet—originator of this precious scheme of monarchy and despotism—his life. And hence, also, it is that between the church-state set up in Utah, and institutions counted most sacred and dear by every American, an "irrepressible conflict" exists and must continue until the Mormon priesthood yield, or else our 50,000,000 conclude to adopt the Utah idea. It was Brigham's famous dictum that he had full right to meddle and manage in every particular "from the setting up of a stocking to the ribbons on a woman's bonnet"; and some 8,000 or 10,000 men in and about Salt Lake are Brighams in small, and in this particular follow hard after him. And what is the nation going to do about it?

H. M.

SALT LAKE CITY, March 3, 1884.

CHARLES READE ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In *Harper's Monthly* for March, 1884, appears the first instalment of a story called "The Picture." This story is one of a series preparing by Charles Reade for that periodical—a series to be followed, as the advertisement announces, "by sketches of Bible characters in which Scriptural heroes will be presented as seen by a student of human life and nature"—and of the Eighth Commandment. Now, this story, "The Picture," has either been borrowed by Charles Reade from the owner of it, for the sake of its better "setting," or has been purchased by him from the owner, with an occult understanding that the editor of *Harper's Monthly* and the credulous American public shall in the transaction be laudably cozened. Whether bought or borrowed, the plot, the essential phases of dialogue, and the accessory descriptive padding, to the minutest detail, are abstracted from "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room," a story which appeared in No. 11 of the *Month*, London, probably 1869; and in *Littell's Living Age*, November 6-November 27, 1869. "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room," with other short tales, was published by Littell & Gay, 1870, in an octavo volume, paper. The same story, in company with "The Straw-cutter's Daughter," was afterward issued by Sadlier in a 16mo volume.

On first examination there is no clue to the authorship of the original story, since the *Living Age* vouchsafes merely the information, "From the French." But Sadlier's edition puts "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room" into covers with one of Lady Georgiana Fullerton's novels, and the American Catalogue classes it twice among her writings. Further proof of the authorship of the original story there has not been time to acquire, and it is not essential; but there is in "The Portrait" a certain delicateness of handling, a rare neatness in plot, and a general sadness of tone that remind one vividly, from style alone, of Lady Georgiana's "Ellen Middleton," a novel of which Lord Moncreiff has said: "It leaves as complete a sense of wretchedness and discomfort on the reader's mind as the writer could have desired." Moreover, we know that Lady Georgiana Fullerton, whose father, Earl Granville, was Ambassador to France in the reign of Louis Philippe, wrote several of her novels in French, among others "La Comtesse de Bonneville," 1857, and "Rose Leblanc," 1860. It is more than probable, then, that "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining room" was one of this order, and that it was first translated into English when published in the *Month* and the *Living Age*. From the style of Charles Reade's adaptation, we are inclined to believe that "The Picture," whether it be the outcome of buying, borrowing, or unconscious memory, is based upon the English rather than the French original.

This adaptation, so far as it is published, adopts substantially the same characters and relates precisely the same leading incidents. One should, however, bear in mind that in Mr. Reade's allotropic modification of the story, the original substance has been considerably condensed as well as vilified. The following coincidences may prove entertaining, if not instructive, subjects:

ORIGINAL VERSION.	MR. CHARLES READE.
1. Vases of Japan China, always filled with fresh flowers, decorated the corners of the room, and each frame of the gray wainscoted walls was enlivened by a landscape painting of some historical scene. . . . On the walnut sideboard stood some ancient pieces of plate of exquisite workmanship. . . . A portrait which Dom Gérusac had hung up over the pier-glass of the chimney-piece.	1. Chinese vases five feet high, and always filled with flowers, guarded the four corners of the room; vast landscapes were painted on the walls and framed in panels of mellow oak: many pieces of curious old plate glittered on the sideboard. . . . Over the mantel-piece of the dining-room hung a picture in an oval frame.
2. "And that frame, Frederic, is a very pretty one, too." . . . "That portrait," I exclaimed, "oh yes!" "Dear me, no, not the portrait," he cried. "It is . . . in very bad drawing." . . . The little finger which my uncle had found so much fault with had disappeared.	2. "I bought her for the frame, you may be sure." . . . "But oh, uncle, what is that compared with the divine effigy?" "Divine fiddlesticks," said he; "look at her little finger, all out of drawing."
3. The Ambassador was actually riding up to the door on a small ass, . . . his whole suite consisting of a peasant, who carried his portmanteau.	3. Arrived with military precision an elderly gentleman (the ambassador) on a mule, with a small valise carried by a peasant.
4. Babelon came to me, . . . looking aghast. "Mercy on us, sir, what *are* we going to do? Marion has been working so hard since yesterday that now she is taken ill, and has just been obliged to go to bed." "Well, you must wait at dinner," I said; "go and put on your best gown and a clean apron."	4. Suzon met me in wild distress. "Oh, M. Frédéric! What shall we do? Here's Catherine been ailing this three days, and . . . the master ordered a great dinner and she would cook it, . . . and now she is lying down on her bed, more dead than alive." "Poor thing," said I. "Well, you must . . . put on your best cap and wait."
5. "Do you know where that portrait came from?" . . . "Yes, Monseigneur, my uncle bought it at D—— in an old curiosity-shop."	5. "May I ask how that portrait came here?" "Oh, yes, Monsieur le Comte," said I, "my uncle bought it in a bric-à-brac shop."
6. . . . this parterre was a raised platform. . . . This little miniature hanging garden of Babylon.	6. Upon the parterre, which was like the hanging garden of Babylon.
7. It was a wooden figure. . . . "A sportsman with his gun in his hand—" the Baron answered. "No, papa, it is a shepherd keeping his flock and leaning on his staff." Mdlle de Malpiere said, . . . and she put the little figure in her pocket. "I think it is the image of some saint," the Baron *opined*.	7. And he drew out the little wooden figure. "It is a sportsman," said the Marquis "leaning on his gun." . . . "You are blind," said Irène; "it is a shepherd leaning on his staff." And she took the hideous statuette and put it in her pocket. . . . Mdlle. Donon *opined* it was a saint.

There is scarcely a paragraph in "The Picture" in which such amusing coincidences with "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room" as the preceding do not occur.

CHARLES MILLS GAYLEY.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

[Another correspondent (*Nation*, p. 189) has already likened "The Picture" to a novel from the French, "Where Shall He Find Her?" (N. Y., 1867)—perhaps originally iden-

tical with "What the Papers Revealed," in the *St. James Magazine* for August, 1867, as pointed out by a correspondent of the *Literary World* for March 8 ?—Ed. Nation.]

THE PRESIDENT AND THE SOUTHERN REPUBLICANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the last number of the *Nation* I observe the following language:

"Nothing seemed less likely in either of those years" (1872 and 1876) "than that an Administration candidate for the Governorship could be defeated in New York by a majority of 192,000, or than that Civil Service Reform Acts could be passed both in Congress and in the State Legislature, or than that Mr. Chester A. Arthur would be found commending such laws, *and at least pretending to execute them*," etc., etc.

I have been a constant reader of your excellent paper for fourteen years, and have delighted in its righteous denunciations of political abuses which have afflicted the country during that period, and admired its able advocacy of important political reforms, many of which have been incorporated in the legislation of the nation; but is there not quite a departure from its customary fairness when it accuses the President of "pretending to execute . . . the Civil Service Reform Acts"?

In this connection, it is also asserted that—

"The Southern delegates, in fact, occupy the same position in a national Republican convention as the Southern Democratic vote does in the Electoral College. Both are 'solid,' and one is about as much of an evil as the other. *President Arthur's strength in the Convention will be made up mainly of this solid Southern contingency*, which will not be able to give a single electoral vote for the Republican Presidential candidate."

Taken together, the language quoted creates the impression, whether so intended or not, that the President is not discharging his duties relative to the enforcement of the Civil-Service Reform Act, and that his failure to do so is occasioned by his desire for a renomination. You do not say so, but this may be read between the lines.

It must be remembered, that in most of the Southern States the Republicans constitute such a hopeless minority that, politically speaking, there is but one thing to engage their attention—a Federal appointment. When appointed, the creature of the appointing power becomes the friend of the Administration; and so long as there is no law to prohibit the person appointed from using his official authority and influence to coerce or control the acts of his acquaintances and others in glorification of his official creator, this natural exhibition of gratitude should be expected. It is true, an office should be regarded as a public trust and all that; but where an office-holder's choice is between two candidates, both of whom are regarded equally worthy, is it not natural that he should incline to the one who bestows the appointment? So, although the Southern Republican delegates may be solid for Mr. Arthur, it does not follow that he has encouraged it by any neglect of his official duty.

If the Republican delegates from the South are solid for Mr. Arthur in the next National Convention through the manipulations of the Federal office-holders in that part of the country, then responsibility for it will, in a great measure, lie with the friends of reform; for there is nothing in the Civil Service Reform Act of January 16, 1883, to prohibit any person in the public service from coercing the political action of any one, except as his moral sense may be influenced by the mere declaration "that no person in said service (public service) has any right to use his official authority or influence to coerce the political action of any person or body." There is no penalty in the act for the violation of this provision.

If the evil which you deplore as coming from so "thoroughly mercenary a brigade" as a solid Southern Republican delegation, is wrought by a disregard of that provision of the Civil-Service Reform Act just referred to, then the earnestness of the friends of reform, and the sincerity of the President, may both be thoroughly tested by so amending the Civil-Service Reform Act of 1883, at once, as to make the penalties of that statute applicable to the provision just quoted, for the time has not yet been fixed in any of the Southern States for the holding of Republican delegate conventions.

Very respectfully,
E. W. Bagby.

Paducah, Ky., March 2, 1884.

THE LAW OF THE GOEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your discussion (No. 973) of the new doctrine of "Goelism," you identify the blood-revenge of "barbarous" tribes with the Mosaic law of the goel. A careful examination of the statutes will show, I think, that the Hebrew law was as much in advance of the common practice of blood-revenge as our system of trial by magistrate is superior to any method of private revenge, and that it gave Israel comparative immunity from the bloody strife of other nations. The six cities of refuge for involuntary homicides (Greece and Rome seem to have provided these too); the restriction of liability to vengeance to the person of the offender; the designation of the nearest of kin as the goel—all distinguish very markedly the Mosaic law from the practices of the surrounding nations. Among the Bedouins—and they are fair specimens of "barbarous tribes"—the right of revenge belonged to any relative of the slain to the fifth degree upon any relative of the slayer to the same degree. It descended also to the latest generations, and was annulled only by money compensation.

But even without these important distinctions, the authority of the Mosaic law should not be brought to such use to-day as Rev. Mr. Finch proposes. It was given to Israel only, and that for a special purpose. A universal application was never sought or even permitted. And while it was as light to the darkness of heathenism around about it, under the clear light of Christianity it becomes darkness itself, without obligation for even the most devout Christian.

A complete *reductio ad absurdum* of Mr. Finch's argument would be had by quoting any one of a dozen statutes which rest on the same basis as the law of the goel. He admits that Israel's was a "ruder" age than ours, yet "goelism" has no more place in the civilization of to-day than circumcision, or the penalties of contact with dead bodies, of bodily pollution, or the prohibition of shaving the beard, etc., etc.—I am, sir, Yours, respectfully,

W. S. P. Bryan.

West Virginia, March, 1884.

[We do not see how any system in which private revenge plays any part in the punishment of crime can be compared to a system like the modern one, from which private revenge is wholly excluded. It was the exclusion of the individual from all share in redressing his own wrongs in cold blood which constituted the first great advance in criminal jurisprudence. Blood revenge is and has always been regulated among all barbarous peoples, as well as among the Jews; but as long as it was tolerated at all, no really marked progress was made, and the law was not really triumphant.—Ed. Nation.]

CHINESE IMMIGRATION AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit an old subscriber of the *Nation*, who "does not hold an office, who does not hope to run for one," who thinks "he does not belong to the loafing class either of the broadcloth or homespun kind," to let Mr. Edward Cunningham know what his own—the writer's—conclusive argument against unrestricted Chinese immigration is. I regret Mr. Sam Wiggin overlooked this argument.

I voted against Chinese immigration conducted as it was before the Restriction Act was passed, because I was convinced that it was a wholesale importation of contract labor, enforced here, on the part of the importing companies, by subjecting the relatives or other bailsmen of the imported coolies left in China to slavery for any breach of contract on the part of their relatives here, the Chinese Government recognizing such claims and enforcing them in case of need.

This was my conclusive argument. How many of the voters against Chinese immigration (the vote on this coast was almost unanimous against it) have voted on the strength of this argument alone, or on the strength of the two advanced by Mr. Wiggin, or on the strength of any or all of the three or more, I do not know, but think it to be irrelevant as long as the alleged third point—contract labor based on bondage of bailsmen—is not refuted, or proved to preclude in this particular case the disadvantages which history and political economy have connected with industries carried on by *ergasteria*.

"C. R. C." has probably seen Sir David Wedderburne's elegant article, "The Dutch in Java." I wish he would kindly inform me how he would induce the Chinese to stay in this country for good *without* a change in the Constitution of the United States.—Yours very respectfully,

H. S.

Girls' High School,
San Francisco, February 16, 1884.

["H. S." had to go far afield to find a reason for voting against the Chinese. There has been searching investigation in China by English Commissioners, and the result, as regards California, is that the emigration thither is as free as any that exists in the world. There has never been a particle of proof brought that bailsmen in China are subjected to slavery for breach of contract on the part of the emigrant in California, in any publication we know of. If a contract exists it is a money contract, and the penalty would be in money. "H. S.," therefore, means to say that men are sold for debt in China. Seeing that the charge is contrary to any known usage of the Chinese, those who advance it ought to prove it.—Ed. Nation.]

THE POSTAL NOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to join in the agitation which I trust will lead to the abolishment of the postal note as at present constituted. In the routine of my office work I receive daily a considerable number of these notes, the periodical assorting and collating of which, for the purpose of presenting them for payment, is a task alike trying to one's eyes and patience. Either by governmental prescription or else by a remarkable coincidence, the ink used by most country postmasters is of a very pale and uncertain color—

just the shade which assimilates itself most readily with the dark yellow ground of the note; and as the calligraphy is sometimes as doubtful as the ink, it becomes necessary to resort to the punched table on the margin in order to ascertain the amount. The notes lapsing after three months from the last day of the month of issue, a reference to the punched table on the other margin is necessary in the very numerous cases where the stamped date is illegible. I have at this moment several notes before me which, in this regard, would defy the skill of the most accomplished expert. Lastly, the Government requires the signature of the recipient—an utterly meaningless procedure at best (considering that the notes are payable to *bearer*), but a very vexatious one in the case of the officer of a corporation who must (or ought to) affix his name to that of the firm in the infinitesimal space provided therefor. Y.

BISHOP WARREN'S PRAYER-GAUGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Bishop Warren, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, is sojourning in Texas, and, being newly married, may be considered as enjoying his honeymoon. Writing to the *Christian Advocate* of New York, he mentions a brother-clergyman of the church South, only thirty days married, who died of smallpox, and very piously winds up by referring to the widow of the same gentleman, "very sick" (presumably with the like disease), in the following terms: "We cannot understand God's plans enough to know whether or not to pray for her recovery."

Now, a novel idea is presented here for Christians to consider. If our ignorance of God's plans is to give the negative to our supplications of the divine power, will the good Bishop please define the field in which endeavor of this kind is legitimate, seeing that our poor human faculty is so incapable of comprehending the purposes of the Deity in general? Prayer for the sick has generally been regarded as within the proper scope of entreaty to the Almighty, whatever the circumstances, and they seem to have been especially distressing in the case cited by the Bishop; but if there be any limitation of the privilege, it would seem to be incumbent on those who are versed in matters of the kind, as the Bishop himself must be, to lay down some rules by which plain Christians may be guided.

J. H. M.

Scottsburgh, N. Y., March 8, 1884.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. announce for speedy publication 'The Relation of Animal Diseases to the Public Health,' by Frank S. Billings, V. S., of Boston, in which the trichiniasis question is fully discussed.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co have in press 'Studies in History'—events and personages—by Henry Cabot Lodge; 'Memories of Rufus Choate,' by Judge Neilson, of Brooklyn; 'John Adams,' in the "American Statesmen" series, by John T. Morse, jr.; the 'Lives of James and Lucretia Mott,' by Mrs. Anna D. Hallowell; a study of Balzac, by Edgar E. Saltus; an edition in one volume of the Poetical Works of Edmund C. Stedman; a 'Handbook of American Authors,' by Oscar Fay Adams; and a translation, with additions and an index, of Ploetz's 'Epitome of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History,' by Wm. H. Tillinghast, of Harvard University.

L. R. Hammersly & Co., Philadelphia, will publish next month 'The Church Cyclopædia: a Dictionary of Church Doctrine, History, Organization, and Ritual,' edited by the Rev. Prof. A. A. Benton, of Delaware College. Diocesan histories will form an important feature of the work, which will fill 800 pages, imperial 8vo, and be sold only by subscription.

'A Manual of Biographical Literature,' compiled by Mr. W. M. Griswold, and designed as a supplement to Oettinger's 'Bibliographie Biographique' (which ends with the year 1854), is ready to be printed if a sufficient number of subscriptions, at $2.00 a copy, is forthcoming. "Sufficient," as we are accustomed to understand in Mr. Griswold's happy theory of work, means not what will bring a profit, but will pay expenses. His address is "Q P. Index," Bangor, Me.

The Rev. Lawrence H. Mills, an American Orientalist, now residing in Hanover, Germany, is under contract with the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, to furnish the third volume of the translations of the Zend-Avesta, in the series of "Sacred Books of the East," edited by Professor Max Müller. In so doing he takes the place of the well-known French scholar, Professor James Darmesteter, whose engagements are such as to preclude his undertaking the task. The volume in question will contain the Yasna, Visparad, Âfrîgân, and Gâhs. Mr. Mills has qualified himself for this work by his labors, only partly made public as yet, but very favorably received by competent critics, on the Zoroastrian Gâthâs.

The Coburn & Newman Publishing Company, of Chicago, have in press 'The Life and Letters of John Brown,' a large volume which will be sold by subscription. The editor, Will M. Clemens, of Cleveland, Ohio, is said to have incorporated in the work many new and heretofore unpublished facts relative to his subject.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have reprinted from the *Nation* of February 7 the obituary notice of the late Wendell Phillips from the pen of Mr. T. W. Higginson. We have every reason to believe that in this pamphlet form it will meet the desire of a large number to preserve it by itself.

The distinguishing feature of Miss Yonge's 'Stories of American History' (Appletons) is their wide range. The whole of American history, geographically as well as chronologically, is brought here within a small compass, so that Canada and the South American States receive their share of attention, with such valuable collateral matter, *e. g.*, illustrating the slavery controversy, as "the emancipation of negroes in the English Isles" (chap. xl.). The book is written in a fair and liberal spirit, and is accurate so far as we have examined, but the style is cumbered with hard words, and therefore not adapted to young children.

Mr. Howells's amusing little farce, "The Register," which was first printed in *Harper's Magazine*, has been published as a pretty pocket volume by J. R. Osgood & Co. The theme, the situation, and the characters are, and may be commended to foreigners as, quite American.

Much gilt upon the leaves and binding hardly serves to make a handsome book of the fresh impression from the plates of 'Hans Breitmann's Ballads' (Philadelphia: Peterson). The typography needs to be thoroughly renovated before there can be an improved edition.

Häusser's 'Period of the Reformation (1517-1648),' which has been out of print for two or three years, except in a rather costly English edition, has again been put on the market, at the old price, by Robert Carter & Bros.

The February number of the *Library Journal* contains an abstract of two thoughtful addresses recently made in Pittsfield, Mass., by Mr. James M. Hubbard, in connection with his rearrangement and supervision of the Berkshire Athenæum in that town. Their subject was, "How to Use a Public Library," with special reference to the guidance of the young.

Jackson's Administration and Mexico are the topics of Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for February.

The last *Bulletin*, No. 67, of the Boston Public Library, has a bibliographical chapter on our departing guest, Mr. Matthew Arnold, showing the list of his writings, his editings and prefacings, and of the general criticisms upon these. The valuable index to American Local History is continued nearly or perhaps quite to the letter D, and Mr. Thorvald Solberg contributes a list of the text-editions and translations of the Eddas.

The latest of the Bureau of Education's Circulars of Information (No. 4, 1883) consists of Recent School-Law Decisions, compiled by Mr. Lyndon A. Smith. We find, by the way, in the last report of the librarian of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass., a suggestion which ought to be fruitful. Referring to the list of its American newspaper collections which that Society furnished for the late census, Mr. Barton inquires: "If such work can be undertaken decennially by the Census Bureau, why should not the 'Circulars of Information,' frequently issued by the Bureau of Education, contain lists of and even indexes to special subjects, if not to literature in general?" To give precision to this request, we will indicate two valuable services which the Bureau can easily render. (1) Let it procure from the foremost libraries in the country a statement of the departments in which they are strong, and then classify these departments with appropriate references. The utility of this for special students is patent. (2) Let it in the same way obtain lists of the newspaper files in each library, with such particularity as to dates and volumes as may be practicable, and then arrange these geographically and alphabetically.

A course of lectures on Archæology will be delivered at the Johns Hopkins University during this season, the first, by Dr. Waldstein, having already been read before his departure for England. Mr. J. T. Clarke, lately director of the work at Assos, will give four—"A Plea for Practical Archæology," "Work at Assos," and "Projects for Cyrene," being the subjects. Mr. W. J. Stillman will give three, on "Prehistoric Research in the Classical Field," "Research in Greece," and "Archæology and Art." Six will be given by Dr. A. Emerson, Fellow in Greek, on Olympia and the results of the late excavations there; and the concluding lecture, by Prof. Gildersleeve, will treat of literary and plastic art.

President White's annual report on the condition of Cornell University is at all points a cheering document. The future of the library, with its magnificent endowment, is something to dream about. We have been interested in what the report says of the increasing usefulness of the university press, a most natural adjunct of our highest institutions of learning. Endowment will probably reach this, however, last of all the departments, for a passion for the art of Gutenberg seldom overtakes the wealthy.

The tenth annual report of the President of the Boston University—which, like Cornell, practises co-education of the sexes—refers to "a most successful reproduction of the 'Electra' of Sophocles in the original Greek," with appropriate accessories, as "the first instance in history in which an ancient Greek play has been reproduced at the suggestion and with the participation of women."

Cornell, since the completion of its new gymnasium, intends following Harvard's example in employing a medical director who shall at the same time be a member of the Faculty. The

same course will be adopted by the Johns Hopkins University, as we learn from President Gilman's eighth annual report.

Prosperity is the keynote of President Walker's annual report to the Corporation of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In this interesting document we note the improvements in the accommodations for women, whose number among the students continues small, but whose place is assured in one department at least, that of chemistry. Most of the eleven are pursuing this subject or biology. The French and German languages are both required and elective studies—the former being necessary for admission. The number of students in French is 145; in German, 167; in Italian—a pure elective —2.

Among the latest ventures in German periodical literature is the *Vierteljahrsschrift für Cultur und Litteratur der Renaissance*, under the editorial direction of Ludwig Geiger, whose qualifications for treating of the Renaissance are abundantly shown in his 'Renaissance und Humanismus,' a work upon Petrarch, and in the life of Reuchlin, the German Humanist. The great intellectual movement which held sway in Europe from the fourteenth to the sixteenth centuries, preëminently among the Latin races, will be the special field of the new enterprise. While the literature of the period will have the chief consideration, the great achievements in art will receive considerable attention.

The literature of Renaissance history, by the way, has just been enriched by the addition of a third volume to Prof. Gustav Koerting's 'Geschichte der Litteratur Italiens im Zeitalter der Renaissance,' treating of the beginnings of the literary movement. The life and works of Petrarch and Boccaccio, it will be remembered, are the subjects of the first two volumes. Dr. Koerting is professor of Romanic and English Philology at the Royal Academy at Münster, in Westphalia.

A brochure by Prof. Villari—a reprint from the *Nuova Antologia*—renders due homage to the late Francisco de Sanctis as the father of sound criticism in Italy. This study of De Sanctis's character, career, works, and influence on Italian literature by a man who is unquestionably in the front rank of Italian writers, whether as regards his ability, his balanced judgment, or his sterling literary honesty, is certainly a "monument more lasting than brass."

The origin of the municipal institutions of the middle ages has been studied chiefly in relation to England, France, and Germany, each of which countries affords distinct and interesting phases of their development. Students of the subject will be glad to examine the analogies afforded by Italy, in a monograph by Dr. Max Handloike, entitled 'Die lombardischen Städte unter der Herrschaft der Bischöfe, und die Entstehung der Communen.' It consists of three chapters: the first treating of Immunities, the institution out of which the municipal institutions grew here as well as in Germany; the second, of the officers of the Bishops; the third of the communes. It would appear that, while the earlier development was essentially identical in Germany and in Italy—both countries coming alike under the authority of the Emperor —the final form taken by the municipalities of Lombardy, at a time when the Emperor's authority in Italy had been weakened, was the same as in France, the commune. The commune, it is well known, was strictly prohibited in Germany, and never obtained a permanent foothold in England. The author takes positive ground against the view of Savigny that the municipal organization of the later Empire continued without essential interruption down into the middle ages. He shows, nevertheless, that the inhabitants of the towns continued to hold certain property in common—meadow, forest, etc.—and that this common property was the starting point in the new municipal life of the eleventh century. But this was a wholly new development, and the newly-created office, that of *consuls*, for the management of the common property, had no organic connection, like the *échevins* of France and the *Schöffen* of Germany, with the old board of *scabini*. Once established, they drew to themselves the jurisdictional and other administrative powers, and became the characteristic and distinctive feature of the Lombard communes.

A valuable fragment of a middle-high-German manuscript, written towards the end of the thirteenth century, has lately been discovered. The fortunate discoverer, Dr. Milchsack, of Wolfenbüttel, Brunswick, who found the four parchment leaves used as the binding of an old print ('Sermones dormi secure,' 1500), recognized at once that they contained poems by Walther von der Vogelweide. The fragment has now been edited by Professor Zarncke in the *Berichte* of the Royal Saxon Academy of Sciences, and German scholars will be pleased to see that the genuine stanzas (about twenty-two in all) offer a number of new and important various readings. This manuscript of Walther's poetry shows great independence, and the remainder of it would doubtless be exceedingly valuable if we could find it; but this we can hardly expect.

F. W. Christern has received the latest catalogue of portraits representing the stock of the famous Amsterdam house of Frederik Muller & Co. Collectors will find it worth their attention on many accounts, but especially for a remarkable collection of Franklin and Washington portraits (73 of the former and 19 of the latter).

White, Stokes & Allen send us a tasteful and elaborate Easter "card," if that term can be applied to what is in reality a small folio of flowers and poetry, with illustrations of Easter lilies, violets, trailing arbutus and azaleas fairly well chromolithographed.

—The Amsterdam weekly *Portefeuille* publishes, in its issue of February 16, a (German) rejoinder of the "Association for Promoting the Interests of the Book Trade in the Netherlands" to an attack on Dutch publishers made by Professor Ebers in the *Magazin für die Litteratur des In- und Auslandes*. Professor Ebers had spoken of the "piracy" practised by them on German authors, charging more especially the publishing house of Scrinerius in Utrecht with reprinting four of his novels; and the *Börsenblatt für den deutschen Buchhandel* had repeated and emphasized Professor Ebers's charges. Now, the principal members of the above mentioned association show in their reply how grossly both Professor Ebers and the *Börsenblatt* exaggerated their grievances against Dutch publishers, inasmuch as all the German works reprinted in Holland since 1860 have consisted, besides several editions of Heine, of four volumes of poetry, by Geibel, Freiligrath, and Hamerling. Without sanctioning unauthorized republications of any kind, the committee very properly reprove Professor Ebers and the *Börsenblatt* for their hasty generalizations, reminding the latter of its own declaration in 1874, that "in Holland the reprinting of German works is of very rare occurrence. In any case, we can for the present do without a copyright treaty with Holland." Since that time only one German book, Hamerling's, has been reprinted in Holland. In justice to Professer Ebers we must add that he had already, in *De Portefeuille* of February 2, retracted his accusations—based on erroneous information—against Dutch publishers in general, and modified his charges against the firm of Scrinerius in particular. The latter had merely sold (not republished) the American pirated reprint of his novels.

—Considering that the 'Contes' of Saint-Lambert are found appended to the numerous editions of his poem "Les Saisons," first published at Amsterdam and Paris in 1769, it at first sight seems strange to find them in Paul Lacroix's collection of "Chefs-d'œuvre Inconnus." The editor explains that "unknown" in this case really means forgotten; for although these tales in the past have not lacked readers, yet, owing in a measure perhaps to the silence or unfriendly criticism of the author's contemporaries, they have been suffered to pass out of recollection. The encyclopædists, among whom were some of Saint-Lambert's intimates, were inclined to look with disfavor upon his efforts at fiction—a feeling which, in Diderot's case at least, Lacroix thinks owing to fear of rivalry. Voltaire's treatment of the stories is so much the more marked by his laudation of "Les Saisons," which he compared to the Georgics of Virgil. The coldness of the philosophers was compensated by the warmth of the reception accorded the stories in the salons. The tales here reprinted are "L'Abenaki," "Sara Th——," and "Zméo." Lacroix looks upon the last as the possible inspirer of Victor Hugo's "Bug-Jargal," but this seems to us fanciful. For some reason Saint-Lambert did not think any of these tales worthy admittance among his 'Œuvres Philosophiques' (Paris, 1801), where is found the "Deux Amis, Conte Iroquois," which is an expansion or development of the idea of "L'Abenaki." It may not be amiss to note here that MM. Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, who have so delightfully edited the letters and documents relating to Mme. d'Épinay, have in hand a work upon the *rapports* between Mme. d'Houdetot and Saint Lambert, also to be constructed from medited documents. Another interesting contribution to the literary and social history of the facile eighteenth century, we are, according to late announcement, to look for from M. Scherer, who is preparing an exhaustive study of Grimm's literary correspondence.

—Very convenient, among recent German text-books of zoölogy, is Von Mojsisovics's little hand-book of classification ('Systematische Uebersicht des Thierreiches') It gives a systematic view of the classification of the animal kingdom about as fully as this topic would be treated in a year's course of lectures, and is intended to save the time of teacher and class in dictating and copying definitions. The classification is by no means antiquated, Haeckel being followed for the Cœlenterata, with which the sponges are united. Von Ihering's classification of the mollusks is given, though not as the principal one. A singular anomaly is the separation of Bryozoa and Brachiopoda, though somewhat doubtfully, as distinct "types." The same position is assigned to the Tunicata, which are, of course, placed in immediate relation to the vertebrates. The definitions are clear and concise, and the book can be used to advantage by teachers whose course of zoölogy involves the giving of definitions. The same praise may be given to the third edition of Leunis's 'Synopsis' ('Synopsis der drei Naturreiche'), of which the first volume, containing the vertebrates and mollusks, has appeared. Its illustrations and descriptions are its strong points, the classification not being in all respects up to date. The illustrations are particularly good, many of them being modified from those in Brehm's 'Thierleben.' A feature worthy of general imitation is the giving of the etymology of all scientific names. The 'Comparative Zoölogy' ('Vergleichende Zoölogie') of

Dr. Leonhardt, although the work of a teacher rather than of a zoölogist, is decidedly above the level of school text-books. It offers, especially under the invertebrates, a great deal of condensed information in a very accessible form. The plates in many places betray unfamiliarity with the objects themselves, but a working teacher will get many useful hints from the book, which is itself the outcome of teaching.

—Of a different and much higher character than the preceding works is Wiedersheim's 'Anatomy of the Vertebrates' ('Lehrbuch der vergleichenden Anatomie der Wirbelthiere'). It belongs to that very small class of text books of which Balfour's, Gegenbaur's, and Claus's manuals stand as types. Clear in style, vigorous in its grasp of the subject, and penetrated by the spirit of modern zoölogy, it is a work from which the student derives inspiration as well as knowledge. The subject is treated by systems of organs, not according to the classification. Each system is first described in general; then follows a more detailed account of the structure in each class of the vertebrates, and this is succeeded in all the more important and complicated systems by a summary of the facts. The development of the organs is kept constantly in view, and is everywhere made the basis of the description. The illustrations are numerous, new, well engraved, and, in the section on circulation, colored. The book closes with a selection from the literature, arranged by topics, and covering over fifty pages. This 'Lehrbuch' fills a gap in zoölogical literature which has long waited to be closed. Huxley's manual, with which the English student would compare the book, is much less full; still more meagre in comparison is Gegenbaur. A more elaborate criticism would show some inequalities in execution, mainly in proportion, and perhaps a very few over-confident expressions of opinion; but there are few text-books indeed which so decisively mark their authors as at once scientists and teachers.

—The late Dr. Henry Dunbar was born to an hereditary, passionate, unreasoning love of Greek, and worked at Greek with the "dour" persistency of a Scotchman. The accomplished Professor of Greek in the University of Aberdeen saved him from the prodigious mistake of preparing an Homeric grammar, which, with his range of vision, would have been a monumental blunder, and suggested to him instead the harmless task of getting up a concordance to the 'Odyssey,' which was published by the Clarendon Press in 1880. It was evidently a work of immense labor; and, at the close of his modest preface, he enlists our sympathies by stating that "writing sixty-two thousand four hundred lines of closely-written Greek MS. had somewhat weakened and impaired his eyesight." The usual compliments were paid to the work, and the diligent compiler was rewarded, if we remember aright, by a Civil List pension. It is sad to think that the book is entirely inadequate for any but the merest literary purposes. Ink must be mixed with brains. Cruden's Concordance to the Bible has been superseded, and Dunbar's Concordance to the 'Odyssey' is, after all, only a makeshift. Even the important particles, even the prepositions, are not included, and old Seber is as indispensable to the investigator as ever. The same thing is to be said of the Concordance to Aristophanes, just issued by the Clarendon Press, which published the other concordance—both sumptuously, as a matter of course. The author "did not live to see the fruit of his labors." With him died an indefatigable man, much to be admired for his untiring industry. But as his former concordance did not make Seber useless, so this concordance does not enable us to dispense with the most brainless index ever made—the index of Caravella. In Caravella's book, not only are the words registered simply according to the external form—that is true of Seber—but separate categories are made for the same forms, the same words with varying accents: so many μέν's with acute, so many μὲν's with grave accent. And though Dunbar does not go quite so far, he records in separate lists words that have received an additional accent from enclisis. Still, this might be forgiven. It is a sin in the direction of over-fulness. But Caravella is reasonably complete in his vocabulary. Dunbar is not: so he gives two lines to ἵνα—one for the form ἵν', another for the form ἵνα, each followed by κ. τ. λ.; to ὡς he gives one line, with κ. τ. λ. again. How could any one gather anything as to the use of ἵνα and ὡς final from such a list? For purposes of research, then, the value of the concordance has been reduced by the plan of the compiler—if it may be called a plan—to a minimum; and the Clarendon Press ought at least to have supplemented the work by an index to the missing articles. In a non-technical journal like the *Nation*, it is not necessary to go into the detail of mistakes some of which do little credit to the proof-reader.

—The thirty-eighth annual report of the Director of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, presented to the Visiting Committee in December last, and laid before the Board of Overseers on the 9th of January, falls short in no respect of the standard set by the character of the work done at that establishment during the last five years. The subscription of five thousand dollars annually for the term of five years, which was secured in 1878, has now expired, and, to replace it, an attempt has been made to raise by subscription the sum of one hundred thousand dollars as a permanent fund. Up to the present time about fifty thousand dollars has been promised for this purpose, which will be sufficient to prevent the sudden restriction of scientific operations, otherwise inevitable on the expiration of the subscription of 1878. Professor Pickering's interest in the satellites of Jupiter—a new method of observing the eclipses of which he devised in 1878—has led him to experiment on the occultations and transits of these bodies also. Employing the double-image micrometer at every approach of a satellite to or recession from the disc of the planet, he has derived results which appear to indicate that valuable observations may be made on these frequently-recurring phenomena, heretofore regarded with very little favor by astronomers. After a year's interruption, the fundamental observations with the meridian circle were resumed early in 1883, and the instrument was kept in active service during the remainder of the year. A series of observations was undertaken for determining the longitude of the McGill College Observatory at Montreal, and extended through the month of June. The reduction of the older series of observations with the meridian circle is now completed, and the copy prepared for printing, two volumes being ready for publication.

—The meridian photometer, which bears the same relation to photometry that a transit circle does to measurements of position, must now be regarded as having fairly established its position as a permanent instrument of the Observatory. After a thorough trial it has shown itself capable, in the hands of Professor Pickering and his assistants, of determining absolute stellar magnitudes with great accuracy. As it can determine the brightness of any star of the ninth magnitude or brighter, its field of work is, for the present, indefinitely great. The most important investigation in progress has been the revision of the *Durchmusterung* magnitudes, the results of the estimates of brightness made at thirteen observatories and extending over a period of ten or fifteen years being thus brought together and reduced to a single system. Some miscellaneous observations have also been taken, of which those of Neptune on eleven nights give its light as 7.71. The study of the variable stars is made an important part of the work of the Observatory, and is conducted by Mr. Chandler. The aid of amateurs and others in the observation of stars known or suspected to be variable has been found to yield valuable results. In an investigation in astronomical photography, undertaken with the assistance of Mr. W. H. Pickering, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, it is sought to determine the light and color of the brighter stars, and to construct a photographic map of the whole heavens. The system of announcing astronomical discoveries has received an important extension during the year, an association of more than fifty European observatories having been formed, for the purpose of expediting these announcements. The Observatory of Harvard College is now the central bureau for telegraphic announcements in America, this function having been transferred to it by the Smithsonian Institution, which had for many years performed a like service.

—Liszt's "Faust" Symphony was the principal number played on Saturday at the fifth concert of the Symphony Society. It was interpreted with the rare intelligence which always marks Dr. Damrosch's reading of Liszt, and the orchestra has never since its reorganization played so well as on this occasion. It now only needs some improvement in the wood wind to be a really good orchestra. Liszt's symphony has not been heard here for five or six years, but the warm applause it received on Saturday gave reason to believe that it will not again be allowed to rest for so long a time. Like all great art-works which deal with the grand, passionate, sublime, and not the beautiful alone, it is apt to "disagree" at first hearing; but repetition leads to ever-increasing interest which is apt to culminate in enthusiasm. Even as absolute music there is much that is admirable in "Faust." But it is only when the poetic intentions of the composer are understood and followed that we are enabled to appreciate all its beauty. The "symphony" is really a symphonic poem in three parts, for the treatment of the material is based on the principles of leading motives which constantly recur and connect the different movements into an organic whole. The first movement symbolizes Faust's alternating pessimistic musings and longing for the joys of life. The second is an exquisite delineation of Margaret's characteristics, in which we even hear such details as "He loves me, he loves me not." The third is devoted to Mephistopheles, and unites the motives of the previous parts in a caricatured form. At the close a tenor solo and chorus are introduced, as in Beethoven's Ninth Symphony. The "Faust" Symphony is dedicated to Berlioz, and there is evidence of that master's influence in the orchestration and in certain unisono phrases. "Rheingold" and "Walküre" are also curiously suggested in a few places. But the symphony as a whole is Liszt's own creation, the most remarkable thing in which is the appropriateness of the leading motives, and the ever-increasing interest which their recurrence inspires in the hearer. As in the symphonic poems, the Hungarian element reveals itself in the abrupt rhythmic changes and peculiar accentuations. The "Faust" Symphony was preceded by the "Freischütz" over-

ture, which was played with great spirit, yet with an occasional want of distinctness in the middle parts; and by two selections from Berlioz's "Childhood of Christ," a serenade for two flutes and harp, and "The Repose of the Holy Family," with tenor solo. Neither of these selections contains a germ of a new musical idea, and the first especially is of wearisome, because artificial, simplicity.

LAND AND ITS RENT.

Land and Its Rent. By Francis A. Walker, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883. Pp. 220.

Social Problems. By Henry George, author of 'Progress and Poverty.' Chicago and New York: Belford, Clarke & Co. 1883.

PROFESSOR WALKER'S volume deals mainly with the economic blunders of Carey, Bastiat, and Henry George in the matter of rent. The errors of Carey and Bastiat were identical—so much so, indeed, that, after the latter's death, the friends of the former sought to fasten a charge of plagiarism upon the author of the 'Harmonies Économiques.' A lively controversy resulted, which has left only this impression among economists: that it is contrary to all that we know of Bastiat to suppose that he wittingly appropriated another man's ideas without giving him due credit; but that if he appropriated Carey's ideas of rent he took something of no value, and that, therefore, an indictment would not lie.

Mr. Carey's idea was, briefly, that there is no such thing as rent in the Ricardian sense—*i. e.*, no surplus value in the soil and its products over and above the labor and the interest on capital employed in its cultivation. "There is not," he says, "throughout the United States, a county, township, town, or city that would sell for cost, or one whose rents are equal to the interest upon labor and capital expended." And again: "If we show that the land heretofore appropriated is not only not worth as much labor as it has cost to *produce* it in its present condition [meaning, of course, to *bring it into* its present condition], but that it could not be reproduced by the labor that its present value would purchase, it will be obvious to the reader that its whole value is due to that which has been applied to its improvement." "If we show," says Mr. Carey—but that is what he never did nor could show, and what nobody can show. However great a sum (if it could be computed in dollars and cents) may have been expended in bringing Lancaster County, Pa., for instance, to its present state of productiveness, it is to be borne in mind that the laborers in each generation have got their living from it; and who shall estimate the value of this as an offset to the expenditure? It is obviously impossible to reason in this way, because there are no data or fixed starting-points. On the other hand, Mr. Carey's postulate implies that the settlement of the American Continent has been a losing operation, and that the further we push the area of cultivation westward the more money we shall lose. There were 6,000,000 acres of public land taken up in Dakota last year. The net losses, according to Mr. Carey, begin when improvement begins, and they increase from year to year. Fencing, draining, house building, railroad building, every expenditure which man makes within the limits of Dakota, or in endeavors to reach Dakota, must be counted as elements of the cost of the land. At the end of any given number of years it will be found that Dakota has cost more than it has come to. Therefore the emigrants to Dakota are under a delusion just as the earlier emigrants to Illinois and Minnesota were. They have all been losing money. Yet, somehow, wealth has marvellously increased.

Professor Walker demolishes the Carey heresy satisfactorily, and then takes up the opposing and equally unfounded assumption of Henry George, that the rent of land is gradually swallowing up all the wealth of the world, and is the cause of all the poverty and misery in it. The careful reader of Mr. George's 'Progress and Poverty' will observe that that loose writer takes pains to overthrow the Malthusian law of population before setting up his own doctrine that rent is the cause of poverty. Malthus looks for the cause of poverty in the well-ascertained fact that if a given quantity of corn exactly suffices for a family of six persons, there will be suffering if the family grows to seven without any increase in the quantity of corn. Then, looking on the one hand at the roundness of the earth and the limitations of agriculture, and on the other at the powers of increase inherent in the human race, he reasons that the former is a fixed and unyielding quantity—somewhat elastic, but nevertheless finite—while the latter is unlimited as a power, and is limited in fact only by the pressure of population upon the means of subsistence. Mr. Malthus observed a tendency of population to increase faster than the means of subsistence could be provided, and he ascribed to this tendency a large part of the sum total of human misery, for the reason that the arrival of the seventh member reduces the whole family to a less quantity of corn than was found to be needed for the comfort of six—provided, of course, that no greater quantity of corn is to be had.

Mr. George not only assails the doctrine of Malthus with the usual arguments and the usual objurgations, implying that it is a reproach to the goodness of God, but he makes the entirely novel and original assertion that "the limit to the population of the globe is only the limit of space." That he means standing-room when he uses the word space is shown by the context, as well as by the whole drift of his argument. Notwithstanding the assumed completeness of his refutation of Malthus, Mr. George is apparently not satisfied with it, for he undertakes to show that his own theory is true regardless of Malthus. Pains and time taken to uphold Malthus against George are therefore, as Professor Walker points out, wasted. Let us pass the sponge at once over all that part of his book, and come to the point. "Irrespective of the increase of population," he says, "the effect of improvemen s in production and exchange is to increase rent." This is the reason why Progress and Poverty go together. It is not because population increases and presses upon the means of subsistence, but because the land-owners swallow up all the surplus wealth which new discoveries and inventions yield to mankind. In another place Mr. George states his proposition thus: "Land, being held as private property, would produce in a stationary population all the effects attributed by the Malthusian doctrine to pressure of population." How is this proved? In this wise:

"The amount of wealth produced is nowhere commensurate with the desire for wealth; and desire mounts with every additional opportunity for its gratification. This being the case, the effect of labor-saving improvements will be to increase the production of wealth. Now, for the production of wealth two things are required: labor and land. *Therefore*, the effect of labor-saving improvements will be to extend the demand for land, and, wherever the limit of the quality of land in use is reached, to bring into cultivation lands of less natural productiveness, or to extend cultivation on the same lands to a point of lower natural productiveness. And thus while the primary effect of labor-saving improvements is to increase the power of labor, the secondary effect is to extend cultivation, and, where this lowers the margin of cultivation, to increase rent. . . . It is important that this be fully understood, for it shows that effects attributed by current theories to increase of population are really due to progress of invention, and explains the otherwise perplexing fact that labor-saving machinery everywhere fails to benefit laborers."

It might be inferred that one remedy for poverty would be the stoppage of invention and the destruction of all labor-saving machinery, such as looms, spindles, sewing machines, railways, steamships, etc. Population might increase tenfold without harm if we could only desist from the use of machinery, which, through its occult power of raising rent, grinds the laborer ever lower in the dust. The difficulty in applying this remedy would be to know where to stop, since everything superior to one's finger nails is the result of invention.

Professor Walker points out the absolute *non sequitur* of Mr. George's "therefore," and then shows that inventions and labor-saving machinery, so far from increasing the demand for land (population remaining stationary), really increase the demand for labor—that is, cause wages to rise and rent either to fall or to remain stationary. An employer of labor, however rich, cannot eat more than a given quantity of food per day; but an invention which dispenses with four out of five of the hands formerly required in the making of coarse cotton cloth enables the employer and the employees to make finer articles out of the same raw material, cotton. No more cotton is required in the making of a square yard of lace than in making a square yard of bagging—perhaps not so much; no more land is required for the one purpose than for the other; but much more labor is required. Therefore Mr. George's argument—and this is the real pivot and keystone of his 'Progress and Poverty'—is absolutely false.

Indeed, there is a shorter way of proving its falsity than that followed by Professor Walker, for in a stationary population there can be no increase of demand for land without an increase of the human appetite. Mr. George's proposition could not be true unless the capacity of the human stomach were enlarged or were susceptible of enlargement in proportion to the increase of wealth. This, we know, is not the fact. The rich man may have a greater variety of food than the poor man, it may be more nicely cooked, and more tastefully served, but the absolute quantity consumed by each cannot be greatly different, or if there be any difference it is in favor of the poor man, whose appetite is always good, while the rich man's is often feeble and precarious. Therefore it cannot be true that in a stationary population there is any tendency whatever to an increase of the rental value of land, whether new inventions and improvements and labor-saving machines are brought into use or not.

Mr. Frederic Harrison, a radical of the radicals, has reviewed Mr. George's work lately. He recommends those who find fault with his teachings to address themselves to the causes of the poverty against which Mr. George so vehemently protests. As for Mr. George's arguments, he (Mr. Harrison) has carefully examined all that he has written on the subject of wages, interest, population, commercial crises, and rent, and he finds no truth in it that can be called new or original, while the reasoning, as a whole, is untenable and misleading. In his volume of 'Social Problems' Mr. George has anticipated Mr. Harrison's judgment by subordinating argument to wailing and scolding. There is much abuse of the rich, and much compassion for the poor, with now and then a threat against the former, flanked by an admonition to the latter. The rich are enjoying what does not belong to

them; they ought to divide, and they may be compelled to do so, but then they are not to blame, and a division of property would leave things where they were before, because new inequalities would immediately spring up. The trouble is all in the private ownership of land. Tax all land up to its rental value, and poverty will speedily disappear from the earth. This is 'Progress and Poverty' over again, with less argument and more passion, less political economy and more tirade and bombast. We do not underestimate the evils which Mr. George depicts, but his remedy for them is as worthless and futile as it would be atrocious if it could be carried into execution. The only country where the system of state ownership and its correlative (taxation of rental value) exists on an extensive scale is India. Mr. George has been at much pains to explain why poverty exists on such a deplorable scale in the only country where society is ruled by his beneficent system. Caste, oppression, injustice, superstition, foreign domination, war, and other calamities are cited to explain how the system fails to work. But these are the things which the system ought to eradicate and do away with. Perhaps the real reason is that the land tax is not high enough to take the whole rental value, but, by leaving a modicum of unearned wealth in the hands of the tenant, vitiates the principle and renders the experiment nugatory.

Turning over the pages of 'Social Problems,' it is found that Mr. George gets wilder as he goes on. In his chapter on "Human Garbage," he shows how much worse the American landlord system is, or soon will be, than the Irish landlord system, so that really the Irish peasantry who are "dumped," as he puts it, on our shores, are virtually leaping from the frying pan into the fire. Moreover, they are falling into the toils of the same taskmasters whom they left at home, for the soil of this country is passing so rapidly into the hands of the British aristocracy that the latter will within a few years "virtually own more Americans than they now own Irishmen." In his chapter on "Slavery" he shows how this will come about, or rather how land slavery—the destined portion of the country which boasts a Declaration of Independence, a Constitution, and a Fifteenth Amendment—is really worse than chattel slavery, because under the chattel system the slave-owner is bound to feed and shelter his victims in old age, while under the land system he can turn them out on the roadside to starve. In the chapter on the "American Farmer," where he tells that important member of the community how much happier he would be if the taxes on his land were increased so as to swallow the whole rental value, he says: "It has already become impossible in our older States for a man starting with nothing to become by his labor the owner of a farm." This is a sample statement of fact, thrown in as though it were a matter of common notoriety, which need only be mentioned to be universally recognized. The truth is that the most striking fact connected with agriculture in the older States, of recent years, has been the acquisition of farms in Massachusetts and Connecticut by men starting with nothing—Irishmen mainly, or, as Mr. George, in the abundance of his pity, designates them, "human garbage dumped upon our shores."

THE RIVERSIDE SHAKSPERE.

Mr. William Shakespeare's Comedies, Histories, Tragedies, and Poems. The Text newly edited, with Glossarial, Historical, and Explanatory Notes, by Richard Grant White. 3 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

WE have already summarily described this new edition ("the Riverside") of Shakspere as, in many respects, to be welcomed. In the all-important matter of correctness of the text, Mr. White almost uniformly shows admirable care and good judgment. But these qualities are less marked in his comments on his author, and this part of his work is also frequently injured by two grave faults: a lack of that delicacy of appreciation to which the peculiar charm of the best editing is due, and a lack of that liberal scholarship which makes opinion valuable, and which no familiarity with other men's scholarship can take the place of. Even in the few and short notes Mr. White gives to this edition these defects are visible, and the bad taste which is their natural accompaniment.

The weight of some of his statements may, therefore, be questioned, and three notes, at the least, may be controverted from Shakspere's own authority. To the line in "Macbeth," v. 8: 4,

"Of all men else I have avoided thee,"

Mr. White says: "Strange that the absurdity of this line has never been remarked. It rivals Milton's 'the fairest of her daughters Eve.'" It is at least to be said that this line, if pointed out to Shakspere himself, would not apparently have appeared to him "absurd." There are similar constructions, to be found elsewhere in the plays, which indicate that Shakspere sometimes accepted "of" in the sense of "beyond," "more than." One instance is this in the "Two Gentlemen of Verona" (i. 2: 27):

"*Julia.* Why, he, of all the rest, hath never moved me.
Lucetta. Yet he, of all the rest, I think best loves ye."

Another apparent oversight on Mr. White's part occurs where *Romeo* says of the Apothecary that he had noted him "culling of simples." Mr. White hereupon asserts, "a misuse of the word [culling] in the sense of sorting, arranging: to cull is to gather, to pluck." Shakspere never uses it in this latter sense, but always as here—*not* "sorting, arranging," but as to pick out, to select from many. In this same play *Juliet* says to *Lady Capulet* (iv. 3),

"——we have culled such necessaries
As are behoveful for our state to-morrow";

and

"——come knights from east to west
And cull their flower, Ajax shall cope the best"
("Troilus and Cressida," ii. 3: 248);

and

"Call for our chiefest men of discipline,
To cull the plots of best advantages"
("King John," ii.: 40);

and

"And in this covert will we make our stand,
Culling the principal of all the deer"
("King Henry 6th," iii. 1: 3);

and elsewhere. Is this "misuse" of the word? It is true that Shakspere's stamp does not always impress its meaning permanently on the word he utters, as witness our not accepting "modern" with the signification he assigned to it; but in a case like this, what he marks a word as meaning, we may be sure it does mean.

But far more unaccountable than either of these oversights is Mr. White's extraordinary remark on the lines in *Antony's* speech ("Julius Cæsar," iii., 2, 91):

"You all did see that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown."

The note to this is: "*On the Lupercal*: a mistake. The Lupercal was not a street, or a bridge, or the like, but a grotto"!! Has Mr. White never read the line in the first scene of the play,

"You know it is *the feast of Lupercal*"?

There is great difficulty in proving any Shakspere criticism to be "a mistake" since it is apt to resolve itself into an incontestable difference of opinion; and the general opinions Mr. White expresses upon the plays cannot, in any case, be fairly called "mistakes," but some of them are certainly open to question. First of all, perhaps, in startlingness, is his opinion, with regard to "Hamlet," that "the period of its action is historically very uncertain, but in Shakspere's imagination it seems to have been somewhere about the tenth century. The duration of the action is as uncertain and indefinite as its period, but into five acts Shakspere seems to have compressed, as his manner was, the incidents of not less than from eight to ten years." This paragraph would appear to many students of the play to be altogether more true if it read thus:

"The period of its action is historically very uncertain, and it is evident that Shakspere's imagination lost sight of historical truth, as his habit was, and pictured the incidents and characters as of his own time. This is proved by the references to the University at Wittenberg, to the sending of young noblemen to Paris, to the children-players; by such pictures as 'Armed at point, exactly cap-à-pie'; and

'——the apparel oft proclaims the man,
And they in France of the best rank and station
Are most select and generous in that';

and the

'Where are my Switzers? Let them guard the door';

and by the *tone* of every scene. The duration of the action is somewhat uncertain, but cannot extend beyond two or three months. This being the case, if we accept the *Grave digger's* statement of *Hamlet's* age, we must admit a certain incongruity in his still wishing to attend the University."

In the introduction to "Henry IV." there is perhaps no underlying mistake, but a confusing inaccuracy of expression, when Mr. White says, speaking of "The Famous Victories of Henry the Fifth," etc. (an earlier play by an unknown author): "In it are found the name and the germ of a character which has added hardly less to Shakspere's fame than those of *Hamlet* and *Iago*—that of *Falstaff*." The fact is, as Mr. White himself immediately states, that "the name," etc., of SIR JOHN OLDCASTLE is in "The Famous Victories," and that Shakspere at first adopted this name for the character which he afterward christened *Falstaff*. But there is not the slightest suggestion of the name of FALSTAFF in "The Famous Victories."

There is similarly a false impression conveyed by carelessness of expression in the note to "Taming of the Shrew," i. 1: 232, by saying "*daughter*, like *laughter* now, was a perfect rhyme to *after*," which certainly suggests the idea that "daughter" was pronounced "dafter." It is only in a later note to "King Lear," i. 4: 300, that Mr. White explains that "caught her," "daughter," "slaughter," "halter," and "after" all rhymed in Shakspere's day; that "after" (and so the others) was pronounced "arter," in "halter" the *l* being probably silent.

A singular note, and we must think it an amusing one, is found in "Lear" (i. 2), in the scene where *Edmund* sings fa, sol, la, mi, while unnoticing his brother's entrance, his last words having been, "O, these eclipses do portend these divisions." Mr. White says, "*Edmund* sings merely to seem at ease, but Shakspere has made him sing quite in keeping with the last part of his speech. His notes (in the natural key) are F, G, A, B—inconsequent, distracting, and implying a discord that demands resolution." It does not take much learning to know that the notes are other than Mr. White makes them, are, in fact, F, G, A, *E* (his series being simply a portion of the diatonic scale), and with regard to the rest of this assertion, one of the most distinguished American composers assures us that to the trained as to the untrained ear there is no such character in this succession of notes as Mr. White attributes to it. Without passing into any discord they might serve for an opening motive to any composition, like the four notes which begin Beethoven's Fifth Symphony. Mr. White's phrase, "in the natural key," is a queer one; and if one talks of *keys*, the notes themselves would perhaps suggest A minor. Of this

passage in the play the great German Shakspere student, Dr. Schmidt, says: "Eine besondere Bedeutung in den gewählten Tönen zu suchen, heisst wol des Guten zu viel thun." It is a wonder that Mr. White does not find meaning in what may be called the song of *Holofernes* ("Love's Labour's Lost," iv. 2). There are not only four but six notes to that—ut, re, sol, la, mi, fa—and very "distractingly" arranged.

From music we will turn to French. Mr. White seems very sure that Shakspere knew but little of the language; but how much does he himself know? To the line

> "Now Esperance! Percy! and set on"
> ("1 Henry IV.," v. 2: 97),

he notes "*Esperance*, a quadrisyllable, pronounced by S. [*sic* throughout], I am afraid, espyransy." There is not the slightest occasion for the fear in this suggestion, as in Shakspere's day, or not long before, all Frenchmen pronounced it as a quadrisyllable.

And the editor seems to stumble in consequence of a pitfall in the text, in the well-known passage in "Henry V.," where the Dauphin is describing his horse, "[qui a]" (as modern editions give it) "les narines de feu." The folio prints it "chez les narines de feu," and Mr. White retains this, giving in a note: "chez les narines de feu=with fire-breathing nostrils." As Mr. White does not hesitate to change "Je intombe" into "Je suis tombé," or "La fin corrone les eumenes" into "La fin couronne les œuvres," or to make other changes elsewhere, his making no change, or suggesting no difficulty here, implies that he supposes "chez les narines" to be as unabsurd as would be "chez les auteurs français." The change to "*aux* narines" would not seem inadmissible.

The note which immediately follows this is also open to criticism. The *Dauphin* calls his horse "le cheval volant, the Pegasus," and just afterward declares, "It is a beast for Perseus." Mr. White explains: "In the literature just preceding S.'s day, his [Perseus's] ship was called his flying horse." Now, it is perfectly clear that Shakspere had no *ship* in his mind, but Pegasus himself, *the* "flying horse"; and if, as is evident, he believed his rider to have been Perseus, it is what his contemporaries also believed, as is proved (among other proofs) by Mr. White's own description (in a note to "Troilus and Cressida," i. 3: 42) of an old print which represents Perseus coming to the rescue of Andromeda, bounding on Pegasus. Compare, also, "Troilus and Cressida," iv. 5: 186.

We alluded just now to the learned German, Dr. Schmidt. It is not to Mr. White's credit that the only time he refers to Schmidt's remarkable and invaluable work, he should speak of it merely as "the so-called Shakspere Lexicon," at the same time characterizing one of its definitions as "the most absurd and inept of all" those suggested. Such treatment of such eminently successful labors as Dr. Schmidt's indicates, at the best, a singular inability to appreciate an admirable combination of accuracy and acuteness.

Mr. White professes to avoid all superfluousness of comment. But the tone of supercilious criticism of his author which prevails throughout finds expression in superfluous judgments. It is every way "ill judged" to say of *Hamlet*: "Shakspere imagined him a weak, imperfect, morbid creature, but a kind-hearted gentleman." And *Othello's* frantic cry of "one entire and perfect chrysolite" would hardly suggest to most editors a dissertation on the valuelessness of this "greenish-yellow stone," and the remark, "Probably Shakspere never saw one, but the word promises largely, and it sounded well in his verse." It is worse than wasting words to speak of *Lady Macbeth's* "society manner," and to describe the feast at the house of Capulet as not "small and early." In a book for more than this year's reading it is undesirable, to say the least, to make an allusion to "the Osric [the Oscar] of our day," or to "the reliable gentleman of our civil war." But if we add that there are some notes not quite quotable, from a stronger taint of the quality exhibited in these chance-chosen instances, we shall have dwelt sufficiently on this point.

We must recur, however, to the superfluousness which lies in the frequent repetition of such criticisms as "mere heedless writing, not the 'grammar' of S.'s time"; "mere reckless indifference, not English then more than now"; "not Elizabethan grammar"; "one of S.'s reckless, but partly unconscious, perversions and inversions for rhythm's sake"; "mere heedlessness"; "mere reckless word-making." These comments are superfluous both for the uninstructed and the instructed reader. The former cares nothing about "Elizabethan grammar"; the latter is likely to have an opinion of his own. And there are passages where it may well be questioned whether this "reckless indifference" is, in truth, "indifference"; as notably in "Antony and Cleopatra," iii. 13: 98:

> "——should I find them
> So saucy with the hand of she here—what's her name,
> Since she was Cleopatra?"

where "she" is almost audibly "*this* she," and where certainly the *hand* of *her here* would have had a strange sound. In the same category of superfluousness may be included Mr. White's constant dwelling on the "Elizabethan grammar" in the use of *it* for *its*—a peculiarity in which he takes what may be called a truly paternal interest. And we must parenthetically observe that the note on the incidents of the death of *Cæsar*, and the number of his wounds, is absolutely unnecessary and irrelevant; yet it is by far the longest of any in the volumes.

The desirable number and length of the notes to such an intentionally "popular" edition of Shakspere, is an open question; and if we have spoken of superfluous notes, we must say, on the other hand, that Mr. White has a very high estimate of the attainments of "the reader of general intelligence" if he honestly believes, as he says, that he has here enabled him to understand "what Shakspere wrote, as nearly as possible in the very way in which he would have understood it . . . if he had lived in London in the reign of James I." And he speaks later of these notes as "explanatory of every obsolete word or phrase, and of every obscure passage." But they are, in fact, inadequate. How many readers of only "general intelligence," without special study, could get at the meaning of such lines as these, which have no notes:

> "if I do prove her haggard" ("Othello," iii. 3: 260),
> "as my farthest band shall pass on thy approof"
> ("Antony," iii. 2: 26),
> "as true as steel, as plantage to the moon"
> ("Troilus," iii. 2: 163),
> "As gentle and as jocund as to jest
> Go I to fight"
> ("Richard II.," i. 3: 95),
> "the presence strewed"
> ("Richard II.," i. 3: 289),
> "the discandying of this pelleted storm"
> ("Antony," iii. 2: 165),
> "this fierce abridgment" ("Cymbeline," v. 5: 382),
> "that nothing-gift of differing multitudes"
> ("Cymbeline," iii. 7: 85),
> "A southwest blow on ye" ("Tempest," i. 2: 323),
> "an eye of green" ("Tempest," ii. 1: 52),
> "I fear you have done yourself some wrong"
> ("Tempest," i. 2: 441),
> "Find written in the margent of his eyes"
> ("Romeo," i. 3: 85),
> "——stand the push
> Of every beardless vain comparative"
> ("1 Henry IV.," iii. 2: 67),
> "now I arise" ("Tempest," i. 2: 169),
> "If not the face of men" ("Julius Cæsar," ii. 1: 114),
> "The question of his death is enroll'd in the Capitol" ("Julius Cæsar," iii. 2: 35),

or many other equally difficult passages. Is Mr. White justified in saying, as he does, "to any reader who does not understand these passages," that the fault is his own?

We have said that Mr. White's editing of the text is always painstaking; but in this edition he has not thought best to give any reasons for the readings he adopts, and this silence makes it impossible to distinguish between purposely chosen words and possible misprints. Notes to indicate intended changes from the usual text would prevent uncertainty in the reader with regard to such passages as,

> "And breath'd such life with kisses in my lips
> That I *receiv'd*, and was an emperor"
> ("Romeo," v. 1: 9),

or even more strangely, in *Melun's* speech ("King John," v. 4: 37), the transposition of a line.

> "Paying the fine of rated treachery
> Even with a treacherous fine of all your lives"—

has a clear meaning, and is the reading of the folio of 1623.

> "Where I may think the remnant of my thoughts
> Even with a treacherous fine of all your lives
> In peace, . . ."

which is Mr. White's reading, has surely no meaning at all. The *certain* misprints are not numerous. Some of them are cases apparently of miswriting—of what Mr. White calls "heterophemy"; as, in the volume of Comedies, p. 711, "the correspondent French title being heedlessly used" should be "*English* title." Histories, p. 145: "Here *Falstaff* . . . says 'say-est' [should be '*speak*'-est] and 'believ-ed.'" We are sorry to touch on Mr. White's French again, but he translates (is it perhaps "heterophemy"?) "il fait fort chaud," by "it's very cold." And he translates "Venetia, Venetia, chi non ti vede non ti pretia," "Venice, Venice, who sees thee not does not *know* thee."

While those persons already familiar with Shakspere may be indebted to Mr. White and his publishers for the use such readers can make of these convenient volumes, it will be seen that the inadequacy and vulgarity of the notes greatly disqualify them in respect to judicious instruction.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

The Law of Expert and Opinion Evidence Reduced to Rules. With illustrations from adjudged cases. By John D. Lawson. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1883.

The Law of Contracts. By Theophilus Parsons, LL.D. 3 vols. Seventh edition. With additions by William V. Kellen. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

Precedents of Equity Pleadings. By Franklin Fiske Heard. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1884.

Commentaries on Law, embracing Chapters on the Nature, the Source, and the History of Law; on International Law, Public and Private, and on Constitutional and Statutory Law. By Francis Wharton, LL.D. Philadelphia: Kay & Brother. 1884.

A Treatise on Extraordinary Legal Remedies, embracing Mandamus, Quo Warranto, and Prohibition. By James F. High. Second edition. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1884.

The American Decisions. Containing the cases of general value and authority decided in the courts of the several States from the earliest issue of the State Reports to the year 1869. Compiled and annotated by A. C. Freeman. Vols. 44, 45, and 46. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

Index to the American Decisions, and the Editor's notes thereto. With a table of the cases re-reported. Volumes 31 to 45 inclusive, 1837-1846. By A. C. Freeman. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

The Patentability of Inventions. By Henry Childs Merwin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

A Treatise on the Law of Pledges. Including collateral securities. By Leonard A. Jones. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Treatise on the Law of Mortgages of Personal Property. By Leonard A. Jones. Second edition. Revised and enlarged. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Treatise on Equity Jurisprudence as Administered in the United States of America; adapted for all the States and to the union of legal and equitable remedies under the Reformed Procedure. By John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D. In three volumes. Vol. III. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

A Treatise on the Law of Sale of Personal Property; with references to the American decisions and to the French Code and Civil Law. By J. P. Benjamin. Fourth American, from latest English edition. By Edmund H. Bennett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1884.

A Practical Treatise on Abstracts and Examinations of Title to Real Property. By George W. Warvelle. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

A Treatise on the Law of Collateral Securities, as applied to negotiable, quasi-negotiable, and non-negotiable choses in action. By William Colebrooke. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

A Treatise on the Limitations of Actions at Law and in Equity. By H. G. Wood. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.

THE plan of Mr. Lawson's treatise resembles that of Sir James Stephen's 'Digest of the Law of Evidence,' and it will be a sufficient recommendation of his work to most readers and practising lawyers that he has found it possible to reduce his body of law to 116 short rules. The illustrations, of course, swell the book to the size of an ordinary legal treatise. The work appears, so far as we have examined it, to be carefully done. It is not possible that books of this sort should supersede the regular text-books, which aim at collating all existing authorities. The rules are subject to local variations and modifications with which a lawyer actually engaged in the trial of cases must familiarize himself from some source. Thus a lawyer trying a will case in certain courts would find rule 64, sub-rule 4, misleading. It reads as follows: "One not an expert may give an opinion, founded on observation, that a certain person is sane or insane." This is no doubt the true general rule to be derived from the cases, and the author mentions the courts of four States only as refusing to recognize it But the rule as given by him does not express the law of New York on the subject, as we understand it. In this State a witness not an expert is not asked to give an opinion, founded on observation, that a certain person is sane or insane; but the facts as to the behavior or acts observed having been drawn from him, he is then asked whether in his opinion the behavior and acts were those of a sane or insane person; it is only an expert who is asked the direct question as to insanity. The distinction is of course, so far as results go, unimportant; but, as a matter of practice, a lawyer who should fail to understand it would be tripped up at once. Mr. Lawson's analysis of the rules governing ordinary "opinion" evidence is particularly good. This is very far removed from expert evidence strictly so called. When a real-estate broker is called to testify to the value of "lots," or an archæologist to the probable antiquity of an "eight-legged dog," he is, properly speaking, an expert, for his evidence is based on special study of these particular matters. But a witness who states that he believes a person known as the Claimant to be really the lost Sir Roger Tichborne, has made no special study of claimants, or baronets, or of the means of identifying faces after a lapse of years; and what he says is a simple inference from observation, only a little more complex than the inference that it has been raining from the fact of the ground being wet. The line between fact, opinion, and inference is very hard to draw.

Ten years have elapsed since the last edition of the late Professor Parsons's elaborate and well-known work on contracts appeared—a fact made patent, on opening Mr. Kellen's edition, by his copious annotations. Five thousand cases have been added, and added in such a way as to take up little room. As far as we have been able to examine the new editor's work, it has been well done, and greatly adds to the value of a text-book which every lawyer must constantly consult. Of the original treatise, while not exactly a classic—not a work that can be compared with Kent, or with Story at his best, or with Greenleaf—it may be termed one of the indispensable law-books. There is nothing which exactly takes its place on either side of the Atlantic. We doubt if a lawyer ever feels that he has thoroughly worked up a difficult case turning upon a question of contract, without looking carefully to see whether he cannot find something to his purpose in Parsons. The text is now thickly overlaid with notes, which frequently obscure rather than illumine the path of the inquirer.

Mr. Heard's precedents form a valuable collection for the practitioner in Massachusetts, and probably other States. They are drawn in conformity to what he calls the "modern school of equity pleading," which teaches brevity and intelligibility. It is to the layman, no doubt, strange that there should be any school of equity pleading in the modern world at all. We have done what we can to rid ourselves of it by the fusion of equity and law, and the simplification of pleading in general. But it appears that there is still room for the equity pleader, whose art, however, now mainly consists in the skill and terseness with which he states his case—a rare art, even among good lawyers, and rarer than ever in our day, owing to the fact that the facility of amendment at all stages encourages ignorant and careless lawyers to trust to any sort of bill or declaration. The modest suggestion of the *Lord Chancellor,* in "Iolanthe," as "an old equity draughtsman," that a statement might be improved by the insertion of the word "not" before the verb, is no bad burlesque of many an amendment to pleadings, introduced as a happy afterthought by lawyers who are astounded to find that the case they have made is not their case at all.

Dr Wharton is one of the most voluminous legal writers of our day, and his books on some of the commoner heads of the law, such as Negligence, for instance, have proved of great value to the profession. He is an industrious collector of cases, and makes up by his thoroughness in this way what he lacks in thoroughness of another sort. He has no special qualifications for writing on Law in general. He has made the present volume valuable by incorporating in it a "suggestive" discussion of the recent amendments to the Constitution. But it would require very unusual legal abilities to embody in a brief treatise of a few hundred pages a general view of Law—international law, public and private, and constitutional and statutory law. Dr. Wharton has neither the accuracy of mind, nor the power of concise statement, which would enable him to do anything of the kind. On the first page we find ample proof of his want of qualification in this respect for his task. Speaking of the fact that the different senses in which the word "law" is used frequently leads to confusion, he gives the following as an illustration: "We have frequently presented to us an argument which may thus be expanded into a syllogism: 'It is a law that all acts of an intelligent agent were intended. *This* was the act of an intelligent agent, therefore it was intended.' The fallacy in the syllogism here proposed is that 'law' in the major premise is a law of psychology, and that at the best it justifies only probable conclusion, while the conclusion given is announced as an absolute law of jurisprudence." In order that there may be no misunderstanding about it he adds, "To this fallacy are attributable the erroneous rulings of our courts that it is a presumption of law that all acts done were intended." It is a pretty grave charge to say that courts of justice hold as an "absolute law of jurisprudence" anything of the sort. If they did the consequences would be very serious; for it would preclude any one accused of crime from excusing himself by showing that the act for which he is indicted was the result of mere carelessness and had no criminal motive, and was not committed intentionally. The rule which Mr. Wharton has in mind is apparently that every one is held responsible for the consequences of his acts so far as they affect his neighbor's rights; that is, a man who damages his neighbor's property, or slanders him, must answer to him for it, and cannot plead in excuse that he intended nothing of the sort. This is one of the most ordinary rules of conduct, without which the affairs of the world could not go on for a day, and has extremely little to do with "psychology." But even it has not been made an absolute law of jurisprudence.

Mr. High is a careful writer, and we are glad to see that his book on extraordinary legal remedies has reached a second edition. In ten years there have been eight hundred decisions added to the field, and these are now embraced in the treatise. We are unable to find any discussion of the question recently mooted in the courts of this State—the right to compel a railroad to receive and carry freight, by mandamus, when its excuse is that it is unable to have the work done except by paying an exorbitant price for it; nor do we find any account of the attempt in the Federal courts to use mandamus for the purpose of compelling States to pay their debts.

We have frequently spoken of the value of Mr. Freeman's collection and of his notes to the practising lawyer. The cases re-reported are to be found in the regular series, and no one can rely on a selection of cases in searching for authorities, for the simple reason that it *is* a selection, and therefore incomplete. Mr. Freeman's notes, however, taken in connection with the rest of the work, make the whole a gigantic set of leading cases accompanied by annotations, on a scale such as has never before been attempted. In such a set the gloss is the principal thing, and here we think that many of Mr. Freeman's notes are too "scrappy." A case that is worth annotating at all is worth annotating fully.

Mr. Merwin's treatise will be found of the utmost value to patent lawyers. Its scope is narrow, for, as the title indicates, it is confined to the subject-matter of patents, and the right to them as between rival or successive inventors. The topics of Abandonment, Infringement, and Reissue are consequently excluded. The body of the work consists of cases decided by the courts, but these are accompanied by a brief statement of the principles which they illustrate, admirably concise and clear. Mr. Merwin has

remarkable power of statement, and we can commend his book to the profession.

Mr. Jones has added some three hundred cases to his work on chattel mortgages, and in his treatise on pledges has covered a comparatively new field. The custom of pledging "collaterals"—that is, of stocks, bonds, bills of lading, warehouse receipts, and other paper securities—has produced a vast body of law on which the old treatises on bailments throw little light. Mr. Jones is a careful and accurate writer, and his work may be relied upon, not as a mere repository of decisions, but as embodying much research and knowledge.

We have spoken before of the earlier parts of Mr. Pomeroy's work on Equity Jurisprudence. The present volume completes it, and confirms us in the opinion that it is the most important treatise relating to Equity that has appeared since Story's time. It is especially valuable in its citations of recent leading cases; and an examination of very recently developed heads—as for example that concerning the liability of directors for malfeasance, misfeasance, or negligence—warrants us in saying that Mr. Pomeroy has searched the reports with great care and unusual discrimination.

Benjamin on Sales is a classic, and is likely to remain so for some time. Mr. Bennett has added a thousand cases and a good deal of valuable illustration; but the book is already getting unwieldy with notes. Swollen to more than a thousand pages, it very much needs revision by the author, if this were possible. Unfortunately, his health precludes him from the task, or thus far has done so. So well, however, was the work originally performed that it will be able to stand a good deal more annotation—at least, if as well done as Mr. Bennett's.

A very large part of Mr. Warvelle's treatise on conveyancing is made up of matters treated more fully in books relating to the substitution law of real estate. It might have been made much smaller with advantage. Singular as the fact may seem, the statement of the author that it is the only American treatise, with the exception of a little handbook, on the subject, is, we believe, entirely true. The book will be found chiefly useful in conveyancing in the Western States, where real law is entirely modernized.

Mr. Colebrooke's treatise is a valuable collection of cases, but it lacks precision and accuracy of statement, as for example in his treatment of evidence bearing on "option" contracts, where (§350) hardly a single decision is stated so as to be thoroughly intelligible.

Over 250 pages of Mr. Wood's treatise on limitations are taken up with the statutes of England and the United States. As he says in his preface, the legislation of the last twenty years has produced radical changes in the law and in the theories applicable to the law of limitation. There is no other book which goes over the ground as thoroughly as this treatise.

A Memorial of George Bradburn. By his Wife. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1883.

GEORGE BRADBURN'S name is little known to the present generation, to whom it is necessary to say first of all that he was a Massachusetts man. "Bradburn of Nantucket" he was called during his brief but conspicuous and highly useful term of service in the lower house of the Legislature of his native State; but he was not, in fact, born on that island, and only chanced to be settled there as a Unitarian clergyman. Like many another of his profession, the anti-slavery agitation swept him out of the pulpit into the broader current of moral activity. He became associated with it in 1839, on the eve of the second stage of its development, and amidst the great division in the abolition ranks caused by sectarian jealousy, hostility to the equal participation of women, and a desire to convert the organization into a disciplined party at the polls. The first two motives had no weight with Mr. Bradburn, and being chosen one of the American delegates to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention held in London in June, 1840, he defended vigorously, but in vain, the right of the female delegates who accompanied him to be recognized and admitted to seats on the floor. When the second stage of the agitation was reached, and the policy of disunion adopted by the abolitionists, Mr. Bradburn withdrew in his turn, yielding assent to the sophistical reasoning which made "the Constitution as it was" an anti-slavery instrument. After that his associates were the political abolitionists, the Liberty Party men, Free-Soilers, and Republicans, and his occupation became that of an editor, first at Lynn, Mass., afterwards in Boston, and finally in Cleveland, Ohio. He stumped the West as a Republican orator till his health broke down in the Fremont campaign, when he returned to Massachusetts, for a brief period resumed his ministerial functions, and then, thanks to the friendship of Secretary Chase, found a position in the Boston Custom-house, which he held as long as his faculties permitted. He died in 1880.

This intimate memorial is a medley of autobiography (in the shape of letters, journals, and commonplace book), narrative, extracts from speeches, lectures, and sermons, and personal tributes, from all which a very good idea can be got of the subject. Two excellent portraits, early and late, recall a presence singularly imposing and benign. One lacks only the perishable quality of the orator's delivery, which in Bradburn was sympathetic, humorous, and pungent in a high degree, and all the more remarkable because of his deafness. We can readily believe that Mr. George Ticknor Curtis advised him to betake himself to the law, encouraging him to think that he "could gain admission to the bar by a rather short cut." "I told him," observes Bradburn, "what I had on a certain occasion told the House, that I had always fancied there might be more of the law in my composition than of the gospel." The most interesting and, from an historical point of view, the most important portion of this volume is Mr. Bradburn's European diary, especially in what relates to the World's Convention. For natural description he had not the graphic pen of his friend and fellow-delegate, N. P. Rogers, but his impressions of the eminent persons whom he met are acute and valuable. Everywhere he carried his Yankee yardstick, and was surprised to find it more at variance in the land of roast beef than in that of the metric system. He crossed the Channel, and saw in Paris the decade celebration of the Three Days, and was at Boulogne only a day or two before Louis Napoleon's fiasco. Before reaching Paris—

"I see," he says (p. 100), "a hundred things in France to one in 'Old England' to remind me of America. The sky, the earth, its cultivation, the people, the animals, all look more American than any I have seen since leaving home And herein I have been disappointed: I fancied we and our country resembled in outward aspect the English more than the French. Yet I notice here things strikingly dissimilar to aught among us."

It is hard to choose from the abundant passages we have marked for quotation. Lord Brougham, Dr. Bowring, Harriet Martineau, Haydon (to whom Bradburn sat to be painted as a member of the Convention), Father Mathew, are some of the famous personages of whom we here have characteristic sketches. Let us cite what is said of O'Connell (p. 71):

"The great 'agitator' is all that I expected, and more. His person is uncommonly large, erect, and of admirable proportions, while his feet and hands are of very aristocratic dimensions. His voice is exceedingly rich and of great compass and flexibility. Its tones fall on the ear like notes of sweetest music, or the thunder of a tremendous cataract, just as he pleases or as best comports with his subject. Something of the Irish brogue it of course has, but that makes it all the richer. To look at him as he sat listening to Clarkson's speech, one would hardly deem him the agitator he is. There is such an expression of placidity, of cheerfulness, of a mind at ease with itself, in his ample, roseate countenance, that one can scarcely help feeling happy in the observation of it. . . .

"Mr. O'Connell having made a complimentary allusion to Massachusetts, I was urged by Wendell Phillips to respond to it It was the best opportunity I ever had of showing my littleness."

Here is the portrait of a very different kind of orator (p. 118):

"I visited an assembly of three hundred divines, more or fewer, now in town [Edinburgh], where the matter 'was up' of the Church's independence. I asked Dunlop to let me try if I could identify Dr. Chalmers in this great crowd of persons. I succeeded, and by my phrenology alone; for apart from the reverend doctor's cerebral configuration there was nothing peculiar in his person corresponding to any preconception of mine. He has the look of a brawny yeoman. I heard him speak at some length in the debate, or tried to, rather, for I was at too great a distance to understand much that he said, and probably was but poorly compensated by reading a report of his speech in the morning papers. His manner was earnest and ungainly. He held his cane in one hand, clutching it near midway and cutting the air with it, in outrageous violation of *Hamlet's* advice, the perspiration standing in big drops on that noble forehead and embrowned face. George Combe has modified my opinion of the merits of this church battle, and quite destroyed the sympathy I had felt for these clerical warriors against secular interference with the rights of churches, by showing that the special object of their hostility is, under the circumstances, favorable to the growth of religious liberality."

Under date of August 2, 1840 (p. 104):

"Went to Chelsea with Professor Adam. Alas! that extraordinary writer and steam-engine sort of thinker, Thomas Carlyle, had left here only a few hours before for a few days' 'rustification' in the country. His pleasant, bright wife talked with us an hour or two, and made us laugh at her graphic description of her husband's outfit and departure, who, it seems, had left on an old Rosinante with saddle-bags filled with maps of England, tobacco and pipes. She showed us a picture in oil of him. 'Twas only the head and a portion of the neck, having a remarkably healthful Scotch look and a massive forehead. Mrs C. said he was much pleased with the Quaker lady—Mrs. Mott—whose quiet manner had a soothing effect on him. She spoke of her husband's regard and respect for Ralph Waldo Emerson."

At another Scotchman's Mr. Bradburn encountered that dangerous adventuress who caused a fluttering among our ingenuous Congressmen half a century ago (p. 112):

"He introduced me to Miss Americus Vespucius, the only living descendant of the alleged discoverer of America. She returned not long since from a visit to America, where an effort was made to obtain for her a national donation as an expression of regard for her illustrious ancestor. That effort having failed, numbers of 'patriotic' individuals made her the offer of a handsome pecuniary present, which, however, she declined to accept, thinking it might have been proposed under an impression that she needed assistance. A more captivating woman I have never met. There is a witchery about her that is irresistible, that even Zeno himself could hardly have withstood the influence of. The Duchess of Sutherland struck me as being as elegant and perhaps the most beautiful woman I had ever seen; but these are not the epithets applicable to Vespucius. She is exquisitely pretty and fascinating. The Italian is much the younger, apparently, has a more delicate, slender form—sylph-like, indeed—more grace and sprightliness, a dark complexion, a profusion of dark hair, and very large, flashing eyes, whose

beauty is heightened by their long silken lashes. But what is better, her mental qualities are of a superior order. She has great conversational powers and speaks several languages. And with all these charms of person and superiority of intellect, she is said to possess another quality, not infrequently found in the fairer part of creation. It is an Amazonian courage, of which Dr. Madden told me she once gave a singular proof, by pistolling a Frenchman who had dared to insult her. She has been for some time an exile from her native Florence on account of her political opinions."

If space permitted, we should like to quote from Mr. Bradburn's "lecture on education relating to classical studies," which we commend to our anti Greek champions as a weapon to their hands. The date is not given, but Harvard was already an innovator by making the classics elective in a certain portion of the course. Brown had followed her example, and Yale was preparing to do so. In conclusion, we may express a regret that more of Mr. Bradburn's own letters were not collected and here printed by his widow; for, as every one knows who has met with them in private collections, they abundantly confirm Gerrit Smith's praise of them to the writer (p. 175): "You remember my telling you that none of my correspondents succeeded to anything like the extent you do in putting *themselves* into their letters. A letter from Bradburn is a *visit* from Bradburn."

A Book of New England Legends and Folk-Lore, in Prose and Poetry. By Samuel Adams Drake. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1884. Pp. 461.

THE title chosen by Mr. Drake is too narrow for the size and contents of his work. Thus, the folk-lore is chiefly confined to the introductory essay of six pages, and there is hardly a legend, in the proper sense of the term, till Essex County is reached—say, for another hundred pages. History, both sober and romantic, has a larger space allotted to it than tradition, a strict adhesion to which would have resulted in a much thinner volume, even if the "New England" were enlarged to mean something more than a little strip of the Eastern coast. Mr. Drake is an inveterate moralizer, and he sometimes forgets that he has a story to tell, "talking all round it." This is conspicuously true in the case of Eliza Wharton, the natural mystery surrounding whose fate is much enhanced by the failure to give a concise narrative of what is known about this unfortunate woman. And in general, Mr. Drake's style is needlessly diffuse and suggestive of the bookmaker. To this class he indeed belongs, and with a certain distinction, which lies more in the felicity of motive of his several ventures than in the skilful literary execution of them. When we add that the pictorial illustrations are occasionally apropos of nothing, we have ceased finding fault with a book which we welcome with all its shortcomings, because it is well calculated to interest the young in the history of Puritandom, and to recall pleasantly to their elders, who were to the manner born, the familiar tales of their childhood. What exiled Bostonian, for example, forever longing to return and never being able to get to the "Hub," can read without a thrill of self-recognition Austin's clever allegory of "Peter Rugg, the Missing Man"? The poets principally drawn upon are Whittier above all, of course: Longfellow, Lowell, Dana, and that interesting group of Essex County poetesses—Hannah Gould, Lucy Larcom, Celia Thaxter, Harriet Spofford—on whom the local scenery has exercised the same magical influence as on the Quaker poet. The arrangement of the contents is geographical and chronological, and the book is beautifully manufactured.

Mumu, and the Diary of a Superfluous Man. By Ivan Turgeneff. Translated from the Russian by Henry Gersoni. Funk & Wagnalls.

THE wish has been often expressed for an accurate translation of Turgeneff's writings direct from the original. That none of his countrymen have undertaken it goes to emphasize the doubt expressed by Wallace as to the aptness for foreign languages usually ascribed to Russians. The two sketches before us do nothing to supply this want. They only prove how many of the words of a language may be acquired without any perception of their relative values, their effects on tone, either artistic or moral. The mistakes are so extravagant as to be ludicrous, in spite of the respect due to the devoted enthusiasm of the translator for his author.

Mere justice prompts a like warning as to the sketch recently reprinted in *Littell* from the *Scottish Review*. It is known in French as 'Les Reliques Vivantes,' and is of a kind in which Turgeneff was unrivalled—the simplest monologue, into which he could throw a whole passionate drama without forcing a single note, without a false tone in the faint, sweet melody. One example will suffice to show at once the inflation and the degradation which the original has suffered. Turgeneff says only, "I wondered to myself where, in such shape, she had found the legend of Joan of Arc." Out of that the translator has evolved: "I own that the transmogrification which the history of Jeanne d'Arc had undergone in penetrating to Alexeïevka caused me some astonishment." It is not enough to say that Turgeneff had mastered style, that his own was perfect in artistic simplicity and refinement. He was himself, to the utmost, high-bred—gentle to the last fibre.

Samuel Davis, of Oxford, Mass., and Joseph Davis, of Dudley, Mass., and their Descendants. North Andover, Mass.: Geo. L. Davis. 1884. Pp. vii. and 610.

THIS is a large and careful record of the issue of Samuel Davis, who was a grandson of William Davis, at Roxbury, in 1642, together with a shorter account of the issue of Joseph, son of the emigrant. It is in one respect a valuable genealogy, for the dates are given with due exactness. It is, however, intentionally excluded from a place among the best of such works, by its plan. The descendants of Davises in the female line are included in the record and in the arrangement; so that the book is mainly composed of little fragmentary bits of the history of many families.

The author says that he does this knowing that it conflicts "in a measure with the dictum of professional genealogists" That *dictum* is based upon the common-sense idea that every family, since the establishment of hereditary surnames, is confined to those bearing the name. In Great Britain, indeed, a desire to claim relationship with the blood-royal, or even the nobility, leads many persons to trace descent by the spindle side. With us, on the contrary, the better idea is to aim at a correct picture of the increase of the clan. Of course, a book like this entirely obscures that result, and renders the vast collection of no interest to the statistician, and of trifling value to the genealogist. It is a pity to see so much labor and zeal misspent. Had the author arranged the records of a single town, by families, he would have laid us under an obligation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. Flowers and their Pedigrees. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Amidon, Dr. R. W. A Year-Book of Therapeutics for 1883. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Bancroft, G. History of the United States of America. Vol. IV. D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.
Bardeen, C. W. A System of Rhetoric. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Brownson, H. F. The Works of Orestes Brownson. Vol. VI. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse. $3.
Busch, M. Unser Reichskanzler. 2 vols. B. Westermann & Co.
Conway, H. Called Back. Leisure Hour Series. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Dynamic Electricity. Including articles by Dr. John Hopkinson, J. N. Shoolbred, and R. E. Day. Science Series. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Easter Flowers. Arranged and illustrated by Susie B. Skelding. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50.
Egleston, N. H. Hand-Book of Tree-Planting. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Preface and notes by Austin Dobson. Parchment Library. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Notley, Fanny E. M. Red Riding-Hood. A novel. Franklin Square Library. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Preston, S. T. Original Essays. London: Williams & Norgate.
Scherer, W. Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur. 2d edition. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung.
Schmidt, Prof. E. Lessing: Geschichte seines Lebens und seiner Schriften. Vol. I. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung.
Sloane, C. W. A Treatise on the Law of Landlord and Tenant. S. S. Peloubet & Co.
Stanley, Dean. Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church. Vol. I. New Edition. $2.
Tennyson, Lord A. The Cup and the Falcon. Macmillan and Co. $1.
The Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson, Poet Laureate. New edition. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Vasili, Count Paul. Berlin Society. S. W. Green's Son. $1.
Victoria, Queen. More Leaves from the Journal of a Life in the Highlands, from 1862 to 1882. Franklin Square Library. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.
Watson, R. G. Spanish and Portuguese South America during the Colonial Period. Two Volumes. London: Trübner & Co.
Wentworth and Hill's Examination Manuals. No. 1. Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Wharton, Francis. Commentaries on Law: embracing Chapters on the Nature, the Source, and the History of Law; on International Law, Public and Private; and on Constitutional and Statutory Law. Philadelphia: Kay & Brother.
Wilkinson, W. C. Preparatory Latin Course in English. Phillips & Hunt. $1.25.
Zschokke, H. A Sylvester Night's Adventure. Translated. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 75 cents.

Henry Holt & Co.

WILL PUBLISH SATURDAY:

Life and Poems of Theodore Winthrop. Edited by his Sister. 12mo, with portrait. $1.50.

Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. publish Winthrop's Novels in the Leisure Hour Series. 16mo, $1.00 *per volume.*

JUST PUBLISHED:

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A fascinating novel. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1.00; Leisure Moment Series, 25 cents.

The Pagans.

16mo (No 2 American Novel Series), $1.00.

A Latter-Day Saint.

Being the Story of the Conversion of Ethel Jones, related by herself. 16mo (No. 1 American Novel Series), $1.00.

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"We heartily commend the volume to young and to old. It is veritable history, but it is history in undress and not in court clothes."—*The Churchman.*

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 20, 1884.

The Week.

THE only important event of a business character during the past week has been the action of the Trunk Line Pool in reducing rates on grain and provisions, from Chicago and other Western points to the Atlantic seaboard, ten cents per hundred pounds. This is the last remedy in the hands of the pool managers against the cutting of rates. It is also the first application of the remedy made since the present pool went into operation. If vigorously followed up it will undoubtedly accomplish the object in view. It will reduce railroad earnings as a matter of course, but much less than a general war of rates, which is the only alternative, would reduce them. The effects of the reduction on general trade remain to be seen. They ought to be beneficial, by way of putting some life into our sluggish export trade in grain and provisions. Gold shipments have practically ceased, only $200,000 having been sent out during the week. It would be premature, however, to say that we shall lose no more, although the reduction in grain rates from the West, taken in conjunction with the lowering of the discount rate by the Bank of England, seems altogether likely to keep sterling exchange below the gold-exporting point. The movement of general merchandise has not improved materially, but prices of dry goods have been well sustained. The same may be said of the iron trade. The advance in pig iron established a few weeks ago is maintained, but sales are light. There is no activity in any branch of the trade. Railway earnings for February, as compiled by the *Financial Chronicle* for sixty roads, show a small gain. Business in the Stock Exchange is still confined to large speculators and their following of room traders. All attempts to lure the public into the market seem to have been definitively abandoned.

The dinner of the Free-Trade Club on Saturday evening was the most notable gathering in the interest of tariff reform that has taken place in this country since the close of the war. It was notable in the character of those who were present and took the leading parts, but more especially in the spirit of the proceedings. Those who have been in the habit of attending such meetings from time to time during the past fifteen or twenty years could not fail to observe an invigorating atmospheric influence quite unusual in their former experience, betokening a general conviction that some step is about to be taken toward freer trade with the world. The most significant and important speech of the evening was that of the Speaker of the House of Representatives, whose words were, of course, weighted by the responsibilities of his position. Mr. Carlisle did not employ any equivocal phrases. He left nobody in doubt as to his beliefs, intentions, desires. There must be a change in the policy of the country; there must be a reduction of duties, a relaxation of the restrictions hitherto imposed upon foreign trade. The measures taken to effect this change must have due regard to investments already made in particular branches of industry, but these branches of industry must put themselves in shape to meet the change, for there can be no step backward. A foreign outlet for our surplus products, both agricultural and manufacturing, must be found. Tariff taxes are an obstacle to foreign trade; they are designed for that purpose, and they accomplish it to a large extent. They must be removed—decently and in order, but they must be removed. This is what Mr. Carlisle's election as Speaker betokened, and he did not belittle its significance in the smallest degree. It was refreshing, as another speaker remarked, to listen to a man in high political station about whose position there could be no mistake. Mr. Carlisle's speech will have a profound influence on his party in the way of assuring all doubters that there is to be no backdown on the part of those who have brought forward the Morrison bill. This measure is moderate and reasonable. It has been sanctioned in principle by the Republicans themselves. If the Democratic party is to split upon it, let it split.

It is of course easy to exaggerate the importance of the passage of a measure like the Roosevelt bill, and we have no desire to do so. Much remains to be done, even now that it has become a law, to purify the politics of this city and make its government decent; for making its government really decent means the complete transfer of it from the Mikes and Johnnies who now carry it on, to the class on which in the long run the welfare and progress of the community depend—the honest, the saving, and the industrious, who have converted New York from what it was a generation ago into a great modern capital, and that in spite of the most shocking misgovernment and pillage by its political class. The centre of their power has always been in the cumbrous political machinery, handed down from the middle ages, which, originally designed to insure free municipal institutions, has come in our time to make city administration a burlesque. The goal to which all modern cities tend, and to which New York has long been tending, notwithstanding all its misfortunes, is freedom from "politics" so called, and efficiency of administration. The Mayor and the departments have been gradually vested with nearly all the powers which the Mayor, Common Council, and Aldermen once enjoyed. The old mediæval concern has meantime been dying of atrophy, caused by our gradually taking away its nourishment. The Common Council withered away years ago; most of the functions of the Aldermen went too; and, now that their control over appointments is gone, the work may be said to be complete, and the time has come when we may turn our eyes to the real government of the city, as it will exist in the future, the essential features of which are to be the election by universal suffrage of a single executive head, vested with absolute power of appointment, and held responsible for its exercise.

Mr. Roosevelt's Committee made a unanimous report to the Assembly on Friday. It is the more interesting that it relates not to confessedly political bodies like the commissions, but to the minor administrative machinery of this city, which has to be conducted with a certain amount of regularity, honesty, and efficiency. The way in which it is actually carried on appears from the following facts: The books of the County Clerk, Keenan, show that he has received $13,700 in fees, which the law requires him to turn over to the city, but which he has put in his own pocket, and this is said to be the "practice" of the office; Keenan's predecessor, Butler, having kept $36,620 50, and Keenan explaining that it is done under "advice of counsel." The Clerk gets as his net income $80,000. His entire term of office yields him $250,000, but a large part of it is "turned over to the various political organizations" from which he gets his place: in other words, he buys the place, and pays for it by fees which are supposed to pay him for doing the work of Clerk. Finally, he does not do this work at all, his time being taken up with politics, as the Committee says he admitted with "great frankness." The work is of course done by some of his subordinates, and the community is taxed $250,000 by every County Clerk to keep up this wonderful system. The Register, who keeps the records of deeds and mortgages, does not know what his income is, and has forgotten whether he paid more or less than $50,000 for his office. The Committee found it impossible to ascertain what the office is really worth to the incumbent, for the books were removed by the late Register, Mr. Docharty, who was suddenly obliged to leave the city by severe illness. The clerks and subordinates, with the exception of a few copyists, are the private employees of the Register, and not in the pay of the city at all. The fees paid amount to $75,000 or $80,000 a year, the money being used, first, to pay for the office, and then to pay Mr. Reilly for keeping his little bureau in working order.

The clerical part of the Surrogate's office is "largely run by his subordinates simply for the purpose of blackmail." At least $10,000 a year, and "probably a sum vastly in excess of this amount," is extorted from those whose property passes through the Surrogate's hands, for services of one sort and another, for which the clerks are already otherwise paid. Except in one instance, no account is kept of these fees. All this is the more easily understood when we learn that the clerks are not employed or paid by the Surrogate, but by the Aldermen. These Aldermanic henchmen let out desk-room in the Surrogate's domain to their friends, who, without holding any public office, perform public work on their own account and at their own rates; those who use the

office of course taking them for clerks. The Committee sum up their picture of the Surrogate's office in the remark that the first step in getting any work done there is "to bribe the employees." The Sheriff's office is a great nursery of blackmail, which seems unnecessary, as the Sheriff receives an enormous quantity of fees every year for services which it costs him "almost nothing to perform." For instance, he fills in blanks, which could be done by a clerk at $1,500 a year, for $26,299; the compensation here again being fixed in the funny way noticed already, by the Aldermen, at what they think a "reasonable" figure. The conveyance of prisoners to and from jail cost $23,109 last year; the Aldermanic rate being $1.75 a head, or more than 25 cents a city block. The Sheriff feeds his prisoners at a profit of $14,000, makes $3,600 by serving notices on jurors, and pockets $600 whenever a criminal is hung. He clears about $60,000 a year. With regard to his jail in Ludlow Street, the Committee report that it is in a "revolting and almost incredible" condition; the keepers being "drunken and brutal," and making a living out of the wretched prisoners by a "thorough system of extortion and blackmail."

The Fitz John Porter case is at last at an end, the bill for his relief having passed the Senate on Thursday by a vote of 36 to 25, after another speech from General Logan, which, however, produced nothing new. The case is one of the most remarkable on record, not more for the persistence with which General Porter has maintained his struggle, than for the success he has had in keeping the interest in it alive. As a general rule, a man with a grievance twenty years old becomes a bore, to whom people listen wearily; and there is no similar body in the world more indifferent than Congress to tales of ancient wrong. It rarely, indeed, does tardy justice at all. But Porter has surmounted all these difficulties, and in addition has managed to beat down a vast amount of passionate prejudice, the maintenance of which many people had come to think part of their duty to the country, and to the memory of those who perished in the war. The whole case against him hung, in the last analysis, on the theory that a professional soldier who did not like or who distrusted his commanding officer, would necessarily be quite ready to betray the Government he served and the soldiers who fought under him. The evidence produced against him would have had no value whatever without this theory, and for the theory there is no support in military history. It was hatched in the brain of politicians, and it is really they who have kept it alive till now.

Mr. Blaine's canvass has reached that familiar stage where it becomes necessary to set him right with the religious sentiment of the country. His organ in Philadelphia announces that during the past fortnight it has "received a score of inquiries on the subject," and that while the religious opinions of a public man, especially of a public man who has retired from politics, "are not a fit subject for public discussion," still the "malicious spread of misconception" cannot be allowed to pass unnoticed when complete refutation is at hand. Accordingly that "indignant private letter" which Mr. Blaine wrote to a personal friend in 1876 is produced in full, with its memorable passage about the charge that he is a Roman Catholic being "very exasperating when connived at, if not in fact originated, by men who sat with me in a Presbyterian Bible class when I was a student in Washington College." We presume that the letter is reproduced now, not so much for any effect which it may have in the preliminary Presidential debate, as to ward off the possibility of injuring the "history" by impeaching its unsectarian fairness.

Some heedless person, who has no comprehension of the great subject with which he is trifling, has given to the newspapers advance sheets of the tenth chapter of Mr. Blaine's history, and some of them have published the whole of it. For some inexplicable reason, the chapter is generally treated as a campaign document rather than as the calm and judicial narrative of a historian who has withdrawn forever from the heat of political strife. Democratic journals call it "Blaine's bid for the Presidency," and Blaine organs go into raptures over its beauties of diction and breadth of view, which can only be accounted for on the supposition that they are unaware how painful this prema ture publication must be to the sensitive mind of the distinguished author. The chapter deals with the period just preceding the civil war, and is devoted mainly to a consideration of the way in which the South was led into secession, to Buchanan's character and administration, and to a "pen portrait" of Jere Black. Concerning the style of the author, we cannot do better than quote the following restrained description from the editorial columns of Mr. Blaine's devoted organ, the Philadelphia *Press*: "The author combines in one the political leader, the experienced man of affairs, the orator, and the trained writer whose clear-cut, forceful sentences lose nothing of their charm, though the graces of voice and person be absent and the words presented in cold type stand alone to challenge the admiration of the reader. In vastness of subject and breadth of treatment neither the 'Notes' or 'Writings' of Jefferson, the autobiography of Franklin, the 'Thirty Years' View' of Benton, the diary of John Quincy Adams, nor the modern writings of Henry Wilson, Sumner, or Seward can compare with the work which Mr. Blaine has taken upon himself." It is a cause for infinite regret that so important a contribution as this to historical literature should be paraded before the world as if it were a mere stump speech of an incurable Presidential aspirant. Not only is Mr. Blaine's standing as a historian injured thereby, but his sagacity as a politician is impeached by the inference which is given that he thinks a successful run can be made for the Presidency on the issues of Buchanan's administration. Undoubtedly his publishers are responsible for this indiscretion, and he will only serve them right if he takes the "work" out of their hands forthwith.

The Advisory Council called to settle the dispute in the Newman church have rendered a decision which has the rare merit of delighting both sides. Dr. Newman says he considers "the victory on his side," and Dr. Ranney says he "never was happier in his life." The main issue which the Council was called on to decide was, whether Dr. Newman is the permanent and settled pastor of the church or not. The Council has decided that he is not, which is what the Ranney party have been contending for. He is, the Council says, simply the acting pastor. Whether the Ranney dismissal of him on the 14th of February is valid or not, the Council does not say, but advises that this point be reconsidered at another meeting. The whole trouble seems, indeed, to have originated in Dr. Newman's refraining from any such formal and regular acceptance of the call of the church as would take him out of the Methodist Episcopal Church, with which the Council finds he is still "in full connection," and to the discipline of which he is still amenable, as "a located preacher in the Quarterly Conference of the Methodist Church."

The bill which passed the Assembly at Albany on Monday, virtually lowering the fares on the elevated railways by extending the five-cent hours, does not commend itself to principles of justice. It has not been called for by any general demand on the part of those who commonly ride during the ten-cent hours, nor would such demand if made furnish a good reason for passing the bill. The elevated railways are not owned by the people who ride on them in the ten-cent hours. If they were so owned it would not be necessary to ask the Legislature to pass any bill on the subject, as the matter would naturally be arranged in a stockholders' meeting. But these non-stockholders who go down town late and go up town early have not "moved" for a reduction of fares. They have held no meetings, passed no resolutions, written no letters to the newspapers, taken none of the steps which betoken an earnest desire to have the fares reduced. Notwithstanding all this, it would be proper for the Legislature to take the matter under consideration at any time if it were clear that the power to fix the fares (regardless of earnings) resided in that body. It may be that the Legislature has, by some inscrutable process, acquired such power, although it was not conferred or reserved at the time when the charters were granted and the railways were built. It was then expressly understood and agreed that the rates of fare fixed in the bill should stand until the net earnings should exceed ten per cent. upon the capital actually invested. Last year the Railroad Commission made a careful investigation of the company's condition, its cost, earnings, expenses, etc., and reported that it was not yielding ten per cent. upon actual cost. Notwithstanding all this, the Legislature passed the so-called Five-Cent-Fare Bill and the Governor very properly vetoed it. There has been no change in the facts since that time that the Legislature can take cognizance of. The earnings may have increased meanwhile, but that is by no means certain. It is certain that no new bill ought to be passed without a new investigation, and it is to be hoped that the Governor will veto this bill, if it reaches him, upon the

same conclusive and sufficient grounds as those upon which he vetoed the last one.

The gratifying intelligence is sent out from Philadelphia that all the "subordinates" who have been engaged for years upon the mysterious task of constructing the Keely motor have been discharged because their work is ended. Keely will from this date be shut up alone with the motor, and will devote all his energies to "focalizing and adjusting the vibrators." This is a delicate operation, we are assured, and would be a most difficult one for anybody except Keely. For him it will be mere child's play, and will end so soon as he obtains one revolution. Nobody can tell how long this will take, but the stockholders are to hold a meeting next Tuesday evening, when the date of an exhibition for their pecuniary benefit "will probably be announced." It is evident that the next few days will constitute a period of intense excitement to all interested in the mystery. The knowledge that Keely is imprisoned alone with his "motor," focalizing and adjusting it for the long-delayed action, will excite tears of joy and hope on every hand. The result of his week's labor may be a revolution which will relegate all other motors into the background, or it may be another postponement.

The case of Fullerton, the transfer clerk of the Manhattan Beach Company, who fraudulently issued 475 shares of stock belonging to the company, and obtained the money (about $45,000), which he is supposed to have lost at the card table, brings up in a new form the question of the liability of a corporation for the fraudulent acts of its agents. Probably the company in this case will not dispute the validity of the stock in the hands of any innocent purchaser, as it is not a case of overissue, but one of plain theft by an employee. There is a rule of the Stock Exchange which requires the witnessing of the signatures of transfers by a member of the Exchange, in order to make the certificates a good delivery to other members; but this rule cannot determine the legal liability of parties in cases of fraudulent issues. All the decisions of courts in cases like the present run to the conclusion that although a company cannot, through fraud or otherwise, make an overissue (which would be an increase of its capital without the authority of the Legislature), it is responsible to innocent purchasers for the value of any shares put in circulation by its own officers and agents, even though these shares are in excess of the whole number authorized by law. The shares fraudulently put out by Fullerton were not in excess of the total authorized issue, but were part of the company's assets. The case therefore seems to be one of mere embezzlement, in which the Manhattan Beach Company is the only sufferer.

The efforts of the Ohio Democrats to have the Scott Liquor Law superseded by some measure more pleasing to the liquor-dealers are not likely to succeed. Three caucuses have been held by the Democratic members of the Legislature for the purpose of enforcing united action in favor of a graded tax bill, which is drawn up in accordance with the demands of the liquor interest, but ten Democrats have refused to support such a bill under any circumstances, and their votes, combined with the Republican vote, will give a majority of five in the Assembly against it. As the Democratic caucus has adopted the bill as a party measure, they have made the necessary "record" for campaign uses, and that is the end chiefly desired. Under the Scott law the liquor trade is held in control much better than ever before, and the revenue which it brings to the State is a perceptible relief in lessening the burdens of taxation.

Mr. Frederick Whittaker, a popular author of whom few of our readers have probably heard, has come out in a long letter in defence of "dime novels." He says that he has written a great many himself, and that the prevalent notion that it is under the influence of the dime novel that the boy of the period takes to murder, arson, and highway robbery, is a delusion. He declares that the dime libraries are of all classes. "Some are stories of adventure by land and sea; others of workingmen's life; others are founded on history, like those of Scott; while others are of frontier life, and record the adventures of real men, like Kit Carson, Daniel Boone, and the well-known scouts of our own time. There is no mention of famous bandits, or of any of that sort of thing; yet their subjects are legion." If this is true, it looks as if the pure dime novel of our fathers is confused now, in the public mind and common speech, with some later and debased pieces of literature, from which it ought to be carefully discriminated; at any rate, Mr. Whittaker's letter shows that the recent editorial statement of the *Tribune*: "The work of the dime novel is being performed with unusual success. The other day three boys robbed their parents and started off for the boundless West," embodies a hasty inference. As a general rule, the reading done by a youthful criminal is only one of many causes which produce his downfall, and consequently, even if the American boy could be suddenly cut off by criminal legislation or a heavy tax from indulging a debauched literary taste, he would still be subject to manifold temptations, and would only here and there become entirely pure and good; while it is needless to say that there are many legal and economical difficulties in the way of any reform of the kind. The press must evidently labor cautiously and tentatively in this field.

Prince Bismarck has made in the Reichstag a characteristically clumsy explanation, in the nature of an apology, of his action in the Lasker matter. He adds nothing, however, to what he said in his despatch, beyond a repudiation of any unfriendliness to the United States. His plea is, in substance, as he himself expresses it, that he was not going to be made his "enemy's postman"—that is, the medium of transmitting a communication in which an enemy was in effect praised for his opposition to him. The discussion which followed indicated more clearly than ever that it is the Reichstag which he has offended, and that it is for the Reichstag to call him to account. We can do nothing more in the matter beyond calling him hard names; but this, even if it were seemly on such an occasion, would hardly mend matters.

Osman Digna has shared the fate of the commander at Trinkitat, whoever he was, by being badly beaten, in spite of his preaching and the fanaticism of his followers. It is lucky for the British, however, that the enemy was willing to make a stand at such a convenient distance from the coast. The details of General Graham's victory show that the tactics practised by the Arabs on the Egyptian squares were for a moment successful on one of the British squares—that is, a charge was made, under cover of the smoke, at one of the angles which held a Gatling gun, and the square was entered under the wheels of the gun, and a good deal of cutting and slashing done and confusion wrought inside. But the British loss shows that there was no great execution done by the attack after all. The force was exposed to a distant fire all the previous night, and to two hours' "hard fighting" in daylight, and had to stand the assaults of 10,000 desperate men, and yet the casualties all told only amount to 250. The proportion of killed (100) to the wounded is, however, very high, showing that the Arabs thrust home with their spears. The fact that the Arabs reached the squares at all, however, in considerable force reflects great credit on them as fighting men, and evidently calls for some revision of the received opinion about the powers of the breechloader. It was, and we believe is still, the judgment of all Continental military critics, that the fire of the British line is the most effective in the world, owing to the superior coolness of the men. It has been generally laid down, too of late years, that neither cavalry nor infantry can approach any body of troops, armed with breechloaders, who are not themselves under fire. That the Arabs should have charged with such impetuosity, therefore, as to leave heaps of dead just outside the square, is certainly an extraordinary exploit, unless the British soldier has greatly fallen off in the use of the musket. He never shot with precision at long range, but he has always made a fire which was "withering" within three hundred yards. Ability to run rapidly on all fours has probably had a good deal to do with the Arab success, and it is a bit of drill which might perhaps be profitably introduced into other armies. It would be very amusing at reviews.

The report is again renewed that the United States and England are to be called upon to mediate between France and China. There are a great many reasons why England should be called in; but our interest in Chinese commerce and the treaty ports is comparatively small, and the objections to action on our part numerous. Indeed, among protectionists it must be very doubtful whether we ought not to desire a blockade of the ports. It would help to make our commercial isolation more complete, and make us turn our attention more closely than ever to the development of our grand old coasting trade.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 12, to TUESDAY, March 18, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL BREWSTER has sent a circular to all United States Attorneys and Marshals, by direction of the President, in which he says: "It is reported that certain persons are aiding in the prosecution of heinous crimes by shipping to foreign ports explosives dangerous in the highest degree to life and property. No proof has been adduced that this rumor is founded upon fact, and the President cannot believe its truth. The honor of this nation, however, requires that it should not be open to the imputation, unfounded though it be, of the slightest appearance of tolerating such crimes, whether to be committed against our people or those of other countries." He therefore calls their attention to certain sections of the Revised Statutes of the United States, which provide that any person transporting or delivering on board a vessel, engaged in carrying passengers between the United States and any foreign country, nitroglycerine and other dangerous and powerful explosives, shall be punished with a fine of not less than $1,000 nor more than $10,000, one-half for the use of the informer. The Attorneys and Marshals are instructed to be diligent in their efforts to prevent the offences described, and to detect and prosecute those who may commit them. The circular is an outgrowth of the dynamite discussion in England.

The terms of the Mexican treaty, recently ratified by the Senate, require certain legislation by Congress to give it effect. This will bring the whole question before the House of Representatives.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Thursday considered the action of Prince Bismarck upon the Lasker resolution. Mr. Phelps (Rep., N. J.) proposed that a report should be submitted to the House, declaring in effect that the wise course of the Secretary of State relieved the House from the necessity of any further action. Mr. Eaton (Dem., Conn.) said that the action of Bismarck was an insult, and should be resented in terms which would leave no doubt of its emphatic disapproval. The further consideration of the subject was referred to a sub-committee consisting of Messrs. Curtin, Eaton, Phelps, and Rice.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Monday unanimously agreed to a resolution in the Lasker matter. It in substance renews the expression of regret at the death of a distinguished member of the German Parliament on American soil, and states that the House has no concern in the relations between the German Executive and the Reichstag.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday defeated the item of the Postal Appropriation Bill making $4,000 the largest salary of any Postmaster.

Mr. Hewitt introduced in the House on Monday, and had read, the bill recommended by the New York Chamber of Commerce to suspend the coinage of silver dollars for two years, and to forbid the issue of one and two-dollar notes.

The Senate passed the Fitz-John Porter Bill on Thursday by a vote of thirty-six to twenty-five; Messrs. Hoar, Jones, Pike, Sabin, and Sewell of the Republicans voting yea. As it omits the clause giving Porter "all the rights, titles, and privileges" held by him when dismissed, and more specifically cutting off any back pay, it will have to go back to the House for concurrence.

The Senate on Monday passed a resolution appropriating $50,000 for the stamping out of the foot-and-mouth disease among cattle. On Tuesday Senator Hawley introduced a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to offer a reward of $25,000 for rescuing or ascertaining the fate of the Greely Arctic Expedition.

The bill to aid in the establishment and temporary support of common schools was taken up in the Senate on Tuesday. It appropriates for the first year $15,000,000; the second, $14,000,000; the third, $13,000,000; and so on for ten years, decreasing $1,000,000 yearly, to be expended for common-school education, the distribution to each State being made on the basis of illiteracy; the money to be paid by the United States in the first instance to the Treasurers of the respective States, or such other agents as the States may designate, and the Secretary of the Interior to have charge of the portion going to the Territories. Senator Blair, of New Hampshire, made a speech in its favor.

Henry Watterson appeared before the Joint Committee on the Library on Friday, and made an argument in support of the Newspaper Copyright Bill. He explained that the present bill granting a copyright for eight hours was all that was sought by the promoters of the measure. Its object was simply to prevent the pirating of news and concurrent publication. He said that it did not act as a bar to the reproduction by afternoon newspapers of matter which had appeared in the morning papers, and could not, in the remotest degree, affect what is known as the "country press."

The United States Supreme Court rendered a decision on Monday of much interest to Northern capitalists who had money in the hands of Southern agents at the outbreak of the rebellion. The suit was brought by Northern parties to recover of a Southern agent who had their funds. His defence was that he was compelled to pay the money to the Confederate Government under the Confiscation Act. The Supreme Court holds that the Confederacy has no legal status; that its acts are no defence; that the Southern trustee was a part of the Confederacy, and cannot plead such a defence, and, therefore, that the Northern creditor can recover.

Governor Cleveland signed on Monday the bill taking from the Aldermen of this city the power to confirm the Mayor's nominations. He filed with it a long memorandum giving his reasons for approving the measure. In this he says: "It will hardly do to say that, because the Aldermen are elected annually and the Mayor every two years, the former are nearer the people and more especially their representatives. The difference in their terms is not sufficient to make a distinction in their direct relations to the citizens. The intelligence and watchfulness of the citizens of New York should certainly furnish a safe guarantee that the duties and powers devolved by this legislation upon their chosen representative will be well and wisely bestowed; and, if they err or are betrayed, their remedy is close at hand."

Mr. Clinton's bill to extend the State Civil-Service Act to all cities was called for third reading in the Assembly on Thursday. After being amended on motion of General Curtis in the way of improvement, the vote was taken without debate and the bill was lost, 55 ayes to 50 nays (not a majority of the whole Assembly). Thirty six Democrats and fourteen Republicans voted against it.

Mr. Roosevelt, Chairman of the Assembly Special Committee which has investigated the various departments of the local government of New York city, presented in the Assembly on Friday the results of the Committee's investigations in a voluminous report. The details of it cannot be presented in a brief paragraph. In Mr. Roosevelt's oral summary of the report he said: "We found a large number of abuses due not to bad laws but to a violation or evasion of good ones, and these abuses we have brought to the notice of the proper prosecuting authorities of the county and State—the Corporation Counsel, District Attorney, and Attorney-General. As far as we went, we certainly found the government of the city of New York to be in a condition that was simply appalling, and that would not be allowed to exist for one moment if the majority of the voters of that city were alive to the dangers that threaten them, and were influenced by the slightest particle of public spirit."

Nine bills were reported by Mr. Roosevelt's Committee to remedy the abuses uncovered by the investigation. The general character of these was referred to last week. Mr. Roosevelt failed to obtain the necessary votes to make the bills a special order for certain days.

Assemblyman Roosevelt called on Governor Cleveland on Tuesday, and formally asked for the removal from office of Alexander V. Davidson, Sheriff of New York city. Mr. Roosevelt reviewed the evidence taken before the Committee relative to the abuses in the Sheriff's office.

The Assembly, on Monday evening, by a vote of 71 to 20, passed the bill extending the commission hours of the elevated railroads of this city so as to make them from 4 to 10 A. M. and from 3 to 9 P. M.

The annual dinner of the New York Free-Trade Club took place in this city at Delmonico's on Saturday evening, more than two hundred gentlemen being present. The event of the evening was the speech of Speaker Carlisle, whose masterful review of the evils to which protection had subjected the country was frequently interrupted by applause. The other speakers were Senator Vance, who spoke on the financial slavery of the present day; Hilary A. Herbert, David A. Wells, George H. Putnam, Professor W. G. Sumner, Capt. John Codman, Perry Belmont, and James Parker.

The sugar-planters of Louisiana held a convention in New Orleans on Wednesday, and passed resolutions declaring that "the time has come when the sugar-planters and manufacturers and rice-growers of Louisiana should demand that cane-sugar and rice be included among the products of American industry which are entitled to adequate and permanent protection."

The Meigs Elevated Railroad Bill has passed the Massachusetts Legislature. It nominally permits the construction, under certain restrictions, of elevated railroads under the Meigs system through any of the towns or cities of the Commonwealth, subject to the approval of Selectmen or Aldermen.

It is reported that a number of Fenian Leagues have been formed in Dakota to aid in furthering the secession movement in Manitoba.

The great levee on the Mississippi at Morganza, La., broke on Friday night, damaging property valued at several million dollars.

A terrible explosion, supposed to have been caused by fire damp, occurred at the coal mines near Pocahontas, Va., on Thursday morning, about 12:30 o'clock. One hundred and fifty miners, Hungarians and negroes, were in the mine at the time, and all were killed. The work of destruction was not confined entirely to the interior of the mines, but houses two or three hundred feet removed from the mines were overturned, and in several instances entirely demolished. The large ventilator of the Southwest Improvement Company was blown to atoms.

Hamilton College seniors have returned to their work, on the Faculty's terms.

Prentice Tiller, the Pacific Express Company's money clerk at St. Louis, who decamped with nearly $100,000 a few weeks ago, was arrested on Thursday in Milwaukee, and $90,000 of the stolen money recovered.

FOREIGN.

Prince Bismarck appeared in the German Reichstag on Thursday and made a speech in justification of the course he had pursued in refusing to transmit the Lasker resolution to the Reichstag. He said that he had recognized the good intentions of the American Congress, but he was unable to harness himself to the

car of the Opposition. He would have refrained from alluding to the matter except for the manner in which the Reichstag had discussed it. He continued: "Herr Lasker belonged to an Opposition group who made immense capital out of Herr Lasker's merits." At this point the Left interrupted with loud cries of "Shame." He turned indignantly toward the quarter from which the cries came, and, advancing toward the Left, shouted: "The cry of 'shame' is an insult to me, and demands for me the protection of the President." He said that Herr Lasker introduced himself in America as the champion of German freedom against the despotic tendencies of the Chancellor. "Am I to make myself my enemy's postman?" asked Bismarck. "Even on the assumption that Americans are not intimately acquainted with our circumstances, the American Minister at Berlin, or some other official who possessed sufficient knowledge, might have sent a confidential warning against conferring on me the part of postman. This was not done. Therefore, I instructed Herr Eisendecher, the German Minister at Washington, that I could not possibly forward the resolution." Dr. Haenel, Progressist, replied that the friendly sentiments of the resolution should have been recognized without too carefully weighing the words in which they were expressed. The appearance of Prince Bismarck in the Reichstag is generally attributed to his desire to maintain friendship with America.

Mr. Sargent, the United States Minister to Germany, has accepted from Prince Bismarck an invitation to a dinner to be given on March 22, in honor of the eighty-seventh anniversary of the birthday of Emperor William.

It was rumored in London on Sunday that the British Government, desiring to test the opinion of the country in regard to the Egyptian policy, and fearing that obstruction in the present Parliament would thwart the Franchise Bill, had decided to dissolve Parliament, and had informed the Queen of this decision through Mr. Chamberlain, who dined at Windsor Castle on Saturday evening. The London *Daily News* on Monday predicted an early resignation of the Cabinet, and asserted that the existence of the Government and of Parliament was precarious and in hourly jeopardy.

Mr. Gladstone was suffering from laryngeal catarrh on Sunday and Monday, and was unable to take an active part in the crisis. On Tuesday morning he was better, but absolute rest was enjoined. In the evening he was worse, and it is probable he will go to the South of France for a rest.

General Graham's British forces defeated the rebels under Osman Digna, in a hard-fought battle near Suakim on Thursday. The rebels opened fire about one o'clock in the morning. It was bright moonlight. The British troops were ordered to lie down. All night the Arabs kept up a fusillade which was annoying. They directed their fire especially toward the hospital wagons. At six o'clock, sunrise, a Gardiner gun and a nine-pounder were turned against the rebels, who were within 1,300 yards of the British position and afforded a most excellent target. The Arabs were soon compelled to retire to their main position near the Tamia Wells. The British forces advanced in two brigades, which were thrown into the form of squares. A series of encounters followed. Soon after leaving Sariba, the great body of the rebels charged the leading squares, spearing many of the British. The sailors, who were inside the square, immediately closed up, and the rebels were repulsed with great slaughter. The advance was then resumed, when immense hordes rushed upon the British from both sides. The Arabs fought with great pluck and bravado, and were nearly all killed. The second brigade met with obstinate resistance and was at one time repulsed. The rebels, under cover of the smoke, crept close up to the British lines and dashed against the marines and the Sixty-fifth and Black Watch Regiments, throwing themselves upon the bayonets of the British. The Sixty-fifth began to retreat, crowding upon the marines, when all became inextricably mixed. The guns fell into the hands of the rebels. General Graham and his staff did their utmost to rally the men, retreating 800 yards to enable them to reform. Assistance from the other brigade prevented a serious disaster. The enemy fought more stubbornly than at Teb. Ninety-one British were killed and 103 wounded. The rebel loss is estimated at 2,000 killed and several thousand wounded. About 12,000 took part in the fight. The camp of the rebels was in General Graham's hands before noon, and a victory was assured. The Hussars made a forward movement and cut off the rebels' retreat to Sinkat. The Arabs retired before the English slowly and sullenly. They were defeated, but not put to rout.

A panic occurred on Friday night among the Egyptian troops under Baker Pasha, who were still in camp at Sariba. They got the notion that the rebels were approaching, became frightened, and took to their heels. Before the panic was allayed two men that were taken for rebels were killed. The troops returning to Suakim on Saturday cheered greatly the personal heroism of Adams Fraser, the largest man of the Black Watch Regiment. Twelve Arabs were despatched by his single bayonet.

General Graham was ordered on Monday not to push his reconnoissance far beyond Handuk. It is not true, as has been reported, that Turkish troops are going to Suakim, or that the British Government has decided to send an expedition to Sinkat and Berber.

Osman Digna, with 2,000 followers, was reported on Tuesday in the neighborhood of his old camp. He adopts the same tone in his intercourse with his people as before the last disaster, and is exhorting them to a religious war. He assures them that in the third battle success will be theirs. But the tribes are much demoralized as they reflect upon the full significance of their crushing defeat.

A conference held in Suakim on Sunday between Admiral Hewett, General Graham, and the chief inhabitants of Suakim, resulted in the issue of a proclamation offering a reward of £1,000 for the capture of Osman Digna. The Admiral explained on Tuesday that he considered Osman Digna a murderer because he had killed two of his messengers. Therefore he had offered the reward for his head. The British Government ordered him to withdraw it in the most judicious manner possible

The Haggis tribe have given their adherence to General Gordon, thus stemming the advance of the Sheikh El Obeid to the Nile. General Gordon has built a strong fortified camp on the opposite side of the Blue Nile, and has stationed a strong force there to prevent the advance of El Obeid.

There were indications on Saturday of increasing activity on the part of the rebels near the Nile. Beyond Berber, telegraphic communication was cut off, and a steamer descending the Nile from that city was fired upon by the insurgents.

Much anxiety is felt in regard to the situation at Khartum. The correspondent of the London *Times* at Alexandria says: "It is proverbial that three courses are possible: to leave General Gordon to his fate; to despatch English troops to Khartum; or to import Indian troops. The policy of doing nothing has not hitherto achieved signal success."

The police of Newcastle-on-Tyne have received information of a plot to explode the principal buildings of the city, including the Central Railway station and the Post-office.

The Irish justices, in opening the Assizes, agree that there has been a gratifying diminution of crime in Ireland.

Henry George has abandoned his lecturing tour in Great Britain on account of ill health, and has gone to the Continent to recuperate.

Richard Hengist Horne, the English poet, essayist, and critic, is dead. Mr. Horne was born early in the present century. He was educated for the army at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, but entered the Mexican navy as midshipman. He served until the close of the war between Mexico and Spain. After that he came to the United States, where he visited the Huron, Oneida, Mohawk, and other Indian tribes. On returning to England he devoted himself to a literary life, producing several tragedies and the epic 'Orion,' which has reached ten editions. He has been a constant contributor to periodical literature.

M. Waddington, French Ambassador at London, telegraphed on Saturday to Prime Minister Ferry that the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, had asked Earl Granville, the English Foreign Secretary, to mediate between China and France.

On Sunday it was announced in Paris that the French advance from Bacninh had begun. Gen. Delisle marched upon Thainguyen, and Gen. Négrier upon Langson. The French Government instructed Gen. Millot not to carry operations beyond Thainguyen and Langson. Prime Minister Ferry has reopened direct negotiations with Marquis Tseng for a treaty with China, France to retain Bacninh.

General Négrier's column entered the city at 6 o'clock on Wednesday evening. The French had seventy wounded, and the Chinese loss was heavy. General Négrier encountered the enemy at Xairoy. A severe battle ensued. The enemy were at last forced to retreat, and the French forces pursued them into Bacninh by the Langson road. The enemy evacuated the town in great disorder, and the French continued to pursue them in the direction of Thainguyen.

Advices from Bacninh on Monday reported that the French forces, while pursuing the Chinese near Phulanggian, crossed the river and captured the Phulang fort.

It was reported in Paris on Tuesday that Li Hung Chang, Viceroy of China, was submitting a basis of peace to the English and American Ministers at Pekin and asking them to intervene.

Haiphong despatches report that pirates had captured a small merchant steamer near that town, and had murdered the French captain and eleven of the crew.

Prime Minister Ferry, of France, has been interviewed on the question of a general disarmament by the European Powers. He pronounces it an impossibility, and says the discussion of it is a waste of time.

A manifesto from Prince Napoleon (Plon-Plon) is regarded in Paris as imminent. He has left Paris for Switzerland to avoid arrest, taking with him his papers and valuables.

General Velarde, a cavalry ensign, three sergeants, and two civilians were arrested a General Velarde's house in Madrid on Saturday. A number of other arrests were made. The Spanish Government has been aware for some time that there was a conspiracy for a military uprising similar to that which took place last August; and hence the arrests. Part of the conspiracy was to seize the palace some time when the ministers were assembled and King Alfonso was presiding. Zorilla is believed to have had a hand in the affair.

Signor Quintino Sella, the Italian mathematician and financier, is dead. He was at one time Secretary of the Italian Treasury. His works on mineralogy and mathematics are standards in Italy.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies has accepted the resignation of its President, Farini. The election of his successor on the 20th will probably be made a Cabinet question.

A NEW VIEW OF THE CONSTITUTION.

JUDGE FIELD'S dissenting opinion in the legal-tender case declares that the Court has adopted a rule of construction which, if followed in other cases, would change the whole nature of the Government. A brief examination of the opinion of Judge Gray on the other side is sufficient to show exactly what this means. The Constitution gives Congress the power to "borrow money on the credit of the United States," and "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers." Now, says Judge Gray, the settled rule of construction is that the words "necessary and proper" include "all appropriate means which are conducive or adapted to the end to be accomplished, and which in the judgment of Congress will most advantageously effect it." The Judges maintain that among the means adapted to the end of borrowing money in the case of a Government is that of making its notes a legal tender for the payment of private debts; that Congress has decided this to be the case, and consequently it has the power. At first sight this argument seems to involve the right of making a legal-tender currency wherever the right to borrow money exists. Every man in the United States has the right to "borrow money" if he can get any one to lend it to him, but he cannot therefore make his notes and I. O. U.s legal tender. Why not? What is the difference between the two cases? The Court bridges over the difficulty by saying that a government's power to borrow money is different from that of an individual's, and that a "sovereign" has always had the power to make its notes current from hand to hand in this way.

The Court really need not have taken the trouble to invent this curious species of argument; for the Judges had before them a clause of the Constitution which would have required no such stretching to make it meet the case. Among the enumerated powers given to Congress is the following: "The Congress shall have power to levy and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States." Now, the Court says, this clause "either embodies a grant of power to pay the debts of the United States, or presupposes and assumes that power as inherent in the United States as a sovereign government." In the same way the clause obviously either embodies a grant of power to "provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States," or presupposes and assumes that power as inherent in the United States as a sovereign Government. Not only may Congress provide for the general welfare, but it may pass all laws which are conducive or adapted to the end to be accomplished, and which in the judgment of Congress will most advantageously effect it.

This is not the argument of a narrow-minded Democratic lawyer, nor our own. It is that of the Supreme Court of the United States, and it gives a good deal of point to the following suggestion of Judge Field:

"The argument presented by the advocates of legal tender is, in substance, this: The object of borrowing is to raise funds, the addition of the quality of legal tender to the notes of the Government will induce parties to take them, and funds will thereby be more readily loaned. But the same thing may be said of the addition of any other quality which would give to the holder of the notes some advantage over the property of others, as, for instance, that the notes should serve as a pass on the public conveyances of the country, or as a ticket to places of amusement, or should exempt his property from State and municipal taxation, or entitle him to the free use of the telegraph lines, or to a percentage from the revenues of private corporations. The same consequence, a ready acceptance of the notes, would follow, and yet no one would pretend that the addition of privileges of this kind, with respect to the property of others over which the borrower has no control, would be in any sense an appropriate measure to the execution of the power to borrow."

"The power to provide for the general welfare" is quite enough. Under this and the power to pass necessary and appropriate laws, surely Congress may do whatever is needful with the currency or with commerce; and why it should be thought necessary to resort to an elaborate argument founded on the power to borrow money, we do not see.

The rule of construction adopted by the Court enables Congress to do what it pleases; makes it the judge of what is appropriate to the exercise of the implied powers of the Constitution, and makes the only limit of these the general doctrine of "sovereignty," which is either one of arbitrary power, or at the best the authority enjoyed by the English Parliament. When we talk of our Government being one of limited powers, we mean powers limited by the Constitution and defined by the courts. If the limits are to be imposed and the definitions framed by Congress, the use of the Supreme Court for keeping one branch of the Government from encroaching upon another or upon private rights is pretty nearly gone. Practically, there seems no way of avoiding this consequence of the legal-tender decision except through a new amendment, and we have got to pass such an amendment, or else adopt a view of the Constitution and Government wholly different from any hitherto held either by strict or free constructionists.

CATCHING THE DYNAMITERS.

WE have more than once, in answer to the demands of the English press on the United States Government in the matter of preventing the hatching of dynamitic plots in this country, called attention to the fact that in the English Custom-house and Coast-guard service there exists the most effective agency that could be devised—far more effective than anything we could possibly create—for preventing the introduction of explosives into England from abroad. Indeed, if the English Custom-house cannot stop the infernal machines, it is folly to ask any foreign police to do it. The other day, however, a valise containing a large quantity of dynamite was found at the Paddington Railroad station in London. Here is the description of it, taken from the London *Times*, which assumes it to be of American origin:

"The portmanteau, which had been deposited on Monday night, was well made of brown leather, and studded with brass knobs on the bottom and sides, to prevent the leather from coming into contact with the ground. It was eighteen inches long, eight inches deep, and about four inches across. It was fastened in the centre with a lock, having a flap to prevent wet from entering, and it had buckles and straps on each side and on the top. On being opened it was found to contain forty-six cakes of the 'Atlas Powder,' some in a cash box, and others packed around it. In this case, however, the label 'Atlas Powder' had been torn off nearly all the packets. The arrangement of the clock and the pistol here was exactly as in the Charing Cross bag. The clockwork had been set; but the workmanship or material of the spring had proved to be inferior, and the alarum had run down—the bell, of course, being off—without 'pulling off' the trigger of the pistol."

A very disagreeable article certainly, and too large to be concealed. The *Times* is apparently unconscious, however, of the bearing of the following remarks on its outcry against the American Government:

"There is one point in these discoveries which has caused astonishment, even in official circles, and that is how large quantities of this dangerous explosive could have passed through the Custom-house of this country. Travellers from the Continent know that their luggage is often rigorously searched on their arrival. But here it is plain that at least 90 lb. of an explosive compound of the most dangerous character has been allowed to slip through the fingers of the Custom-house officers, and this, too, from what may be called the land of tobacco."

Now, we cannot here set up machinery for searching the baggage of everybody who leaves the United States. But in England the baggage of everybody who enters the country is already searchable, and there are officers whose business it is to search it. They have long been full of suspicion about American travellers, and yet here is a bulky infernal machine passing from "the land of tobacco" through their very hands or under their very noses.

There could hardly be a better exposure than this one little incident furnishes of the rant of the following, which we find in an editorial article in the same paper on the same day:

"We know, and the Americans know, the busy brains which have plotted these outrages, the defiant tongues which have threatened them, and the nationality of their actual perpetrators. It would be no hard task for the American Government to put an end to the whole thing. We have done our part. We have frustrated the attempt which has been again and again made to carry through the conspiracy in this country. We have made the private manufacture of explosives penal, and their possession a thing for which the owner can be called to account. The result has been that the conspirators have changed their ground, and that they have found in America a safe refuge, and a Government which does not meddle with them. This is a state of things to which it is not possible that we should submit. It would be bad enough if America were a hostile country. A dynamite war does not come within the limit of permissible hostilities. Its agents are common enemies, whose presence no civilized community can tolerate without disgrace. The miscreants to whose hand we owe the late threefold attack on life and property have done only what American journals have been suffered to advocate, what rewards have been openly promised for, and what public meetings have been held to for-

ward or to applaud. It is time indeed that a strongly-worded remonstrance should be addressed to the Government of a country which connives at all this. We know that respectable Americans feel as we do in this matter, and that they are ashamed of the inaction of their rulers."

The assurance of the assertion that it would be "no hard task for the American Government to put an end to the whole thing," and that "we [England] have done our part," and that the American Government "connives" at the dynamite attacks on life and property, is, under the circumstances, simply amazing. What are we to say to a Government which allows such things as portmanteaux containing ninety pounds of dynamite and arranged with clockwork for explosion, to pass through its Custom-houses and be deposited in its leading railroad stations, and occasionally exploded, with great loss of life and damage to property, in the teeth of numerous warnings, from the very manufacturers of these instruments, uttered openly through the public press? If the English police and Custom-house can do no better than this now, how would it be if we silenced O'Donovan Rossa and the *Irish World*?

The Attorney-General's circular on the subject of dynamite shipments ought to convince the English Government that the Administration is ready to do anything in reason to put a stop to dynamite outrages. It appears to have been drawn up in consequence of representations or requests made from England. The cases in which one country will undertake to make special efforts to enforce its laws, and charge itself with a responsibility for their enforcement, on account of indirect danger arising from their breach to life and property abroad, must in the nature of things be very rare; but the Attorney-General, according to his own account, is going further than this, for he calls upon the District-Attorneys and Marshals to enforce the laws against shipment of explosives, upon a "report" that certain persons unnamed are "aiding in the prosecution of heinous crimes, by shipping to foreign ports explosives dangerous in the highest degree to life and property," and although "no proof has been adduced that this rumor has been founded upon fact."

The laws against the shipment of explosives were passed in 1866, long before the present dynamite war was dreamt of, and were designed for a very different purpose from that of preventing dynamite outrages, viz., the safety of travellers by land and water, and the protection of steamship and railroad companies. They made it illegal (U. S. R. S. sections 4278, 4279, 5353, 5354, 5355), first, to transport by land or water anything like dynamite on any *passenger* vessel or vehicle, between the States, or between places in the United States and any foreign country; second, to transport it by any means of conveyance unless it is packed in a metallic vessel, surrounded by some substance which will be non-explosive if "saturated" with the contents, and conspicuously marked "Nitro-glycerine, dangerous." Violations of these regulations are punishable by fine; and a death caused by violation of the act is made manslaughter, punishable with imprisonment for not less than two years.

These laws were not passed to prevent dynamite outrages, and it is difficult to see how the closest attention to their enforcement would prevent such outrages. The dynamite which is used for this purpose is not usually shipped from the place of manufacture to Liverpool by bill of lading, and there called for by the consignee. It is generally, and might, of course, always be made or purchased in secret, and carried about by hand, and caused to explode by means of machinery procured from a perfectly innocent clock vender. The statutes do not authorize the search of persons for dynamite going on board ocean steamships, the idea that the fancy would come upon people to carry dynamite about in satchels not having occurred to Congress in 1866. If the law of 1866 had really been intended to break up dynamite conspiracies, it would have authorized the searching of all travellers and the seizure of all explosives found upon them. Of course such a law is out of the question in a free country like England or America, and would probably fail even in Russia.

The importance of the circular lies almost altogether in the evidence it gives of our sincere desire to put into execution all the power of the law against the dynamiters. It is an act of good-will that we could hardly have volunteered; indeed, had we done so, it would probably have laid us open to a charge of insincerity for undertaking to prevent dynamite outrages by means of laws which were designed for a different purpose, and very poorly adapted to any such end. But if England herself asks us to enforce such laws as a means of stopping the dynamiters, no harm can certainly come of it, and possibly some good. It is an act of extreme international good-will; first, because we have no proof that life and property in England are in any way endangered by a non-enforcement of these laws, nor even that these laws are not enforced; second, because they were passed for an entirely different object, not growing out of any international duty whatever. No country recognizes the right of another to demand that it should make special efforts to enforce its laws, without first proving that it has a strong interest in their enforcement, and, second, that they are not enforced. In this dynamite business it is well for us to proceed very cautiously, for everything that we do will be cited hereafter as a precedent, and there is no field of international activity in which it is more important to be cautious than that of recognizing the right of foreign governments to inquire into the enforcement of our domestic laws. As other requests may very likely follow, it is important to bear in mind that the right of England to *require* us to enforce our laws must, when it exists at all, grow out of some generally recognized international duty.

CLASSICAL SCULPTURE IN THE MUSEUMS OF EUROPE.

THE different museums of sculpture present no uniform practice with regard to repairs of their works of art. Even if their present managers should be practically of one mind as to this question, they are the inheritors of a long series of administrators most diversely minded. The more important of the recent acquisitions of Europe in the way of classic sculpture are put on exhibition without any restoration or piecing out whatever; as, for instance, the astounding Pergamon reliefs at Berlin, where not even shattered faces are in any way repaired; or as in Rome, where the newly found marbles housed in the Conservator's Palace on the Capitol are left armless or headless if found so; or as in Athens, where new discoveries are not uncommon, and where no repairs are made. This is the modern practice—not that it is of very recent origin, for it dates back three-score years and ten; but unfortunately, it has only of late become general. The "Elgin marbles" have been let alone: no one has ever pieced out the "Theseus" with hands and feet, or tried to fit a head on the "Ilissus"; and yet they have been on exhibition in the British Museum for two generations of men. The Venus of Milo, although her pose is not unquestioned—both the placing of the base upon the pedestal, and the adjustment of the upper block forming the body to the lower one, being matters of dispute—has never been disguised by modern arms; and this statue has been in the Louvre for more than a half-century. Even in the Vatican, not the place to look for such wise restraint, the splendid draped statue in the long gallery (Museo Chiaramonti), generally known as a Niobide, remains headless and armless, although it was for nobody knows how long in private hands, and then in the Quirinal Garden. The Torso of the Belvedere and the so-called "Genius" in the Gallery of Statues will occur to every one who knows the Museum as being unrestored, although the one for three centuries and the other for a century have belonged to the Papal Museum. On the other hand, the practice in the Munich Glyptothek has always been complete restoration: arms, heads, helmets, feet, hands, and weapons are supplied to all comers to this museum, although it dates from within this nineteenth century, and the Ægina sculptures were not renovated until after Lord Elgin's plunder had been brought to England and purchased by the nation. With less thoroughness, this has been done almost everywhere. A very brief inspection of the Louvre is enough to decide for us what the fashion is there. With few exceptions, as above noted, the Vatican sculptures are always made complete, besides being cleaned in a way to make one uneasy and suspicious; for the traditions of that great Museum are neatness and elegance, with not too great observance of archæological purity.

If all the famous ancient statues of Europe should be, by common consent of their curators, stripped this winter of their non-original parts, next summer's flight of tourists would be stupefied at the appearance of some of their pet admirations. The Laocoon would be found without the father's right arm, which is thrusting away from him a great fold of the serpent, as if it were the bight of a hawser, and with no more life in it than such a hempen loop as that; and the two sons would lack, the one his right arm, the other his right hand and wrist. The Discobolus in the Vatican would have no head; and the modern athlete, accustomed to fix his eye on the mark when he aims his quoit or ten-pin ball, would certainly not be the man to restore the statue with a head placed like the duplicate statue in the British Museum; nor yet to follow the other duplicate in the Palazzo Massimi, with head screwed around to look after the discus; nor yet to retain the present head, with eyes turned on the ground near the feet of the quoit-thrower. The Biga, or two-horse chariot, in the same hall, would have neither horses nor wheels, and might almost be taken for that which it was made to serve for once—an arm-chair. The Medici Venus would

retain the stump of one arm, but almost no trace of the other; and assuredly the Tribune would seem less attractive to some travellers when its chief attraction to the Murray-guided tourist should be so changed from what Lord Byron saw and worshipped. Many hundred "Amazons," and "Cereses," and "Nymphs"; many hundred "Mercuries" and "Boxers" in all the great cities of Europe, would be divested of their distinguishing attributes, and would be reduced to their essential nature of good or excellent classic sculpture, not easy to give proper names to, but none the worse for that. Many hundred heads, arms, legs would be detached and left on hand, of which a very few, known to be ancient, though not hitherto in their right places on the bodies originally belonging to them, would still find places in the galleries; while the rest might be given to drawing-schools for models, for most of them are fairly good in anatomy.

The future is with the archæologists; and a public opinion among those interested is developing itself, too strong for the lovers of neat and complete, though inauthentic, sculpture. For years past no restorations more extensive than feet and fingers have been undertaken, and such as they will soon become impossible. And evidently this state of things is to be worked for and hoped for. For, in very truth, no man has any right to thrust himself in between the student and his original. Let us suppose, for instance, that the "Venus of Milo" had been restored, forty years ago, as a Victory, on the model of the noble bronze statue at Brescia. There would have been something to say for that design—a certain resemblance between the statues is not the least argument in its favor. But the strong convictions of those who see in the statue a part of a group would then have been disregarded, and not justifiably; for, although when action is necessary the responsible actor must know how to disregard the reasons which make against his adopted course of action, in such a case as this no time can be set when action becomes necessary. Students were not agreed, forty years ago, as to the statue's original arms; they are not agreed now; they never will be agreed—unless the original arms should be found, rescued from that Turkish ship in which they sailed away from Melos. Now, in this case, as every one is accustomed to see the statue, or representations of it, armless, few persons will object to its being left so. Probably any attempted restoration of the original would offend even the advocates of that theory which might be followed in making it. But consider the other famous Venus, the heroine of Byron's verse, the adored of so many generations of tourists—the Medici Venus at Florence. This statue is, no doubt, a work of inferior value; the writer of this can heartily agree with that shrewd Scotch sculptor in Florence, who says that when his ideal students' collection of first-hand casts of a hundred or two hundred masterpieces shall be made, the statue in question shall not be included. But still there is merit in it. The long row of marble ladies standing in the same attitude on the stylobate at Naples are none of them so good, although it was perhaps from them, or from some of them, that Bernini took the position of the arms and hands when he added them to the Florence beauty. The Venus of the Capitol, alone among the statues which are known to be in the same attitude, is the equal, or rather the superior, of the Florence marble; and this work, unique in sculpturesque treatment, is almost alone in its perfect preservation. The Medici Venus, then, is neither the better nor the worse for all the uproar of three centuries, and is still worthy of a place where it can be properly seen, in spite of the scraping and polishing the marble has undergone. Obviously, then, the arms should be removed, and this our children will see done. A cast, or a good copy, will preserve for them the memory of their fathers' idol.

This is an instance of a fairly judicious restoration. But it is easy to name vile ones—inexcusable blunders, or, more often, reckless puttings-together; hasty attempts to avoid the supposed impropriety of leaving broken sculptures broken. Consider the valuable archaic female statue at Venice, with heavy plaited drapery, in the attitude, as if walking, so characteristic of very early Greek statues. Upon this headless statue some restorer has mounted a pert nymph's head of late style, with hair elaborately dressed in a lofty top-knot. Or, as an instance of a more important work of art spoiled in the same way, take the group at Naples, the Harmodius and Aristogeiton—fine work of an early epoch. The striking warrior has his own head, with short-curled, knotted hair; but his friend who accompanies him, ready to parry and to ward, has received the addition of a head of much later time, good in itself, but of absurd appearance where it is—not merely its treatment being out of keeping, but its very pose and the action of the muscles of the neck contradicting the movement and purpose of the man. Or, what is to be said of the Farnese Bull of the same museum, "the largest piece of ancient sculpture in Italy," of which, as the principal figures are two young men, two women, and the bull, there are of modern work the head of the bull, the whole of one woman, the upper half of the other, and more than half of the two young men?—a restoration nearly as thorough-going as the above-mentioned Biga. A colossal marble bull without a head, and some traces and indications of human figures around him, is what the Museum should show as its original work found in the Baths of Caracalla, or elsewhere. A cast of the present group (which is a Renaissance design of spirit enough), and as many alternative restorations as room may be found for, or as sculptors of merit may propose, may be set up near it for comparison.

Some persons like the Barberini Faun better than perhaps the merit of that statue would justify. At all events, they should study the figure without the modern legs, for the whole of one leg, and of the other all, except some bits of the ancient marble inserted, are of yesterday. Take away, besides these, the half of one arm, a part of the other, the nose, together with part of the lion skin and supporting rock, and we have left a fine torso with only slightly injured head, just as it was hurled from the high platform of Hadrian's mausoleum on some day of siege and storm—a more respectable work of art, by far, than Kronprinz Ludwig's purchase, patched up now for the third time, and with no more certainty than at first of being rightly restored. But of all restorations, reparations, and transmogrifications, that inflicted upon the "Cnidian Venus" of the Vatican is the most grotesque. This may be to others, as to the writer, the loveliest statue of very young, of budding womanhood in Europe. It stands in a niche on the left as one enters the "Hall of the Greek Cross" from the great stairs, and, therefore, can be looked at from one point of view only. The workmanship is Greek, the marble is Greek, the vase, over which her drapery is thrown, is Greek; and all the ancient work is just as near perfection as human handiwork, even in Greek sculpture, commonly reaches. But, from the hips down, the statue is hidden, wrapped up, "mummy-fashion," as Braun says in his guide-book, with metal-like drapery; and the right forearm and hand are restored in such fashion that the hand holds up this mass of clothing. What makes it the more inartistic is that the drapery thrown over the vase is complete in itself, so that two nearly equal masses of stuff are held up side by side. What makes it the more unlearned, the more unarchæological is, that the statue is named the Cnidian Venus, *nemine contradicente*, on account of its resemblance to the medals which preserve for us some recollection of Praxiteles's famous work, and that that figure is undraped. When Italy comes to her own, we shall see this inestimable statue set upon a revolving pedestal, like her sister in the Capitol Museum—or, at least, put up in the middle of a room as the Belvedere Torso is—and that without her stucco costume.

It should be remembered that the presence of clever and probable restorations, however acknowledged and however visible, is apt to mislead even the somewhat careful student. Writers who, like Mr. Symonds (to take a notable instance and a good one, for no such writer is more conscientious or more prudent), are accustomed to compare one art with another, or art with literature, in the search for light upon thought and upon human nature in classic times, are always in danger of reasoning from the completed statue or group, as if all parts of it were equally authentic. The ancient torso, with limbs and a nose of good modern work, accepted as a complete work of art by too many students during several generations, *has become* a complete work of art in the mind of the man who, at a distance and recalling his strong impressions, seeks to draw from them conclusions and beliefs which will be based upon not quite trustworthy material. Even professedly archæological writers are misled in that way. Our books of examples give us, as authentic ancient work, much-restored statues; and even one of the latest, Mr. Murray's 'Greek Sculpture before Phidias,' will be found to give an illustration of the Harmodius and Aristogeiton of Naples with the wrongly-adjusted head, described above, as if an original part of the statue to which it is attached. It will be said that a remedy for the mischief of restoration is found in giving an exact account of the restorations made. And this would be a good way if there were not a better—that is, the simple leaving them *not* made. Little by little the museums of Europe are coming into line, with more or less complete statements as to the mischief done. The Louvre has it in a little framed poster on each pedestal. The Capitol Museum, the Dresden Museum, and some others—alas! too few—have it clearly set forth in their catalogues. The Uffizzi catalogue has it, sometimes in the text, sometimes in a note, in such fashion that one is never sure whether to expect it when most needed. The catalogue of the Munich Glyptothek is the model one in this respect: every modern scrap is carefully indicated and described, and the judicious author has something to say by way of criticism of the more unfortunate instances of mistaken addition. But half the museums are without catalogues at present, leaving the student to imagine what fine ones his successors will have to guide them when their turn comes.

The Dresden Museum of Antiques in the Japanese Palace is not too admirable in the condition of its works of art; the German guide-books even agree as to the *ergänzt* condition of most of its sculptures. But its perhaps most valuable, certainly most curious possession, the archaic Athene, with the heavily embroidered border hanging down the front of her *peplos*, is unaltered. Two pedestals stand out in the room, well toward the windows; the one supports the original, a sadly-broken and defective statue, though what remains is in good condition,

neither defaced nor much discolored; the other holds up, for comparison with it, a restoration by Rauch—his conception of what the original must have been. This is what all must come to. No great museum can afford to go on much longer with its sham antiques, built up with a classical nucleus and a bewildering crowd of modern additions to confuse the student. The restored models will be based upon accurate casts of the original; as many different ones will be set up as seem worthy of consideration. Some museums will have them side by side with the original, for better comparison; others, with a sense of the higher dignity of the original, will relegate the studies of restoration to separate halls. And the catalogues will contain each modern sculptor's arguments for his own theory of what the original was when complete. But the marble itself shall have added to it neither nose nor finger, nor lip of vase, nor fold of drapery. If a limb is found broken off, and the edges fit perfectly, it may be attached, the catalogue calling attention to the repair. If a piece of a limb be found not capable of direct fitting into place, like the forearm and hand where the upper arm is lost, a metal bar may connect the member with the trunk at about its proper place. Where feet or legs (of a standing statue) are lost, the figure may be held at its proper height above the pedestal upon metal bars, or the pedestal may be shaped out, or may support a pilaster or block, to do the same office. But no completing of the statue or of any part of it will be allowed, whether in marble, or in plaster, wood, or papier-maché. R. Sturgis.

THE LASKER SENSATION.

Berlin, February 28.

The so called American "incident," viz., the return of the resolution of your House of Representatives, passed in honor of the late Mr. Lasker, by Prince Bismarck, has created general sensation all over Germany. On the whole, it is rather severely criticised by the independent press and political circles, which reject it as an unnecessary measure. The official papers, on the contrary, and the blind believers in the Chancellor, have done and are still doing everything in their power to obscure the real state of affairs, and, by raising side issues, to save at least appearances.

So far as the merits of the case are concerned, I agree with those who blame the Chancellor for having acted in so spiteful a way. What are the facts? The popular branch of the legislative body of a friendly nation, by an act of courtesy, send words of condolence to the family of a prominent political man, and to the parliamentary body in which he had won his distinction. They order it forwarded in the only possible way which diplomatic etiquette provides, and turn it over to the Secretary of State with the request to have it communicated "through the legitimate channels" to the presiding officer of the Reichstag. Mr. Frelinghuysen thereupon instructed the Berlin Minister to act accordingly. The latter had to deliver it through our Foreign Office, as he is excluded from direct intercourse with the other departments of the Empire. Thus Mr. Sargent was correct in every respect, and I am sure Bismarck would have accused the American Minister of a breach of etiquette if he had written directly to the President of the Reichstag. The Chancellor then goes on to say that he must solicit the authorization of the Emperor to communicate the resolution of the House to the President of the Reichstag. This is the first time that we hear of the existence of such a rule. When, a year ago, German-American citizens sent from the United States large sums of money to our Foreign Office, in aid of the sufferers by the inundations of the Rhine and Moselle, Bismarck did not hesitate for a moment to transmit them immediately to the Reichstag. I even presume he would also have delivered the resolution directly if the House had declared that in the death of Lasker they deplored the loss of one of the most faithful supporters of the Chancellor's policy; but it offended him that the deceased parliamentarian was praised for "his firm and constant exposition of and devotion to free and liberal ideas, which had materially advanced the social, political, and economic condition of our people." This opinion the Chancellor flatly contradicts, as not congruent with the development of the German people. He would, perhaps, not have done so if he had taken the trouble more fully to appreciate the meaning of the English words *free* and *liberal*, which signify more than party spirit is able to understand. History will judge more justly; but, however that may be, this difference of interpretation and feeling does not entitle the gentleman at the head of foreign affairs to withhold and return a document which was intrusted to him as the first public officer.

It is true, the wording of Bismarck's instructions to Mr. von Eisendecher is in its tone polite and friendly, but in its spirit it is small, pettifogging, and wholly unworthy of so prominent a statesman as the Chancellor. It is a melancholy fact that he gave vent to his personal feelings; but the opportunity of killing three birds with one stone was too tempting for him. His first victim was Mr. Sargent, your Berlin Minister. Bismarck dislikes him for his despatch in relation to the prohibition of imports of American pork. Since that time the former is no longer received at the Foreign Office, and has to carry on his diplomatic business in writing. The subordinates of that department, perceiving from what direction the wind blows, turn Mr. Sargent the cold shoulder, and his brother diplomatists, in order to please the Chancellor, also treat him coldly. Add to this the Minister's ignorance of all modern languages, except his mother tongue, and you will understand that he finds himself in a very unpleasant and isolated position. The purport of these annoyances is, of course, to worry him out of his place. Whether your Minister will resign, as it is hoped and expected, I, of course, do not know. Well-meaning papers, like the Cologne *Gazette*, advise him to apply to his Government for his recall and for another correspondingly high position; but they overlook the fact that your civil service is based on altogether different principles.

The second stroke was aimed at the late Mr. Lasker. The Chancellor is a sound hater, and he has proved himself so to none more than to this influential parliamentarian. Lasker's "doctrinairism"; his logical deduction, dictated more by legal than by political considerations; his cold reserve and stiff manners, never softened by hearty laughter or wit and humor, were always irritating if not offensive to the impetuous and aggressive character of Bismarck. It was antagonism between the jurist and the statesman. Up to 1879, when the latter returned to his old political friends and convictions, there existed a sort of political intercourse and even exchange of civilities between them. Lasker supported the Chancellor in all his great measures, but he reserved to himself the right of weighing them by his own standard, and of criticising them mercilessly. From 1866, however, to 1878, Bismarck had to submit to Lasker's often insupportable patronage, in order to keep him on his side, but he groaned impatiently under this restraint. I very well remember the time when the parliamentarian was flattered by the Chancellor, when the latter ostentatiously courted him at his receptions and provoked the envy of courtiers and diplomatists, who could not understand why Bismarck paid so much attention to the "little Jew" who had from 150 to 180 men behind him. On one occasion the Chancellor said to Lasker that he anticipated his becoming his colleague, whereupon the latter archly replied: "Does your Highness intend to become a lawyer?" This was, of course, in 1873 or 1874. After 1879 the contrast between the two men was aggravated by the political diversion of the Chancellor. He now made Lasker and his political friends responsible for all the shortcomings and failures of his plans. "The worst crises," he once said, "have always been caused by Lasker. If it had not been for him, I should never have thought of resigning. It was he who, reasoning and acting from a lawyer-like standpoint, destroyed some of my best plans, who paved the way for several triumphs of the Ultramontane party, and who even tried to prescribe to me how Alsace-Lorraine ought to be governed."

Thirdly, and not least, it is the Reichstag against which the return of the resolution of the House is directed. Whatever Bismarck can do to break its great moral and small political influence he does. He seizes each and every opportunity of discrediting it. His press organs are directed methodically to degrade it in public opinion. On the other hand, he cannot govern without it, and above all things he is not powerful enough to abolish universal suffrage, which he introduced himself. So he must content himself with smaller political adventures, as, for instance, the attempt to combine universal suffrage with open voting. In the meantime the Conservative press is ordered to speak of the Reichstag in a depreciating tone, and to represent its Liberal members as a lot of tricksters, who, led merely by party considerations, prevent the Chancellor from carrying out his large schemes, and from benefiting the people as fully as he wishes.

These Liberal members intend to move for a resolution of thanks to the Washington House of Representatives when the Reichstag convenes on March 6. Whether a motion of this or a similar character can be carried is rather doubtful, as the vote of the Centre will be dictated by the general state of public affairs. If they can reasonably expect to make political capital out of this vote, they of course will reject the motion and stand on the side of Bismarck; but, even taking it for granted that the Liberals will be defeated, they regard it as their duty not to keep silent, and eventually to refer the question to the Committee on Rules and Regulations for ultimate settlement.

It requires some self-restraint to mention in a few closing words the tone and comments of the official press. All the hounds of the Reptile Fund have been let loose to manifest their meanness coupled with ignorance. The *Deutsches Tageblatt*, the organ of our princely and baronial agrarians, vies with Bismarck's official paper, the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, in blackguardism and false representations or frivolous attacks. The former says that Mr. Sargent is a corrupt speculator and railroad swindler, laden with the curses of numberless victims. The other accuses your House of Representatives of having turned Lasker's death to account for party purposes. The followers of the same class of writers attack the resolution as an interference with German home matters; others again pretend, in high-sounding terms, that the whole is an American electioneering trick. Such is the ignorance of these penny-a-liners that they believe that the Republicans of the House resorted to their compliments to Lasker, in order to maintain their power at the next Presi-

dential election. They do not know that the Democrats already hold the majority in the present House, and that they will, of course, not vote or work against themselves, while the Republicans are still in the possession of all the other branches of the Government.

The most ridiculous part of the whole story is, that these identical papers, in order to give their knowingly false statements a still more sensational character, not only say that Mr. Sargent went for information to the Free Trade, Liberal, and Radical parties, but also insolently intimate that the whole resolution of your House was made here by members of the Reichstag who write and speak English, and sent to Washington, with directions to have it adopted at once and sent back to the Chancellor. Now, the death of Mr. Lasker became known here on January 6, and the resolution was passed on January 9; but such minor details are of no account to these newsmongers. The less likely their slanders are, the better they are paid for them.

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THE YOUTH OF MICHELET.

PARIS, February 23.

MME. MICHELET has collected with the greatest care all the papers of her illustrious husband. She informs us, in the preface of a book entitled 'My Youth,' that this work was made from notes left by him with a view to the publication of memoirs of his life. Michelet made a first attempt of this sort in 1820. He had a dear friend, Paul Poinsot, and began his autobiography chiefly for him. Poinsot died in 1821, and Michelet thought of other things. "Time advances," he wrote in 1864; "I shall probably never compose my memoirs, but I will leave all the elements of it in my notes, in my journals, which I have written with regularity since 1838; in the programmes of my books, in my inedited lectures at the Collège de France, where I so often brought before my public a heart bleeding with the wounds of my country and with its own wounds." Michelet was a solitary man; he did not live in the world, and he wrote much, he said, "pro remedio animæ meæ."

What, exactly, is Mme. Michelet's part in this volume, which is the biography of Michelet during his youth? It would be difficult to say. Mme. Michelet thinks it necessary to give some details about herself. She was born at Montauban; her grandfather was born in Auvergne; her mother was a creole of Louisiana. She was married to Michelet at the beginning of the Second Empire. She found herself at once very poor, as Michelet refused to take the oath to the new régime, and lost all his places at the Collège de France and at the Archives. His books, which had been used in the colleges of the French University, were struck off the list. He had no fortune, and he left Paris with his young wife. They lived in the country, and Mme. Michelet became the only pupil of the eloquent professor. She was devoted to him, and she charmed his exile from Paris. One day, she reports, he said to her: "My mind will owe to you its greatest joy in this world—a joy which assimilates man to God. I took you half awake from the hands of nature, and I have been your Prometheus." He could not live out of her sight. She was his second wife. His first marriage had not been a happy one, for his first wife had a cerebral disease. Michelet's nature was all tenderness and gentleness; it was essentially poetical. "With women," he said, "the ideal ought to be always mixed up with the real." Michelet was much older than his second wife, who was his pupil, his confidante, his solace. This perfect community of sentiment will not help us to answer the question which I put a moment ago—Where begins and where ends the part of Michelet in this autobiography? Let us take it as it is, as a sort of mixed work, without troubling ourselves too much about its precise origin.

The father of Michelet was a Picard, born in the town of Laon; his grandfather was a professor of music and *maître de chapelle* in the Cathedral Church. Laon, with its many churches, built on a hill, may be called a clerical city. Michelet's father became in his youth a great favorite with the priests and the nuns; his family intended to make a priest of him. He was presented to the Abbé de Bourbon, a natural son of Louis XV. and of Mme. de Romans. "The Abbé, a young prince twenty-three years old, with half a million of ecclesiastical revenues, very handsome, amiable, and worldly, was at his toilet, half powdered. He rose, took my father into his cabinet, talked to him, found in him a man of the world, without any ecclesiastical vocation. He patted him on the shoulder: 'Very well, my friend, very well, I am pleased with you. I make you a Canon.'" The French Revolution decided his fate otherwise. Michelet's father went to Paris, where he arrived a month after the famous massacres of September. He became a printer, and was first employed in the printing of the *assignats*. After the 9th Thermidor, the revolution which put an end to the atrocious rule of Robespierre, he bought a printing-office and ceased to be a mere workman. Michelet was born in 1798. His family lived in the Rue Saint Denis, in a church which had once belonged to the Hôtel Saint-Chaumont (where the Duc de la Feuillade cast in secret the bronze equestrian statue of Louis XIV. which he offered to the King, and which stood on the site of the one that now adorns the Place des Victoires). The church was now empty and served as a printing-office. The child was born in the very choir, and his father named him Jules. "If the Republic lasts," he said, "it will be Julius Cæsar; if Catholicism triumphs, it will be Pope Julius."

Young Michelet was very delicate, nervous, of an extraordinary sensibility, timid, full of imagination. His father was very poor; printing was not encouraged after the excesses of the French Revolution. He soon found himself in great difficulties. The family left the Rue Saint-Denis and settled on the other side of the Seine, in the Rue des Saints-Pères; Michelet remembered having often suffered there from cold and from hunger. He remembered a usurer who had lent money to his father, and who often came to insult and threaten him. One day he learned that his father had been arrested and sent to the Prison of Sainte-Pélagie. At that period Michelet, in his dark home in the Rue des Saints-Pères, in his extreme poverty, found, he says, a great solace in religion. He had received no religious instruction—his parents had forgotten to have him baptized. His father had the philosophical notions of the end of the eighteenth century; the boy was never taken to church, and was afraid of the black vestments of the priests. "The utter neglect in instructing me was precisely what helped me. In the great distress in which we found ourselves, a solitary instinct inclined me to open a book of piety. It was the 'Imitation of Christ,' preceded by the service of the mass. How shall I describe the state of dream into which I was thrown by the first words of this book? These dialogues between God and a suffering soul, as was mine, touched me profoundly. . . . I heard . . . as if a soft and paternal voice had spoken to myself."

What suffering soul, bleeding from hidden wounds, broken under the weight of life, tired to death, has not found a bitter solace and, by degrees, a sort of rest in this miraculous work, the 'Imitation'? Michelet had a pure and poetical mind, and was able to feel and to receive, as it were, its beauty; he saw, at the end of this painful life, deliverance and hope; he learned the fortifying virtue of solitude. During all his life he remained, in a certain sense, solitary. He experienced religion in a purely abstract manner, without any human intermediary, without the assistance of any priest. "Religion," said he, "thus remained a thing which was mine; it remained free, so well mixed with my life that it could feed with me and fortify itself on the road with a number of tender and holy things in art and in poetry—things which are often erroneously thought independent of it."

The 'Imitation,' however, has its dangers: it produces indifference, a languid contempt of realities; it acts on the soul as opium acts on the nerves. But Michelet was too young to feel its dangers. His father, after a while, left the prison into which a hard creditor had thrown him. He made a composition with him, and opened a new printing-office. The printing was chiefly done by the family—by the old grandfather, by the mother as well as by the father. Young Michelet became himself a printer. He worked in a cellar, on the Boulevard Saint-Martin. At the age of twelve he was sent to school and learned a little Latin. He found a friend, and began to open his eyes on the world, to inquire about the Emperor Napoleon, his perpetual wars, the conscription which took generation after generation. "Nothing," he says, "better helped me to understand the dark monotony of the middle ages, the expectation without a hope, without a desire, except the desire of death, so well as the languid years which, as a child, I spent during the last period of the Empire." He had no holidays or Sundays; he was kept all day at the printing-office.

After the disasters of the Russian campaign, a decree reduced the number of printers to sixty. The printing-office of Michelet's father was shut with an official seal. Once more the family were ruined. His mother fell ill. His father decided, nevertheless, that the boy should leave school and enter a lycée. The Lycée Charlemagne is still one of the great lyceums of Paris. Young Michelet, timid and awkward as he was, thrown among hundreds of rude boys, was at first very unhappy. "Cet âge est sans pitié," says Lafontaine. The genus "boy" develops all its most hateful characteristics in a Parisian lycée. The beginnings were hard, but Michelet soon found himself, somewhat to his own astonishment, at the head of the class. "On the 3d of May, an admirable spring day, King Louis XVIII. made his first entry in Paris, where his brother had preceded him. We were at school; we heard the distant guns of Vincennes. Somebody said, 'It is the return of the Bourbons.' We looked at each other; we did not know them." Long years of revolution and of war had unnerved France and destroyed all interest in the affairs of the country. Never had the Michelet family been so miserable. Michelet tells us that he often left home for his lycée with an empty stomach. He was sixteen years old, and he never ate any meat; he sometimes felt the effects of inanition during his lessons. He was not allowed to grow; he remained all his lifetime weak and frail. It is difficult to imagine what his genius would have been if his body had been more robust, and if hunger had not been one of the torments of his youth.

In 1815 he lost his grandfather and his mother. His studies were constantly disturbed by domestic troubles, and also by political events. The return of Napoleon from Elba, Waterloo, the occupation of Paris by the Allies—such events produced an immense perturbation even in the colleges. Michelet's father, after the death of

his wife, entered as assistant an asylum for lunatics kept by a Doctor Duchemin. Nothing can be more injurious to a young mind than contact with insane people. Young Michelet spent three years in this house of Doctor Duchemin, with his father; he only felt at first the pleasure of a little comfort, which to him was a novelty, but he did not long remain insensible to the sufferings which were hidden in his new abode.

Michelet had a great triumph at the end of his classical studies: he obtained the first prize of rhetoric at the *concours général* (an annual competition of the best scholars of all the lycées of Paris). The crown was given to him by the hero of the day, the Duc de Richelieu, who, owing to his great friendship with the Emperor Alexander of Russia, had succeeded in keeping for France Alsace and Lorraine, after the defeat at Waterloo. The young Michelet was almost overpowered by his own success; he was presented by M. Villemain to the Count Decazes and to the Duc de Richelieu. Was he a royalist? He did not himself know at the time. His father had seen Louis XVI. in the prison of the Temple, and had been moved with pity by the misfortunes of the royal family. He was not a Bonapartist—he was sure of that; but, so far, he had not chosen his party. He was drawn to literature more than to politics; he became a tutor in a school, and was able to earn his bread. The most humble position appeared to him like a paradise. He began to read Rousseau with much enthusiasm; the sentimentality of Rousseau, his love of nature, were powerful attractions. It can be said, on the whole, that the development of the mind of Michelet was very slow, and the young teacher of the Institution Briand had much to learn before he became the renovator of historical studies in France and the powerful assistant of the great Romantic school.

Correspondence.

THE CASE OF JUDGE LOCKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was very much surprised and disappointed on reading your article upon the proposed impeachment of Judge Locke, appearing in your issue of February 28—surprised, because, from reading your paper some fifteen years, I had come to regard it as generally fair and just, which in this instance it is not; and disappointed, because of your ready credence and acceptance as true of charges as yet not proven nor even answered. Your comments upon such conduct as is charged against Judge Locke are very entertaining and pointed, and the moral you draw from the premises as stated by you is very just, only—the premises are false; and it really seems to me that upon their face the charges have an appearance suspicious enough to cause hesitation in accepting them as true. That Judge Locke will be completely exonerated upon investigation is confidently believed by his friends and by those acquainted with the facts; but after that is done, hundreds who have read your pungent articles will not notice it or hear of it, while your pointed criticisms *will* remain in their recollection, prejudicing them against Judge Locke, and perhaps against the whole judiciary. You thus do Judge Locke a great injury, and with a class whose good opinion and esteem is worth having—for such are your readers. I will therefore state for your information a few facts in the case, trusting to your own sense of right to do what justice requires.

Judge Locke was appointed District Judge in 1872, upon the recommendation of both Republicans and Democrats. The entire bar of the district at that time were Democrats, with a single exception, and they all joined in asking his appointment. He surrendered a practice and business far more profitable than the office he accepted, and resigned the political offices which he then held. From that day he has filled the position of Judge with satisfaction to the members of the bar and litigants, both in this district and in others where he has sat by assignment. When it was rumored that these charges were to be made against him, the lawyers of the district, unsolicited, joined in a testimonial as to his character, and among them were both Democrats and Republicans. Even you, a year ago, had a word of praise for the manner in which he vindicated the honor of the court in a case of disbarment. But, as the Savannah *News* says, he was not "satisfactory to some Federal office-holders" and politicians. Time and again he has refused to create an army of deputy marshals for use of the "bosses" at the polls. In no way would he let his court be used as a tool by the local "boss" (a Collector of Customs, from New York); and therefore he is made to suffer—not impeachment: there is no danger of that—but the gibes and sarcasms of the press and the notoriety of this investigation.

As to the substance of the charges, I would say that handing $25 on one single occasion—for there is but one such charge—to a politician, to help along a local campaign, is not "improperly approaching and influencing voters." To contribute to the expenses of a campaign is a right which any man, whether a judge or not, may exercise as suits him. If the Judge had paid assessments to the local "boss," probably nothing would have been heard of this!

2d. The records of the court show that the ship *St. James* was wrecked in November, 1871. At that time Judge Locke had *not* been appointed as Judge, and owned one-half of a small twelve-ton schooner, the *Pelican*, engaged in sponging. She went to the wreck and saved forty bars of railroad iron, which was libelled for salvage in January, 1872. Five months after the salvage service was rendered, Judge Locke was appointed, and entered upon the duties of his office. He immediately sold his interest in the *Pelican*, and the records show that that one-half which he had owned neither *applied for* nor *received one cent of salvage*; and in the decree delivered by him it is especially stated that half of the *Pelican* should receive *no salvage*. Neither the Judge nor the person to whom he sold his interest received one cent for her work at the wreck, though many lawyers and others at the time thought that the Judge was over-scrupulous in not decreeing her salvage, as the service was rendered before he was on the bench. Now, twelve years afterward, this *false* charge is trumped up in the shape in which it appears in your columns. The contributing $25 toward a Republican campaign was also in 1872, twelve years ago. Strange that it has only just been discovered.

3d. The charge of "pawnbroking" is totally false, and is made, not with any expectation of being sustained, but simply to smirch the Judge's good name. I have in my possession an affidavit of the person named in the charge as the pawner denying the charge, and it will be presented when wanted; I send you a copy of it. It was made last year at the time the Collector of Customs here first started the story.

4th. The charge of illicit dealing in tobacco is of the same nature. It was made in malice by the Collector of Customs last summer, was investigated by the Internal Revenue Department, and decided in favor of Judge Locke. That he lent a friend money is true, but it was to accommodate him; that he was secured by tobacco in the bonded warehouse is true, but it was a legitimate transaction, not conflicting with the Judge's duties, and, as an investment even, was as fair as any ever made by any one in land, houses, or stocks, tobacco being a staple article here. That these loans were made from the Judge's private means, no one who knows what a judge's salary is can doubt.

Your conclusion that the assessment of $46.88 was a "political" one is also erroneous. It was part of the inquiry into the tobacco business, asking him why he should not pay that amount for a license as a dealer. He showed to the satisfaction of the Department why he should not be considered as a dealer, as their records show, and the enclosed copy of letters.

I would now ask you candidly if two such loans as these, made to friends as an accommodation, during a period of twelve years, warrant an accusation of "eking out his scanty income by pawnbroking and usury and by illicit dealing in tobacco"; yet you have held him up to your readers in that light.

I enclose you certain documents substantiating my statements above, and while I cannot ask you to devote your space to the publication of all this, I think that in justice you should let your readers know that there are two sides to the question; and, in justice to the accused, a man known by all his acquaintances to be over-scrupulous and conscientious, devoted to the duties of his position and jealous of its dignity, as is shown by the stand he took in disbarring an attorney in the face of universal public prejudice two years ago, you should set aside your finding, for newly discovered evidence, and not help tarnish the good name of one who has no other fortune.

Of the character of his accusers and their motives much could be said that would throw considerable light upon political affairs in this section, showing how "satraps" are sent out from the central government to control the Republican "provinces"; the manner in which they try to do it; the way the Government patronage is distributed; the way Republican "bosses" and Bourbon "colonels" combine to beat and cheat the decent men of both parties. But I will not seem to try to make out my case by abusing others, but will withhold my experience with the political ringsters until some future day, when, if the good of Republicanism and the community requires it, I can make some revelations that will astonish those unfamiliar with politics in "Dixie."

I will only add that I write this without the knowledge of Judge Locke, who is absent holding court in Tampa. With full confidence that you will be willing to do justice in this matter, I remain your constant reader, and in all cases but this, your admirer,

Eugene O. Locke.

Key West, Fla., March 11, 1884.

[We never undertook to prejudge the case, but referred to the charges which are on file at Washington and are a perfectly legitimate subject for comment by any newspaper. The discussion of them will not injure the Judge if he is innocent, but will merely cover his enemies with confusion.—Ed. Nation.]

CASH AND THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 947 of the *Nation*, you intimate that in South Carolina the society is not really

civilized; that the great part of the citizens of this State who pass as "gentlemen" are "drunken, armed ruffians"—criminals, indeed, who "run loose till they commit deliberate, unprovoked murder." The individual case on which you were commenting does not justify such general inferences as you drew from it. I enclose a statement clipped from the *News and Courier* to prove this. It shows that the Executive power of the State is doing its duty to bring the criminal to justice. It shows that it was not the fault of our State Government that this criminal was allowed to run loose until he committed deliberate, unprovoked murder, but that it is the fault of the United States Government, whose authorities had taken him out of the custody of the State and had set him free.

Are our people to be continually calumniated as allowing crime to go unpunished, when the United States Government fosters a crowd of lawless, unprincipled employees in our midst, and protects them in their lawless deeds from local justice? When one in the employ of the United States Government commits a crime here, he simply carries his case to the Federal Court and feels that he is safe from punishment. Will you not raise your voice against *this* evil?

We thank you for your good intentions in trying to correct the evil of unpunished homicide, and we do not, in any case, sympathize with or try to excuse criminals; but we think that you have done the people of South Carolina an injustice, and that you should do all in your power to correct it. And as you have begun to comment on the W. B Cash affair, you ought not to drop it leaving a wrong impression upon the minds of your readers. The Government and people of South Carolina are showing, as plainly as can be shown, that they do not "bolster up such people" in their acts of violence.

W. Z.

State of South Carolina, March 10, 1884.

[We append a part of the extract referred to. Meantime, the elder Cash has been set free on a ridiculous bail, and the pursuit of his son has, it is said, been given over.—Ed. Nation.]

"Cash's Political Antecedents.—No doubt the Stalwart organs at the North are rioting in glee on account of the doings of W. B. Cash, assumed by them to be a typical South Carolina Democrat. It is but just to Mr. Cash and the aforementioned organs, therefore, to let it be known that Mr. W. Bogan Cash is not a Democrat, but an 'Independent' or Republican, lately or now in the employ of the United States Government. W. Bogan Cash is the same man who was arrested here last spring for assaulting without justification an old and feeble Democrat from Fairfield County. He is the same man who was held by the State authorities for carrying concealed weapons here in defiance of State law. He is the same man who was defended before the Mayor and before the trial justice by Mr. William Penn Snider, special counsel for the United States in the election cases. He is the same man who was taken out of the custody of the State by the United States authorities, for the reason that he held a deputy marshal's commission while he attempted to terrorize old men in this quiet town. He is the same man who, immediately after his release from State control, acted as a spy in Chester County and arrested white Democrats. His forfeited pistols, which were taken from the State by the United States authorities, were doubtless returned to him, and it is not improbaole that he killed Marshal Richards with one of them. N. G. G."

EXCESSIVE LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The people of this country have endured so long the unscientific methods of law-making practised by our legislatures that it is not probable that much immediate good will result from general recognition of the evil of over-production of statutes. But the evil is so great and, to those familiar with the application of written law to every-day affairs, so apparent, that in the end good must result from the discussion of it. When the people understand that the number of laws the passage of which a legislator obtains is not the measure of his excellence, the unhappy fecundity of the brains of our manufacturers of statutes may be checked. Among the many abuses which affect the making of laws, the influence of merely local considerations is not the least. While constitutional provisions may do much to remedy this evil, it is important that the people should remember that the causes which in time past have produced laws ridiculous in their local character, may produce other effects of a similar kind. But in most of the States the evil complained of exists without check other than such as may be afforded by public opinion; and public opinion must be educated up to an appreciation of some of the common-sense rudimentary principles of statute-making.

The uncle of the honorable member from the Township of Squirrel-track in Sawdust County has lost a fence which was fired by sparks from a railway locomotive. A heifer belonging to the son-in-law of the uncle of the honorable member from Squirrel-track, having walked through another fence, more or less rotten, has been killed by the same locomotive. What is the result? That the honorable member, his public spirit aroused by these little family misfortunes, obtains the passage of a bill regulating the matter of fences along the lines of railways throughout the State? Not so! What does the honorable member from Sawdust County care for the fences and the heifers of the uncles and of the sons-in-law of the uncles of honorable members from other counties? Let those honorable members look out for the fences and the heifers of their own uncles and of their own uncles' sons in-law. But his private spirit is aroused; and the bill which he introduces, and which his fellow-statesmen pass, provides that the company owning the locomotive which has made havoc with the property of his uncle and of his uncle's son-in-law, shall keep up fences along its line—in the Township of Squirrel-track in the County of Sawdust. That is enough for the protection of his uncle and his uncle's son-in-law.

Under similar circumstances, other laws of like character are passed, each confined in its operation within narrow geographical limits, and each differing in important details from all the others. They may accomplish good results within those limits. Any radical member who suspects that they may not be based upon sound principles of legislation, lulls the suspicion with the conclusive argument that, as each bill will accomplish good results, to oppose it would be wrong. In the end, several local statutes are passed upon a subject as to which the law of the State should be uniform. No man knows, without careful investigation, whether his fence and his neighbor's fence stand under the same or under different laws. Instead of the single compact statute which should control, the people have eleven inharmonious local laws, regulating the matter in four counties and in parts of three counties, out of twenty-three.

A brief review of the laws of Pennsylvania upon the subject of fences and cattle-guards along the lines of railways will show that the imaginary laws just described are not much more absurd than those to be found in the statute-books. In that State are seven statutes requiring railway companies to provide fences and cattle-guards. Each of two of these requires one specified railway company to build and keep in repair in one specified county "sufficient and lawful fences," and, at all "public crossings," "good and sufficient" cattle-guards. Each of three of the rest provides for the building and the keeping up of fences in one specified county by all railway companies having lines in that county. The three differ so in detail that a full comparison of them would take no small amount of labor. Two of them require companies to build cattle-guards at all crossings. One of these two provides for, and one does not provide for, the maintaining of cattle-guards after they are built. Of the two remaining acts, each is supplementary to one or another of those already mentioned. One of the supplementary acts extends one of the special county statutes to three additional counties. Here, then, are seven local statutes upon a subject of a character essentially not local, the seven affecting eight counties, and establishing four distinct systems of law. Why, this is the very March madness of law-making! And all these statutes except two were passed within about a year of one another, so that the Legislature must have known of the existence of those already passed.

This case is taken as typical. The statute-books of other States than Pennsylvania will show many such cases.—Very truly yours,

James Pryor.

21 Courtlandt Street,
New York, March 12, 1884.

THE INDIAN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The leading article in a late number of the *Morning Star*, a little paper published at the Indian Training School, Carlisle, Pa., upon the subject of educating and civilizing the Indian race, closes with the following words: "Must it always be *en masse* or not at all?" I consider this the keynote to the complete settlement of the Indian problem. The thing to do is, in brief, just exactly the reverse of what our Government has always done. Instead of keeping the Indians shut up on reservations, isolated from civilizing influences, let us teach them our life by bringing them in direct contact with civilization as we understand it.

The first thing to do is to pass a general law applicable to all Indians, providing that their homesteads shall be inalienable for a term of years, as is now provided by treaty with a few tribes. Nearly all Indians are incompetent to manage their business affairs, and the Government will have to watch over them as wards in fact, and the way to do it is to pass this law. The few who may be competent will have to suffer some inconvenience for the good of the many. The term of years for which the homesteads should be inalienable might be longer or shorter for different Indians, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Interior and Commissioner of Indian Affairs—none for less than ten years, however; or, the law might permit certain Indians to sell one-fourth part of their allotments after ten years, provided the sale was ordered in each instance by the Secretary or Commissioner. It was the failure to have such a law that has ruined so many Indians after they had got fairly started to live rightly and their lands had been patented to them.

After the law making the homesteads of the Indians inalienable is passed and in operation (but not before), let the Government proceed to abolish all Indian reservations by opening for settlement alternate sections throughout the Indian country, in order that the Indians may learn from the example of their white neighbors the superiority of the white man's manner of living. Right here I fear the party of good intentions, but likewise the party that is most unacquainted with the Indian people, will rise up and with tongue and pen—they are mostly people who know how to use both weapons—de-

nounce this suggestion as an attempt to perpetrate another great wrong upon the Indians. But I maintain that it is for the good of the Indians that I would do the thing I now propose. It might be advisable for the Secretary of the Interior to invite religious societies to colonize (under the homestead law, of course) the sections taken away from the Indians. I think it would be a very good thing indeed to make some effort to get a good class of people to occupy these sections—people who would at least be disposed to do the Indians simple justice in any and all disputes which might arise between the two races.

Most tribes have a great deal more land in their reservations than they need or can use; and if the Government secures permanently to each individual Indian a homestead, and helps him with houses, with stock, and with implements, to establish himself upon that homestead, it is enough. It is not proposed to take away from them a single section that is now acknowledged to be theirs without paying them for it; and the fund accruing to them from the sections so taken would be ample to establish each head of a family, at least, upon his homestead, give him a few head of stock, and subsist the tribe while getting started and as long as they ought to be aided in that way, and leave a fund for the support of their schools. From this fund also could be provided the proportion which the Indians ought in justice to the community to pay for the building of roads and bridges, and, where necessary, irrigating canals. To do all this Congress need not, and ought not to, appropriate a single dollar except in payment for the sections taken away from the Indians. A few tribes may need a little additional aid, but the most will not.

Of course it is expected that the Government would see, and that philanthropic people would help it to see, that the moneys due the Indians were honestly expended in the way indicated. And, I ask, could any people demand more than this from any government? If these things are honestly done, in all kindness, as it is intended they shall be, and it appears that the Indian cannot endure civilization even under such favorable circumstances, and is destined to become extinct, the most scrupulous humanitarian can find no cause for complaint. The Indians would still need to have agents, with their force of employees, for a few years, to instruct them in farming and the care of stock; to see that they received what was due and sent them by the Government; and to see that they suffered no injustice from their white neighbors or from each other—in other words, to see that they received justice in the courts. It is true that it would require some force to carry out this plan for civilizing Indians; but the time has come when the Indian people ought to be *governed*, and there is no way to govern a portion of them, at least, without the employment of force. And I consider that the most important thing to do to civilize Indians is to *govern* them. I presume that there is no person who will not admit that the Indians ought to be governed. By admitting this much, they of necessity concede that force must be used. The only question, then, is as to the manner of applying this force. The sooner it is done, the better it will be for the Indian people.

When I recommend the employment of force, it is not expected that we shall come to blows. All that is necessary is to have the force on hand; then explain to the Indians, kindly but firmly, what we intend to do, why we do it, and what we expect them to do; then go ahead and carry out our policy honestly and fairly, and if they then rebel against that policy they must feel the power of the Government. I have no fears for the result of this proposed policy. I have great fears for the future of the Indians if the old and present manner of managing them and their affairs is continued. I believe that more can be accomplished for the good of the Indians in four years in the way I suggest than in twenty-five years under the reservation system as at present. In fact, I am convinced that the reservation system can *never* be *completely* successful.—Very respectfully,

JACQUES.

CROW INDIAN AGENCY,
MONTANA, March 7, 1884.

HEADS OF BUREAUX IN CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the recent discussions of the civil service and movements for its improvement, attention has been chiefly directed to the lower grades of the service, and particularly to the class designated as "clerks." But immediately above the clerks, and between them and the heads of the departments, is a class of subordinate officers, the assistant secretaries and the heads of bureaux, these latter known as commissioners, auditors, comptrollers, and by other names. These subordinate officers, except on a few of the most important questions of policy, and on some chance questions in which the head of a department may happen to feel a special interest, control generally the action of the department. It is not too much to say that the daily business conduct of the departments is in the hands of these officers. On the one hand, they largely direct the action of the head of the department; for this is quite generally based on the recommendations of these subordinates and on papers selected and digested by them. On the other hand, they are next in authority over the clerks; to them the clerical force is immediately responsible for the quality and quantity of daily work. If the heads of bureaux in a department are good executives, the clerical force of that department will be carefully disposed, so as to work efficiently and economically. Rules controlling both the diligence and the methods of the clerks will be laid down, and, because of the nearness of the bureau officers, these rules will be enforced. If these officers are enlightened upon the questions both of policy and of private right which come before them for decision, and are practical in their methods, the administration of the department will produce respect and general satisfaction among those who are in any way dependent on governmental action. The efficiency of these subordinate officers, in whose hands is the daily administration of affairs, is of far greater importance, under our system of government, than the efficiency of the heads of the departments.

The proper work of the head of a bureau is always difficult. It needs for its due performance diverse talents, of high order. The Commissioner of Pensions is charged with responsibility for the work of over fifteen hundred employees in his office; the Commissioner of the General Land Office and the Sixth Auditor of the Treasury, for over three hundred each. These are examples. The proper government of so large a number of subordinates is never an easy task. Its difficulty is increased when the responsibility for their work is in the hands of one officer, and their promotion or dismissal in the hands of another, who is subject in his action to influences not connected with the welfare of the service. The legal questions which fall within the jurisdiction of the head of a bureau are involved, requiring legal ability of a high order. The First and Second Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs in the Treasury Department are law officers, who have to decide on the legality of all expenditures from the Treasury. Properly to construe the large body of statutory law before them, and to determine intricate questions of express and implied contract, so as to settle properly the boundaries of governmental and individual right, is a work of great magnitude. Questions of administrative policy—such, for instance, as require the decision of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs—are no less difficult. A good bureau officer needs to add to high legal talent executive ability of no usual order, and to make use of these with untiring industry.

That the bureau officers generally fail to reach the proper requirements of their positions, or, to put it stronger, that they are generally very inefficient, will not, I think, be denied by those who have had opportunity for an intimate acquaintance with the workings of the departments here. The deficiencies of the clerks, who are generally far better fitted for their work than the heads of the bureaus for theirs, would be in great part remedied by better superior officers. The chief of a bureau who is chief in anything but name is the exception rather than the rule. He very often does little more than sign papers prepared by his subordinates, follow their advice, and pursue a careful negative course that can give no one any reason for seeking his removal. The real authority in a bureau is very often divided among the heads of its various divisions, and the strange spectacle is presented of the policy of the bureau being liberal in regard to one part of its jurisdiction and narrow in another, according to the cast of mind of the clerks at the head of the several divisions. "Well, I will see what 'the boys' have to say to this," said the head of one bureau to me, in regard to a matter of official business. "The heads of division run our office," said a Treasury clerk to me. "What sort of a man is the head of your office?" I asked another clerk of twenty years' service. "That makes no difference," he answered, "as long as the present Deputy holds his place." A well-known Senator of the same party as the Administration said a few days ago: "These bureau officers know nothing except what they learn from their twelve and fourteen-hundred-dollar clerks."

The primary reason for inefficiency in these positions is that special fitness for these offices is not the basis of selection. The secondary reason is that the salaries are not large enough to attract men of sufficient ability. In the Treasury Department (the figures are from the last appropriation act) the Treasurer and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue receive $6,000 a year; the Comptrollers, $5,000; the Commissioner of Customs and the Register, $4,000; the Auditors, $3,600. In the Interior Department, the Commissioner of Pensions receives $5,000; the Commissioners of Patents and of Railroads, $4,500; and the Commissioners of the General Land Office and of Indian Affairs, $4,000. The three Assistant Postmasters-General, really heads of bureaux in the Post-office Department, receive $4,000 each. There can be but little doubt that a better class of men in these positions would easily save much more than the increase of their own salaries by a more economical use of their employees.

But no increase of salary will be of use until fitness for the position and not political service becomes the qualification for appointment. Under our present system, our chiefs of bureaux are, as a rule, either successful local politicians, like the First Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Frank Hatton, or defeated ex-Congressmen, like the Commissioner of Patents, Mr. Benjamin Butterworth. Occasionally an officer selected for political reasons happens to show himself well qualified for his place; it is a matter of chance.

The instances of bureau officers who have been promoted from clerkships are so few—and of these few the promotions have so largely been on political grounds—that it is not possible to say from actual trial what the effect of the general adoption of such a system would be. The recent promotion of Mr. Henry D. Lyman to the office of Second Assistant Postmaster-General, in whose bureau he had been chief clerk, and before that a subordinate, will give an opportunity for observation upon the effect of promotion from the ranks for conspicuous merit.

In some cases it is necessary for bureau officers to be in accord with the ruling policy of the party in power; generally they have nothing to do with this. The duties of a bureau officer, as a rule, are to carry out the law efficiently and economically. In the Treasury Department the six Auditors, the two Comptrollers, the Commissioner of Customs, the Register, the Director of the Mint, the Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, have nothing to do with party policy. Nearly the same is true of the three Assistant Postmasters-General, as well as the other heads of bureau in the Post-office Department. Even if a change of policy demands a change of subordinate executive officers, fitness for the place, among those of accordant policy, should be the sole test for selection.

This is the fundamental principle of true reform in the civil service; it is as applicable to the higher grades of the service as to the lower. When it is so applied we shall no longer find the heads of bureaux, as in so many cases we find them now, conspicuous for their inefficiency.

W. B. K.

Washington, D. C., March 13, 1884.

CHARLES READE AND MME. REYBAUD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room," published in *Littell's Living Age* for November, 1869, is a *literal* translation from the French tale, 'Mlle. de Malepeire,' by Mme. Charles Reybaud, published by Hachette & Co. in 1856; so well known that I am surprised your Michigan correspondent should have wasted so much ingenuity in order to discover its author in Lady Georgiana Fullerton. F. D. P.

Boston, March 14, 1884.

SHAKSPERE'S SOLFEGGIO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your criticism of the 'Riverside Shakspere' is none too severe. It almost deserves to be called the "swaggering edition," and I am glad that a part of the truth about it has been plainly spoken. On one point, however, I would suggest that your reviewer may be in error. He says that the notes sung by *Edmund*—fa, sol, la, mi—are F, G, A, E, instead of F, G, A, *B*, as stated by Mr. White. So I thought when I first read the note on that passage: but afterward it occurred to me that I had heard my father say that when he learned to sing—perhaps sixty or sixty-five years ago—the syllables taught were fa, sol, la, fa, sol, la, mi, fa, instead of do, re, mi, etc., as we now hear them. Possibly the same system prevailed in Stratford when Shakspere used to attend the evening singing schools and go home with Ann Hathaway. E. E. L.

Greenfield, Mass., March 14, 1884.

PRAYER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 976 of the *Nation* one of your correspondents quotes from Bishop Warren: "We cannot understand God's plans enough to know whether or not to pray for her recovery"—which is very suggestive.

It reminds me how, when I was a boy and had my Sunday-school teacher and my sled, I used in winter to pray for snow; and how awed I felt on one occasion when snow came in answer to my prayer, and I realized I was responsible for it. Even then I knew the poor do not enjoy snow. And, indeed, granting that by prayer we do obtain our wishes, how do we justify ourselves in changing the plans of God?

It also reminds me of what I once heard an Episcopal missionary, Bishop Penick, say. In speaking of his African experiences, he told us that on one occasion, while he was urging some savages to pray to God, the good all-giver, one of them asked why he should pray to God, who sought only to do him good, rather than to the devil, who was prowling round to destroy him. (These are my own words.) And I join with this poor savage in asking, Why? I know a clerk who in a late municipal contest expended all his blandishments on the opponent of his chief and friend. He reasoned thus: "If my chief is reëlected he will keep me in my place, for he is just and a civil-service reformer; but if he is beaten his opponent will remove me unless he likes me, for he is a mere politician."

It is only in families where the parents are weak and silly that one finds the children teasing for this or that; children who trust in them do not seek to change their parents' decisions and plans. The whole spirit of modern dealing with the needy is not to help them, but to make them self-reliant. Beggars are the least respectable of all classes; begging is an insidious vice, and why is it worse to beg of man than to beg of God?

Is not the only prayer a trustful thinking soul can utter something like this: "Oh God, thou art good; thou carest for me; thy will be done"? D. S.

Baltimore, March 16, 1884.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish immediately a students' edition of their five-volume issue of Rawlinson's 'Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World,' from the same plates but with smaller margins and less costly paper. They have begun delivering the parts of a new edition of Bryan's 'Dictionary of Painters and Engravers,' quite double in size that of 1849. This firm states that the enormous sale of a cheap edition of E. P. Roe's 'Barriers Burned Away' increased, instead of diminishing, the sale of the bound copies. They will accordingly repeat the venture with his 'Opening a Chestnut Burr.' They have also in press 'Carola,' a new novel by Hesba Stretton. Finally, they promise at once 'El Mahdi and the Sudan,' by General Loring, formerly in the service of the Khedive.

'Euphorion,' studies of the antique and the mediæval in the Renaissance, by Vernon Lee, is among the spring announcements of T. Fisher Unwin, Paternoster Square, London.

W. R. Jenkins, 850 Sixth Avenue, has just published "Les Deux Écoliers," a one-act comedy by A. Laurent de Villeroy, of this city, who, himself a teacher, aims by it "à instruire sans fatiguer." For class-room use, every alternate page is blank and can receive the translation. Mr. Jenkins has nearly ready André Theuriet's 'Le Mariage de Gérard.'

Tuke's 'Influence of the Mind upon the Body' is not (partly in consequence of the author's style) a first-class work, but it has at the end of ten years reached a second London edition, and now a second American edition follows from the press of Henry C. Lea's Sons (Philadelphia). A glance through it shows the extensive overhauling that it has received, and the freshness of much of its new material, as in the sections devoted to the hallucinations of Lourdes and Knock.

Mr. Spofford's invaluable 'American Almanac' for the current year (American News Co.) preserves its familiar scheme, with the necessary alterations to date, and with the customary minor variations—omissions and additions. Such new features as we have been able to discover are the names of the Civil-Service Commission; the death-rate of our colored population in 1880, and their voting strength in the same year; library statistics; and suffrage qualifications, by States. The table of differences of time between New York and the chief cities of the Union is retained, but we miss an account of the new system of standard railroad time, which ought to become a standing feature of the Almanac. We will also repeat our wish that each new volume might contain an index to statistics given in preceding volumes exclusively. The public, we dare say, hardly appreciates the variety of the contents of this annual. Foreign countries as well as the United States are embraced in it.

The 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1884 (Macmillan) has been so far worked over by its new editor, Mr. J. Scott Keltie, as to enable him to assume entire responsibility for it. It calls, therefore, for somewhat more extended criticism than formerly; and this we hope to give it shortly.

M. Louis Figuier's 'L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle' (F. W. Christern) depicts fairly well, in a light and popular way, the major doings of man and nature during the past year. No less than ten expositions—the last, "of insects"—are recorded, but invention seems to have added hardly anything remarkable or promising to the achievements of other years. We may perhaps except the application of electricity to the guidance of balloons, as attempted by MM. Gaston and Albert Tissandier; but, otherwise, those who were celebrating in August the centenary of the brothers Montgolfier could deny that the aeronautic art had made much progress since 1783. The earthquakes and eruptions, including Ischia and Krakatoa, were distinguished above any known to history. M. Figuier fails to notice the connection, which we may consider demonstrated, between the Javan disturbance and the extraordinary sunsets of the past few months. His section devoted to cyclones in this country is altogether inadequate. The cholera in Egypt, the political results of which we are now witnessing, was the chief plague. Nordenskiöld's expedition to Greenland was the most interesting and the most famous, but perhaps not the most valuable of the year. The Brooklyn Bridge was the greatest mechanical triumph. M. Figuier imports some little humor into his annals by telling of India-rubber crying babies invented in this country for use by railway travellers who want to deter others from invading their "wagon." And he jocosely says, of the ease with which dyspeptics use Dr. Faucher's siphon for washing out the stomach, that this operation becomes for them merely "une question de toilette."

Charles Scribner's Sons have added 'Doctor Johns' to the uniform series of Donald G. Mitchell's works; and volumes ii. and iii. of Dean Stanley's 'History of the Jewish Church' to the uniform series of his works.

The well-devised juvenile library called "Classics for Children," published by Ginn, Heath & Co, Boston, has just been enlarged by a new volume, 'Stories of the Old World,' by the Rev. Alfred J. Church. The story of the *Argo*, of Thebes, of Troy, of the wanderings of

Ulysses and of Æneas, is told in each case with Mr. Church's accustomed felicity.

It is a pleasure to receive the 'Vicar of Wakefield' in the garb of the "Parchment Library" (D. Appleton & Co.). Mr. Austin Dobson has annotated the story in a manner both agreeable and helpful, with very little that could be spared as contributing nothing to the elucidation of obscure passages, or to our knowledge of Goldsmith's mind and career. We mentioned last year Mr. Ford's very plausible theory of the scene of the story. This admirer has gone further in the illustration of Goldsmith, and, having shared his discoveries with Mr. Dobson, we have them here brought side by side with the text. It is safe to say, therefore, that no edition of the 'Vicar' is now to be preferred to this one.

The Bookmart Publishing Co., Pittsburgh, Pa , have published in a little pamphlet of eight pages a list of the prices obtained at the recent sale of the late Henry C. Murphy's library. It is fitted to bind up with the original catalogue, and will no doubt be thought by many book-buyers to be well worth the dollar that is charged for it.

Mr. Cable's 'Madame Delphine,' translated by Mme. Th. Bentzon, has just been published in Paris by Calmann Lévy. Mme. Blanc has recently, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, devoted two articles to Mr. Cable, which will probably reappear in her forthcoming volume on the 'New American Novelists.' 'Madame Delphine' is also announced by Mr. Douglas, of Edinburgh.

With No. 19, *Swinton's Story-Teller* ceased publication. The task of filling a weekly paper with short stories only is well-nigh hopeless, even if the past be drawn upon. Even *Fiction* lasted longer than the *Story-Teller*.

From Henry Cook, 110 Tremont Street, Boston, we have received probably the sole authentic memorial of the interment of the late Wendell Phillips in the old Granary burying-ground in Boston. The scene was photographed under such conditions of light as make the picture obtained a remarkable success, while much interest attaches, not only to the little family group in the foreground, but to the great sweep of headstones and other monuments which mark the resting-place of some of Boston's most famous sons. The price of the print is fifty cents.

Every owner of Hugo's folio, 'Bewick's Woodcuts' must have resented the unconcealed insertion of a great number of cuts which had no more relation to Bewick than to Albert Dürer or a prehistoric bone artist. Mr. W. J. Linton has been at pains, in the *Academy* of March 1, to analyze the entire lot of 2,009 cuts and pass judgment upon them. "Not a hint of Bewick," "Refuse again," "Nothing of any value," "May be by anybody," "By Bonner," "All by Green," are some of this expert's decisions, for which he certainly deserves thanks.

The *Antiquary* begins the new year with great promise; both the January and February numbers contain several papers of special interest. In the former, Mr. Henry B. Wheatley begins a series of articles upon "The History and Development of the House" (not continued in February). This instalment, besides an introduction, is devoted to the hall, and has four interesting illustrations from ancient sources (in English history). Mr. J. H. Round discusses the expression *illud detestabile bellum de Lewes*, found in a letter of Simon de Montfort, and undertakes to explain how the victor could call the battle "detestable." This he does by comparing it with the term "this unnatural war," used by Fairfax in a letter to Prince Rupert. The letter from America in 1774 has already been noticed by us. Interesting articles on the study of coins (by Reginald Stuart Poole), Fotheringay Castle, etc., we must pass over. The February number opens with an article by G. Laurence Gomme on the House of Lords. This, too, begins a series, and has for its object to establish Mr. Freeman's thesis that the Witenagemot, from which the House of Lords was derived, was itself the outgrowth of the popular assembly. Here we find taken for granted the view, generally given up now by the best German scholars, that the freeman had his political rights "by virtue of the lands he held in the common domain." A long article by Karl Blind on the "Hawick Slogan"—*Teribus ye Teri Odin*—brings a great mass of collateral learning to illustrate the question of the origin and meaning of this "ancient Germanic war-cry." He associates it with the old ceremony of the "Riding of the Marches." There is also an interesting article by Mr. Brownbill upon the early life of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex. The writer takes an unfavorable view of Cromwell's political principles, which appear to have been modelled on 'The Prince' of Machiavelli.

In the last number of the English *Journal of Philology* the Master of Trinity has given a specimen of his *adversaria* on the well-worn "Clouds." "The chief motive for publishing them," he says, "was the desire to remind English scholars of the important textual services rendered to Aristophanes by their own countrymen, especially by Bentley; services which are, perhaps, better appreciated by the Dutch and some German critics than by our own students." Dr. Thompson's great reputation as a Grecian will of course secure attention for anything that he publishes, though it is hard for one not under the glamour of his authority to see the least earthly use in some of the notes, except to show that "the greatest Hellenist in England" is a careless proof-reader, which may be a comfort to those whom he has not spared—"some Germans" included. In Professor Nettleship's Notes in Latin Lexicography, we have some of the material which that indefatigable scholar is collecting for his great Latin dictionary. Mr. Scott has an interesting article on the "Physical Constitution of the Epicurean Gods"; and Malden's "Alexander in Afghanistan" has especial interest in view of the recent history of the country.

Mr. Maxwell Hall, of Jamaica, remarking that our knowledge of the planet Neptune is mostly confined to three points—that it is the furthest planet from the sun, appears as a star of the eighth magnitude, and is attended by a satellite—began in November last some observations, which were continued during the following month, and which indicate that (1) the planet has a delicate bluish color, and (2) that its brightness is subject to periodical variations, probably due to the rotation of the planet on its axis in 7h. 55m. 12s. He points out the remarkable prismatic sequence of color of the planets, proceeding from the earth outward—Mars reddish, Jupiter a delicate orange, Saturn greenish yellow, Uranus light green, and Neptune slightly blue. The extent of the observed variation in the brightness of Neptune amounted to nearly one stellar magnitude.

Dr. William Huggins has continued his important experiments in photographing the solar corona, without eclipse, during the past year. Through the kindness of the Misses Lassell, he was provided with a more suitable form of apparatus, made up in part of a seven-foot Newtonian telescope, constructed by the late Mr. Lassell. About fifty photographs were taken between April 2 and September 4, all of which show "a more or less coronal appearance," and the English members of the Caroline Island eclipse party of last May consider that "Dr. Huggins's coronas are certainly genuine as far as 8′ [one-fourth the sun's diameter] from the limb." A committee of the Royal Society has been appointed to arrange for taking photographs of the solar corona by Dr. Huggins's method, at some place of high elevation.

Two anonymous volumes, independent of but complementary to each other, bear the titles, 'Bismarck nach dem Kriege: ein Charakter- und Zeitbild,' and 'Bismarck: zwölf Jahre deutscher Politik (1871-1883).' The former was published last year and has gone through a second edition; the latter has just appeared in Germany. The author marks his identity by a sign of three asterisks on each title-page, and in the preface to the earlier volume acknowledges connections, of something like an "inspired" character and of long standing, with the political leader of the German Empire, whose consistency in actions and policies often apparently incongruous he endeavors to vindicate. These works are very interesting to students of contemporaneous history, chiefly on account of their many extracts from speeches, documents, and leading articles, which are ably connected and commented upon. The contents of the earlier volume are: "Bismarck and Rome," "Bismarck and Social Democracy," "Bismarck and the Joint-Stock Societies," "Bismarck and His Frictions," and "Bismarck and the [Parliamentary] Fractions"; and those of the new publication: "Bismarck, Gortchakoff, Andrássy," "Bismarck and the Central-European League of Peace," "Bismarck in External and Internal Affairs," "Bismarck and the French Policy of *Revanche*," and "Bismarck, Ultramontanism, and the Cobden Club."

Mr. Leonard Scott writes to us from Greensboro', N. C., to say that he has had nothing to do with the management of the "Leonard Scott Publishing Company" for the last eighteen years, and since 1881 has not even been a stockholder or interested in any way in the conduct of its affairs.

—Neat and timely is the little hand-book on 'Tree-Planting,' from the pen of Mr. N. H. Egleston, published by D. Appleton & Co. Excellent and convincing reasons are given in the first of the four short chapters why trees should be planted; and this is followed by suggestions about when to plant, what to plant, and how to plant. Mr. Egleston's advice upon these points is generally sensible and safe, and should have the effect of making people more closely examine for themselves this important subject. His views upon the possibility of covering the treeless plains of the central plateau of the continent with a forest growth are perhaps, however, a little more hopeful than circumstances quite justify. The flourishing plantations in the extreme western portion of Nebraska and Kansas, to which he alludes in support of his theory, exist, we fear, only in the glowing imagination of local editors, or enterprising railroad managers with lands to dispose of. In reality, so far at least as has come within our somewhat extended observations, all the plantations of trees which have been made west of the region of rainfall sufficient to insure a natural growth of trees have proved entire failures. It is, therefore, unfortunate that Mr. Egleston has found encouragement where encouragement does not exist, and that he has thus helped to keep up the delusion about the tree-growing capacity of the territory west of the 100th meridian. As he is an officer of the Government, however, it is perhaps only natural that he should suppose that trees can be made to grow, rain or no rain, so long as the Government continues to give away land for the purpose of encouraging the planting of timber without any regard whatever to the climatic conditions of the region to be planted. As long as the present Timber-Culture Act remains in

force, people will be seduced into the folly of needless expenditure in vain attempts to make trees grow where, except by the aid of irrigation, no human power can force them to do so.

—The copyright question has been discussed of late in the journals, daily, weekly, and monthly, from almost every point of view. But there is one way of looking at it which we do not remember to have seen noticed. Before granting the foreign author compensation, some persons who like to go to the bottom of things may ask whether the native has any right to that which he at present enjoys. Literary composition, they would point out, is a great pleasure. If an author is good for anything he enjoys writing. In fact, after he reaches a certain age and a certain degree of facility, there is scarcely any pleasure so great as the easy flow of ideas and words when he is in the vein. Why should he be paid for his amusement? It may be urged that he is not always in the vein, and that at such times writing is work and deserves pay. But why work when he is not in the mood? The product will not be good then. If he is to be paid, he has no right to palm off such work on the public; if he is not to be paid, he has no reason so to do. He may say that he cannot afford the delights of literary composition considered as a pastime; he must earn his living. Very well; let him do so by an honest trade, and deny himself this pleasure as men continually have to deny themselves a great many pleasures which are beyond their means. The claim that he deserves compensation for the phosphorus he consumes in writing has a similar answer. Why should he be paid for this outgo any more than the chess or the whist or the billiard player, who all of them use up their brains quite as much as the writer? Nor would it be allowed to be any better argument that authorship, even in its lightest forms, demands a long preliminary preparation, and that the honorarium, as the English are pleased to call it, may be regarded as interest on invested capital. So do all sports in which the pleasure comes from the successful exercise of skill. Does not the *Saturday Review* tell us that on those rare occasions when the English ponds and rivers are frozen thick, the most hard-worked business men are seen with their skates on at sunrise, and, while they are at it, lose no time in idling or fooling about it, but grind away at their figures with all the serious earnestness of students who are solving an astronomical problem or composing an epic poem? Yet no one thinks of paying them when they arrive at such proficiency that they can hold their own even with the cracks of the Canadian and American rinks. We present these considerations, not as representing our own views, but as contributing to round out the discussion. The other side hardly needs any statement. Our readers have no doubt already had in their minds the distinction between amateurs and "professionals"—those who play, write, or do anything else for pleasure, and those who do it for pay; have been asking themselves whether it is not fair that they should pay "gate money" in literature as well as in base-ball playing; and perhaps further, why the English actor or the German singer who comes over here and amuses or delights us, should get a recompense, and the English author whose books come over here, should get none.

—A work so admirable in plan and complete in execution as Kürschner's 'Litteratur-Kalender,' of which the sixth annual issue lies before us, must be indispensable to the literary men of Germany and highly useful to those of other countries. A similar work for English authors would perhaps be even more useful to us than this is to the Germans, but we fear there will never be sufficient *esprit de corps* among us to make possible such an undertaking. Mr. Kürschner's calendar is a 16mo of 488 pages, printed in the smallest, and therefore most unreadable, German type. Of the 488 pages, 303 are devoted to an alphabetical list of living German authors, each entry giving the name, principal works, date of birth, and—the most important thing—the post-office address. In the list are included professors and journalists, but, even with these, a foreigner is surprised to learn, great as is our respect for the intellectual activity of Germany, that the German literary profession numbers no fewer than 19,350 persons, of whom 18,142 have no other means of livelihood. Of the number first given, only 350 are women. To judge by some further statistics, the pecuniary reward is in inverse proportion to the number, since the 19,000 have families numbering 14,813 persons, but only 1,616 house-servants. The remaining pages are occupied with a necrology of 1883, lists of journals and publishers, the text of the French copyright treaty and a long legal opinion on copyright law, and reports, at considerable length, of various literary societies.

—That the advocates of a reform in German orthography are even more active than reformers of our own language is manifest from two publications on our table—*Reform*, the organ of the "Society for the Simplification of German Orthography," published monthly at Norden, (Prussia), and the annual 'Kalender des algemeinen fereins für fereinfachte deutsche rechtschreibung,' published by the Bremen branch society. The calendar is the sixth of its series, and *Reform* is in its eighth volume, although it seems that the society has only with the present year begun to make its organ accessible to the general public. The January number at first glance seems not what it is—that is to say, the leading article, stating the aims of the new movement, retains the old orthography, while the "practical part" is a sort of compromise between the old and the new, and only the "theoretical portion" (a very small one) shows the new method in its true colors. Briefly stated, its leading features are: but one written alphabet—the Roman; abolishment of capital letters, except in proper nouns and at the beginning of a sentence; no doubling of consonants in one syllable, and no letters to denote lengthened sounds; single signs for *ch* and *sch;* suppression of the superfluous *c*, *y*, *ph*, *sz*, *rh*, *x*, *w*, and *q;* *F* assumes the functions of *v*, which takes the place of *w*. The old rule, "Write as you correctly speak," is supposed to be the basis of the new orthography, which certainly in most respects recommends itself to native as well as foreign students of the German language. However, should the new method ever come to be generally accepted, it will be because the rule, "Write as you correctly speak," has been supplemented by the counter rule, "Speak as you correctly write." For the question, What is the correct way of speaking? meets us on looking at the commonest words in their new dress. Is "unt" and not "und" really the proper pronunciation, "hantlung" and not "handlung," "apsetzen" and not "absetzen"? (By the way, why setzen and not sezen?) Is no distinction to be made between "das" and "dass"? "Weksel" for "Wechsel" may be generally welcomed, but will "hökster" for "höchster" be? And who is to be our guide in the pronunciation of proper nouns, especially those belonging to foreign nations and to the past? Is it really necessary to introduce to the world, as the calendar does, in the "transition" spelling, a modernized "Oliwer Kromwel," a "Walter Skot," a "Moro"—the last all the stranger to the eye because Turenne and Béranger are preserved in their entirety? It would seem as if native names offered difficulties enough to German reformers, judging from the contradictory "Wircho" and "Basedow."

—There can no longer be any doubt that our continent owes its name to the German schoolmaster at St.-Dié, in Lorraine—Mr. Waldseemüller, or (in Greek) Hylacomylos, as he habitually called himself. We have been told repeatedly how his enthusiasm for Amerigo Vespucci's pretended discoveries was aroused by the young geographer Ringmann; we have heard how Waldseemüller, in his 'Cosmographiæ Introductio,' in the year 1507, spoke of a fourth continent, and added: "Why should we not call it the land of Amerigo or America, since it has been discovered by Amerigo?" and how Hylacomylos was thus the first who ever used the word "America." But not only is the inventor of the name of "America" a German, the word itself is radically German. "Amerigo" *may* be the Italian form of the German "Amalrîch," which we find as the name of a famous king of the Goths, and again in the 'Nibelungenlied' (st. 1488, etc.), and elsewhere; and in this case there would exist a close relation between the name of America and the name of the Swiss village of Amriswil (Amelricheswilare). While this is very probable, we may say *for certain* that the Italian "Amerigo" was considered, in the earliest remnants of German literature, as the equivalent of the German "Heinrich," "Heimrîch." One of the most celebrated bearers of this name was, for example, the Count of Narbonne, Amerigo II., who in the *chanson de geste Guillaume d'Orange* appears as Aymeri de Narbone. Wolfram von Eschenbach, one of the greatest poets of the German middle ages, bases his "Willehalm" on a part of the *chanson de geste* just mentioned, and says in the introduction to this poem:

> "Diz maere ist wâr, doch wunderlîch,
> *Von Narbôn grâf Heimrîch*
> Alle sîne süne verstiez," etc.

—In view of this equivalence, "Amerigo=Aymeri=Heimrîch," we might give the German form for America as "Heinricha" or "Heinzia," or, for people who like the still fashionable mixture of French and German, "Henrietta." Whether Amalrich or Heinrich be taken as the true equivalent of Amerigo, the latter is undoubtedly of German origin; and this fact cannot surprise any one who is acquainted with the history of the time when the German nation was the only great Power in the world, and when German proper names were used among all civilized nations. We might add that even in modern times the origin of the name of many a celebrated man outside of Germany is hardly disguised by its foreign dress—*e. g.*, Garibaldi is the German Garbald (Spear-bold); Umberto is the German Hunbert (Hun-bright, *i. e.*, Giant-bright); Leopardi is the German Leutwart (Folk-warder); and one of those German scholars who hear the grass grow has lately found out that the great French statesman Adolphe Thiers was of German descent, and properly ought to have written his name Adolf Dieterle!

—Few books of exploration present, in shape, print, maps, illustrations, and especially in their list of contents, as attractive an appearance as Karl Eugen von Ujfalvy's latest book of travel, 'Aus dem westlichen Himalaja,' published by Brockhaus in Leipzig (1884). The principal regions traversed by Ujfalvy in this his third Asiatic journey, begun in the spring of 1881, are those of northwestern India, Cashmere, Dardistan, and Little Thibet; and his range of observation embraces, besides anthropology, ethnology, archæology in the widest sense, and linguistics—his special branches of study—almost everything that engages the attention of a wide-awake traveller. In his second journey,

undertaken in 1880, he made an attempt to penetrate into the same regions from the north, through Russian Turkestan and across the Hindu Kush, but was prevented from achieving his object by unexpected obstacles. In his preface he remembers the late General Kaufmann, the then Russian Governor-General of Turkestan, with unmitigated contempt. Kaufmann probably treated Ujfalvy as a countryman of the Russophobist Vámbéry, although he travelled under the auspices of the French Government, being a French citizen, and, since 1871, a professor at the Lycée Henri IV. Ujfalvy is a Hungarian by descent and sentiment—and his name betrays him as such, especially when written out with its often misprinted complement "de Mezö-Kövesd"; but he was born in Vienna (in 1842), received a German education, and writes his works, which are equally numerous and important, not in Magyar but in French, or exceptionally in German, like the one before us. We followed the wording of the German title-page in giving his name above, but "Charles-Eugène de" would perhaps be more appropriate than "Karl Eugen von." The Magyar equivalent—Károly Jenö, without the particle indicative of nobility, which the termination of the family name renders superfluous—would have, according to the rules of the language, to be placed after "Ujfalvy." The explorer writes in a pleasant German style, remarkable for conciseness, and his volume is, for a work combining scientific discourse and amusing description, far from bulky. Throughout these travels, which were not without arduous labor or danger, he was accompanied by his wife. They brought home quite a museum of ethnological and artistic curiosities, which is alluded to with a kind of naïve self-congratulation. In his way of talking of his achievements, Ujfalvy frequently reminds one of Vámbéry, whom he, more patriotically than correctly, calls his "great countryman."

—An audience that occupied every seat in the Academy of Music and much of the standing room, assembled on Thursday to hear a performance by the Oratorio Society of Bach's great Passion Music according to St. Matthew. This fact is worthy of special attention, as it shows that people are getting over their superstitious dread of Bach, who has long been looked upon as a sort of abstruse musical Hegel. It cannot be denied that Bach often does give his hearers polyphonic puzzles to unravel. For the enjoyment of his music the mind must be in an active, not a passive state. One cannot sit down and lazily indulge in it as one does in an Italian aria or a hot bath. It is more like swimming against a mountain stream, and the subsequent effect is equally exhilarating, as compared with the languid feeling that follows a hot bath. Those who do follow Bach in an attentive manner and understand all his subtle processes, cannot save themselves from the fate of becoming enthusiasts. The singers who are obliged to study his music all become affected in this way, and with the audiences it is only a question of time and repetition. When Beethoven, toward the end of his life, became acquainted with the exhumed vocal treasures of Bach he exclaimed, "Not Bach (brook), but Ocean should be his name"; so inexhaustible are his musical resources and so profound his originality. Bach has exerted an enormous influence on all modern composers—especially on Schumann, Franz, Saint-Saëns, and Wagner; and it is to a large extent the light reflected from their works that makes Bach more and more intelligible to us It is to be hoped that the time is at hand when we shall have an annual performance in this city not only of the St. Matthew's Passion, but of the sublime B minor Mass and others of Bach's works. Of the five Passions which he is supposed to have written, the one according to St. Matthew, which was given last week, is justly considered the best; but the one according to St. John is almost equal to it in beauty, and by no means deserves the neglect which is its lot even in North Germany. In these Passions it is not easy to say what deserves the most admiration—the majestic chorales, which were originally intended to be sung by the congregation; the expressive recitatives; the quaint and beautiful orchestral part; the chaste and simple solo melodies, or the highly dramatic and wonderfully constructed choruses. No composer has ever written more charming violin or oboe obligatos than those which were on Thursday assigned to two members of the orchestra, and the final chorus of the work is of an inspiring grandeur that has never since been equalled except in the third act of "Die Meistersinger." The performance was meritorious, considering the difficulty of the task. In accordance with a request on the programme, applause was abstained from, which added much to the dignity and impressiveness of the concert.

LEA'S SACERDOTAL CELIBACY.

Historical Sketch of Sacerdotal Celibacy in the Christian Church. By Henry C. Lea. 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

AFTER an interval of seventeen years the second edition of Mr. Lea's unique volume is offered to the public. It differs from the earlier one mainly in the addition of material in the chapters upon the Church of to-day, bringing the account down to its latest phase in the establishment of civil marriage and the attempt to rescue education from the hands of a celibate clergy.

The author has become well known to students of mediæval, and especially of ecclesiastical, history by his vigorous and scholarly investigation in these fields. His manner of working is to select some one narrow topic, and to pursue this through all the phases of its origin, development, and, perhaps, decline. This is a method which has great advantages, but also great dangers. It serves to hold more firmly before the mind of the author and, therefore, of the reader the one aspect of human life which is under consideration, whereas in more general works it becomes often impossible to bring out clearly such a story of development, and the reader is left in doubt and confusion on the very points he would especially like to be clear about. Monographic writing, if well done, forms the necessary complement to more general study. But, on the other hand, there is danger that the author's mind, becoming completely filled with the narrow subject he has chosen, may lose the power of seeing its wider relations and of rightly estimating its value as a factor in the history of its time.

The book before us illustrates often the advantages and rarely the dangers of the historical monograph. It is the result of a vast amount of patient labor, of endless reading in almost the whole range of Church history, directed to the single object of showing how the institution of priestly celibacy grew, culminated, and declined. It was, moreover, work in an almost unbroken field, for the unwieldly volumes of the brothers Theiner were, so far as we know, the only attempt of modern scholarship to deal with the subject. This mass of material Mr. Lea has not only read and noted, but digested; so that what might easily have degenerated into an unreadable jumble of scattered notes appears as a well-ordered whole, so carefully arranged in its divisions that one has little difficulty in holding the thread of the narrative. Nor has he forgotten that the institution he is describing does not stand alone, but is only one manifestation of a grandly conceived and powerfully executed plan to build up throughout the Christian world a government of a priesthood which should claim for itself the unquestioning allegiance of mankind. The Roman argument that what is, always has been (only, perhaps, in some modified form), is sufficient to prop up its most absurd pretensions in the minds of a vast majority among the persons it addresses. It can be met only as Luther met it, by showing from the plain evidence of history that the argument is a mere assumption, and false at that. History has been telling more and more plainly now these many years that all institutions are but growths, developing and ripening as the times need; and further, that only in so far as institutions rest upon this demand can they hope for permanence and vigor. If any proof were wanting as to the value of this historic method, the mass of lies cast into the form of history and circulated by the Roman Church as its best defence, would abundantly supply it. Herein consists the great value of Mr. Lea's work. It moves on in a line of evidence so closely twisted, it draws so plainly the distinction between temporary usefulness and divine inspiration, that any who will may follow the claims to the essential character of priestly celibacy, and see how wide is the distance from the fact to the dogma.

Celibacy originated in the Christian Church as it has originated in many another church, from purely natural and easily discernible causes. Though many of the aspects of early Christian monachism remind one of the older systems of the East, we doubt whether Mr. Lea has not gone too far in supposing a direct connection between them. Is it not enough to think, in the absence of direct evidence, that the earliest forms of Christian asceticism arose from a simple and natural desire after the higher life, and the mistaken fancy that all physical life, not to say all physical indulgence, was a thing lower and therefore less worthy than the life of the spirit? The step from this notion to that of the incompatibility of the two was a natural and easy one. The less of the physical or temporal, the more of the spiritual or eternal. Once started, this idea could hardly fail to grow vigorously in the favoring soil of the Eastern Church. The expressions of opinion in favor of celibacy, if the person were inclined to it and capable of maintaining it, are almost as old as the Church itself. But it is long before anything like a prohibition of marriage among clergymen can be found. Even when these appear, they touch first upon second marriages, and only later come to the real issue. The conspicuous silence of the Council of Nicæa, well established by Mr. Lea in a vigorous chapter, proves the slight importance of the doctrine at that day. Not until late in the fourth century do we find regular and general decrees against priestly marriage. But even then it is clear that such decrees were not supported by the general feeling of Christendom. One cannot but be impressed with the revolt of sound human nature against this unnatural attempt. In spite of repeated decrees, the priest remained a man.

A powerful impulse was given to the cause of celibacy by the establishment in the sixth century of the Benedictine order. The rapid growth of monasticism in the West brought out a new rivalry between regular and secular clergy. In self-defence the latter were compelled to emulate the ascetic rigor of the former. However the priests themselves might resist, it was clear that the common people were generally deeply impressed by the superior sanctity of the monk. The priest, then, must show him-

self capable of the same restraint to be worthy of the same allegiance.

But soon priest and monk alike began to prove the inherent falseness of the principle they affected to maintain. Corruption crept into the monasteries, and made necessary reform after reform. Indeed, the establishment of new orders had hardly any other meaning than this, that the old orders had departed from their purity and needed to be reinforced by more vigorous blood. So it was with the priesthood. Popes, synods, temporal sovereigns, combined in vain in a great effort at reform. What had been but a violation of discipline was branded as heresy, and, with a singular reversion to what had been itself, ever since the Donatist revolt, regarded as heretical, the Church declared the married priest incapable of conveying to the layman the mystic benefit of the sacraments. The priest who kept a harem of concubines was simply guilty of a venial sin, which did not vitiate his act as priest; it was the act of marriage, with its more deliberate declaration of principle, which the Church could not tolerate.

The reasons for this attitude of the Church are thoroughly grasped and well described by Mr. Lea. It was not merely the critical sentiment as to the purity of the priest that urged Hildebrand to action. He saw, with his keen statesman's eye, the whole breadth of the danger which threatened if benefices were to become the property of priests and to be transferred by inheritance to their sons. If benefices were first to be bought, and then used as a means of equipping sons or portioning daughters—as was in fact often done—then there was an end to the whole conception of the Church as made up of men who owed their place and their power solely to their sacramental consecration. It was this clear conception of the evil which gave its force to the assault of Gregory VII., and his work forms naturally the culminating point of Mr. Lea's recital.

The greatest difficulty in getting at the truth on the whole subject is in the fact that almost all the material is buried in the writings of orthodox churchmen. The individuals and sects opposed to the institution of celibacy have left so little written evidence that they have hardly a word to answer to the charges of immorality and of heresy heaped upon them by their notorious enemies. But for this very reason such scraps of evidence as can be gathered from the voluminous literature of persecution have a value doubly great. Such a word as that of Damiani, for instance, that the Lombard clergy, excepting for their damning sin of marriage, were as angels of light in a corrupt age, may well outweigh volumes of anathema. And the same might be said of the ghastly calendar of unspeakable monastic crimes which Damiani presented to Pope Leo IX. as a spur to his reforming energy, without the shadow of an idea that these evils were a part of the monastic system, and not merely a laxity which stricter discipline might remove. Such bits of unconscious testimony as these reveal a state of mind so utterly different from our own, a conception of right and wrong so confused and so inadequate, that one must feel a positive debt of gratitude to the author who has been able to bring some light and order out of this chaos of religious, political, and social ideas.

From the time of Hildebrand it is not too much to say that no change takes place in the question of celibacy. More and more the conviction grew that it was essential to the true life of the Church, but, almost in proportion to the theoretical abandonment of marriage, other forms of sexual indulgence came to be regarded as the privilege of the priest, until, in the hideous comedy of a Borgian papacy, every veil of decency was cast aside. Perhaps in no respect does the Catholic Church owe a larger debt to the Protestant Reformation than in this. Placed upon its defence, it has been forced to a standard of morality higher than its own. In just the proportion that the Roman Church is subject to this pressure from without, it can maintain its artificial standard of virtue. Just so far as it becomes dominant, it will find this standard ineffectual to save it from the deeps of degrading vice.

SEELEY'S WALPOLE.

Horace Walpole and His World. Select Passages from His Letters. Edited by L. B. Seeley, M. A. With eight illustrations after Sir Joshua Reynolds and Sir Thomas Lawrence. Scribner & Welford. 1884.

WHETHER Horace Walpole had in fact the soul of a gentleman-usher, as Macaulay sneeringly wrote, and as he himself lightly suggested might have been the case in his state of preëxistence, he certainly fills the office of one to posterity. He was the principal chronicler of fashionable society in the latter half of his century, and he introduces his lords and ladies with a suavity unusual in English diarists, and with an air and an enjoyment quite professional. The company itself was very agreeable. True, it was not literature alone that had so declined in those days as to justify a cold regard such as he expressed for it—"Don't tell me I am grown old and peevish and supercilious—name the geniuses of 1774, and I submit." Society, too, had degenerated. That century was the fl wering time of the aristocracy; but, when Walpole wrote his multitudinous letters, the prime had passed. In the earlier hour, in Peterborough and Ormond, Bolingbroke, Pulteney, and Carteret, there had been a nobler manner and a finer intelligence. The world of Horace Walpole was bent only on enjoying itself mostly in the frivolous way that was the habit of the more decent portion of society to which his attention is confined; Fox's habits are mentioned only to be deplored, Queensbury is just heard of, Grafton is not named. Here are misses who dance, dowagers who play loo, and gentlemen—but really next to none of that sex can be found in Walpole's work as set forth by the present editor. The set he moved in, it would seem, was distinctly feminine, notwithstanding the fact that he had a poet and an antiquary, as well as men of affairs and fashion, among his correspondents. Indeed, Walpole's intellects could not be compressed within the narrow interests of his social clique—he was a larger man than most of those he knew; and Mr. Seeley, in confining his extracts from the vast correspondence almost exclusively to the topics of high life, and then labelling a confraternity of old women and young girls "Horace Walpole's world," has made a grave error in the perspective of his hero's life. The indefatigable scribbler, who was besides a voluminous author, not only meant to intrust his fame to this body of letters as his chief hope of immortality, but also took pains to select his correspondents, like characters for a play, with a regard to their grouping and function. Sir Horace Mann was his politician, Mason his littérateur, etc. In Mr. Seeley's volume, unfortunately, the letters are mostly of the sort their author called newspapers of London gossip, and all others are subordinated. The consequence is that he really wears somewhat more closely than he deserves the character of the gentleman-usher with which he has been reproached.

Horace Walpole was, however, preëminently a man of society. He had been well taken care of, at the public expense, by his father, before Sir Robert went out of office, and was therefore (being, moreover, a bachelor) always free from pecuniary trouble, and eventually became wealthy. He was unable to hunt, unwilling to gamble, uninured to getting drunk, and consequently had spirits for some intellectual pursuits and leisure to follow them. He built his castle at Strawberry Hill, and, being one of the most restless virtuosos of his age, filled it with curiosities and made it one of the wonders of England—a shrine for holiday visitors, native and foreign. He was distinguished, too, by many characteristic tastes of the ruling mode. He liked a broad landscape, spotted with gardens and arbors, with stretches of lawn and river, diversified by moving objects. "A park wall," he writes, "with ivy on it and fern near it, and a back parlor in London in summer, with a dead creeper and a couple of sooty sparrows, are my strongest ideas of melancholy solitude." He was sufficiently sensible, however, to protest against the absurdity of attempting the pastoral life, by way of amusement, even in the greenest of the Thames's meadows—the Elysian fields at Stowe:

"I could not help laughing as I surveyed our troop, which, instead of tripping lightly to such an Arcadian entertainment, were hobbling down by the balustrades, wrapped up in cloaks and greatcoats, for fear of catching cold. The Earl, you know, is bent double—the Countess very lame; I am a miserable walker, and the Princess, though as strong as a Brunswick lion, makes no figure in going down fifty stone stairs. Except Lady Anne, and by courtesy Lady Mary, we were none of us young enough for a pastoral. We supped in the grotto, which is as proper to this climate as a sea-coal fire would be in the dog-days at Tivoli."

This gives one a sympathetic shiver, remembering modern attempts at the *al fresco* in our own country-seats; but the law and gospel of our climate is promulgated elsewhere, in a passage that affords a vivid outlook on the gradual change which was then already beginning to convert the old England into the seemingly endless park and garden it has in many districts now become:

"Our poets learnt their trade of the Romans, and so adopted the terms of their masters. They talk of shady groves, purling streams, and cooling breezes, and we get sore throats and agues with attempting to realize their visions. Master Damon writes a song and invites Miss Chloe to enjoy the cool of the evening, and never a bit have we of any such thing as a cool evening. Zephyr is a northeast wind, that makes Damon button up his chin, and pinches Chloe's nose till it is red and blue; and then they cry, *This is a bad summer!* as if we ever had any other. The best sun we have is made of Newcastle coal, and I am determined never to reckon upon any other. We ruin ourselves with inviting over foreign trees, and making our houses clamber up hills to look at prospects. How our ancestors would laugh at us, who knew there was no being comfortable unless you had a high hill before your nose, and a thick, warm wood at your back. Taste is too freezing a commodity for us, and, depend upon it, will go out of fashion again."

The grottos, and gardens, and pastorals have indeed gone out of fashion with the poets to whom they furnished their stock of nature; but the pretty prospects and the cultivated plots, which then only bordered a few miles of the Thames, have now spread over the island, and are a sign that the England of Walpole has well-nigh passed away. Change has not been confined to the face of the English landscape. Accustomed as we are to think that there is an extraordinary gulf between the French republic and the *ancienne noblesse*, modern England is nevertheless really quite as remote from the aristocracy of which this gentleman of mingled town taste and home-bred sense was once a dilettante. Then, as he relates, the mob would follow the beautiful Gunning sisters in crowds, and pleased itself with making the quality stop their coaches and unmask on the way to the great subscrip-

tion ball which the House of Commons had adjourned to attend. Occasionally a Lord George Gordon riot might alarm the capital, but, like the shock of the earthquake he ridiculed, it would only wake the nobility to make falling to sleep again more comfortable. Robbery on the highway was very common even under the windows of the palace, and the ladies who ventured out to see one another after dusk went well enough armed, in his phrase, to capture Gibraltar.

These things are commonly known as history, but in Walpole's pages they are still acting, and have the character of adventure. Within his own day there were some changes that seemed to him great, but political rather than social, unless among the latter be reckoned the gradual postponement of the dinner hour from 5 o'clock, and the encroachment of the evening on the morning, which prompts him to say he "has outlived daylight." He saw, for example, the rebel lords of '45 beheaded, and made a fine letter out of the scene, and he lived until after the widow of the Pretender was presented to the Hanoverian Queen at court. If the angels have any sense of humor, he remarks, men must make them excellent sport. They—the changeable mortals—do not play fewer tricks before high heaven in the present time; but there have been so many reforms in the last hundred years that Horace might now be greatly shocked at the revolution of which he felt the premonitions. His occupation as newsmonger for the ladies and historiographer for generations unborn, would be gone, as well as the profitable sinecures that rained money into his purse. There would be no more frolics of bold young ladies and rakish youth at Ranelagh, no highwaymen, no Madame du Deffand, and (we greatly fear, at the present price of bric-à-brac) no curiosity shop at Strawberry Hill. The nobler qualities of Walpole's character, consequently (for we always instinctively judge our grandfathers by our own ideals), need to be insisted on if he is to have any respect. One must momentarily forget that he was a reporter of small affairs, a collector of rarities, a Platonic friend of old *mesdames*, and adoptive uncle of pretty girls, and especially that financially and politically he was an intolerable and crying abuse. Then it can be remembered that he helped to revive the taste for Gothic architecture, inaugurated a new (though bad) school of fiction, was the friend of America throughout her troubles, and denounced the slave-trade before Wilberforce was born. His life, fussy as much of it was, had a window or two open on the future; and though he tittle-tattled a good deal, and in particular was liable to that unfortunate misconstruction which a very virtuous gallant with a very white face is always subject to, though, in fact, he was exposed to contempt, and did much in an old-womanish way to deserve it, he certainly wrote very entertaining letters.

These letters have always ranked high since Byron and Scott said they were classic. They are excellently written, and when the subject is good they are delightful, being vivid, amiable, quick, seasoned with allusion, point, and anecdote. But whether they will keep their rank may be questioned. This selection does not do them justice: the editor has given a picture of the times, not characteristic letters of Walpole for their own sake. Those times were very entertaining to Scott and Byron, who lived near them and were aristocrats by taste; but to the world they are the least interesting of English history, and Walpole's associates played but little parts on the stage. "The world he lived in," as the editor calls it, will assuredly grow less attractive. Even now Selwyn and Queensbury are nearly as dead as Sedley and Rochester of a hundred years before; and can the beautiful baby faces in these portraits outlive the finished gallant and the notorious debauchee? Why, Walpole's "world" was commonplace in its own day. The defect in these letters, as classical compositions, is their lack of freshness. They are a chronicle of faded things—finery, ambitions, sentiments, gossip, criticisms, beaux, dames, and nephews, all musty, and dry, and rubbishy. They do not reveal a nature like Cowper's, nor treasure up refinement, sense, and scholarly associations like Gray's. Invaluable to the historian, and to lovers of old French memoirs, they are not classic in the sense that Cowper's and Gray's letters are—in the sense of being invaluable to the highly-cultivated man. So far as the society they picture is concerned, the candles were burnt out and the play was done long ago. They are the quintessential spirit of worldliness—the form and feature of the world of which it was anciently said the fashion of it passeth away. They belong to the antiquary; they no longer touch life.

TEXT-BOOKS FOR LATIN.

Latin Grammar and Junior Scholarship Papers. By the Rev. J. H. Raven, M.A. London: Rivingtons. 1883.

T. Macci Plauti Trinummus. With Notes and Introduction. By C. E. Freeman, M.A., and the Rev. A. Sloman, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1883.

A First Latin Book. By D. Y. Comstock, A.M. Boston: John Allyn. 1883.

The Greater Poems of Virgil. Vol. II. Containing the last six books of the Æneid and the Georgics. By J. B. Greenough. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1884.

Livy, Books XXI.–XXV. The Second Punic War. Translated into English with Notes. By Alfred John Church, M.A., and William Jackson Brodribb, M.A. With maps. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

Cicero de Officiis. Translated, with an Introduction and Notes, by Andrew P. Peabody. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

The Annals of Tacitus. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Henry Furneaux, M.A. Vol. I. Books I.–VI. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1884.

We have on our table a collection of text-books for Latin, from American and English editors, which have been accumulating for some time, and can in most cases receive but cursory notice. Mr. Raven's is a neat little book, and will furnish useful material to teachers for questions in practical drill; but the words "Latin Grammar" must be construed much more widely than is customary in American schools. A large number of the questions are in translation from English into Latin and *vice versa*, or on the calendar, coinage, etc., in those parts of a grammar which boys read when they do not feel like getting lessons in it. Messrs. Freeman and Sloman's 'Trinummus' gives this favorite play of Plautus in an excellent form for college use. It is of course based on Ritschl and Brix, as every new edition of Plautus for some time will have to be. There are copious stage directions, founded on the experience of the actual presentation of the play at Westminster School, a performance which, we can testify from personal experience, will light up the "Trinummus" wonderfully even for those who read it under the Pope Professor at Harvard College.

Professor Greenough's edition of the last six books of the Æneid and of the Georgics of Virgil has the fault that all second volumes and last parts of school editions have: the notes are far too meagre. These poems are among the very hardest Latin there is, although the old absurdity of reading the Georgics in preparation for college, instead of putting them in the sophomore or junior year, still rules in some of our institutions. It is to us inconceivable that Mr. Greenough should take a pupil through Turnus's defiance in the ninth book, or Evander's or Diomedes's speeches in the eleventh, without ten times as much explanation as he here puts into his notes. The fact is, a large part of his notes to these books, as well as to the other portion, seem rather the points that have struck him as interesting in his private study than those needed to help a class.

The plan of Mr. Comstock's 'First Latin Book' is avowedly different from that of most primary manuals. He considers them too meagre, and believes that on beginning a language there should be accessible a full explanation of all difficulties likely to arise. His book is thus composed of an introductory treatise on general or English grammar, a very full Latin accidence and syntax, and abundant exercises in writing and translation founded on the first book of Cæsar, with notes and a vocabulary. In our opinion its elaborateness makes it likely to be a perplexing book for beginners; and it is further complicated by references to several of the grammars most in use in our classical schools. This, though a common practice, we cannot help thinking a mistaken one: a book for beginners should be capable of the fullest use, without reference to any other manual, however popular.

Messrs. Church and Brodribb are well known as editors and translators of Tacitus. They give us here the first half of Livy's third decade in English, with notes and excursuses on the relations of Rome and Carthage, Livy, Hannibal's character, his passage of the Alps, and Syracuse. This translation is much more likely to be used as a labor-saving machine by those to whom the labor is useful, than to give an idea of the author to those who make no pretence at Latin. For both it seems to us to have the same disadvantages—mainly a want of simplicity. There is an affectation of raciness in the vocabulary which is very unlike Livy, and at the same time his periodic and interlocked sentences might be broken up far more than they are, and the antithesis in many cases better indicated. The whole work seems to be that of bookmakers.

Dr. Peabody's translation of 'Cicero de Officiis' is distinctly a labor of love. He may truly say of it what Cicero said of all books: "Hæc studia nobiscum peregrinantur"—Tully has been his travelling companion for years. Cicero is, beyond doubt, the most modern of the ancients, and his work on Duties is the best summary of the ancient morality in theory, just before its utter dissolution in practice. At a time when summer philosophers are talking about ancient thought decidedly beyond knowledge, Dr. Peabody comes forward to present this standard and most readable treatise in English—English for the general reader, neither the schoolboy nor the scholar. His preface, on ancient ethical theories in general, is very sound; and he concludes it, in explanation of his own principles of translation, with a very shrewd remark on the use of particles in Latin and Greek. Written as these languages were in letters of one size, without division of words, and very few stops, he shows that the particles are frequently recurring catchwords, meant for the eye, and only a disfigurement in English translation.

Mr. Furneaux's 'Tacitus' is a truly magnificent book, and the examination that we have been able to give it indicates that it is as thorough as it is handsome. The first six books of Tacitus's

'Annals,' derived from a single very corrupt and broken MS., are second to no Latin classic in interest for the most casual reader, and in perplexing problems for the scholar. The editor begins by an introduction divided into nine chapters, five relating to the genuineness of the work, and the style and temper of the author, and four to the constitution of the early Empire and the condition of the Imperial household. A large part of these essays are of course merely compilation of what has been before noted, but they exhibit great judgment in collecting and arranging, and an entire independence of thought in their massing, instead of that weak worship of the "last German" so common in Western editions. But those essays in which erudition is a secondary, and judgment a primary matter, show that Mr. Furneaux has really taken hold of the Tacitean problems and thought out his own solution, in a way very unusual with recent editors. We commend Essays VII., "On the general administration of the Roman world," and VIII., "On the character of Tiberius," as illustrating his skill in grouping facts and drawing inferences. The notes which follow are in the main exegetical. The introductory essays, especially that on style, are liberally referred to, and no point of interest is neglected. Unlike most English editors, Mr. Furneaux makes but sparing use of translation to explain hard points, and is much more liberal of analytical sentences; nor does he, as far as we have been able to see, deal in that affected scouring of the English language in all its ages to express the Latin by some very precise equivalents, which no writer would ever use now. The whole volume appears to us scholarly, practical, and dignified—worthy of Oxford and of Tacitus.

Unser Reichskanzler: Studien zu einem Charakterbilde. Von Moritz Busch. Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 2 vols., 454, 438. 1884.

Dr. Busch's new book on Bismarck will hardly rival his former one in popularity. Its aim is professedly to furnish the materials for a complete portrait of the German Chancellor, but instead of furnishing anything new it only collects what was already easily accessible in print. Each of its twelve chapters is devoted to throwing light upon some particular phase of Bismarck's career and character: thus, one treats of his religious views, another of his treatment of the French, another of his attitude towards Austria; one regards him as an orator and humorist, another in his family relations, and so on. The method pursued is to give extracts from his speeches and letters, interspersed with comments, disquisitions, and explanations, without omitting copious passages from the author's previous book. Indeed, so far is Dr. Busch from hesitating to repeat himself that in this work he prints many things twice, some of which he had himself published before. To give but a single instance: on page 271 of the first volume and on page 99 of the second volume the reader finds the same identical story of how Bismarck threatened Thiers with a restoration of Napoleon III. if the demands of Germany were not complied with. When it is added that there are other superfluities (such as disquisitions on diplomatic abuses and on the communistic agitation) which have no bearing on the subject, it ceases to surprise us that what purports to be a mere "sketch" should assume the appalling proportions of nearly a thousand pages, destitute of an index.

Nevertheless, although lacking the charm of novelty to which the book on 'Bismarck and His People' owed so much of its great success, and although Bismarck has laid himself open to much criticism during the past five or six years, and has diminished the number of his ardent admirers, the present work is by no means devoid of interest. It is an adroit vindication of Bismarck's course and integrity from every aspersion. The extracts from his public utterances are skilfully collated so as to demonstrate his unfailing patriotism and sagacity, and his superiority at all times to his political opponents. The latter are taunted, more than once, with intimations of what would have happened to Germany if, at various critical periods during the past thirty years, their views had prevailed, as contrasted with the actual results of Bismarck's policy. It is, after all, in these results that the statesman will find his real vindication, and by its results also must his more recent policy be ultimately judged.

Distant observers who are disposed to do full justice to his great achievements, but who consider his economic and socialistic legislation a blunder, may find a solution of the enigma in Matthew Arnold's dictum concerning the qualities and the defects of an aristocracy. Bismarck is by birth, by education, by character, and by conviction an aristocrat. Before being a German he is a Prussian, and as a Prussian he is a faithful servitor of the house of Hohenzollern. A united Germany under the hegemony of Prussia, a monarchy in which the King not only reigns but also governs—these are the ideals which he has kept steadily in view and has realized. For parliamentary government he entertains a supreme contempt. While he admits that in England, where it has gradually grown with the growth of the nation and has been favored by the insular situation, it works reasonably well, he believes that on the European Continent it is bound to lead to republicanism, which to him is synonymous with anarchy. In home matters he plants himself squarely on the Prussian Constitution, which guarantees coördinate powers to the three branches of the Government as far as legislation is concerned, but concentrates the executive power in the hands of the King. That a court of law should be allowed to decide a question of constitutionality is to him a horrible absurdity. Government by parties he pronounces an impossibility in Germany because each party always tends to develop in the direction of its extremest wings. For himself, he says, he belongs to no party. His only guide is the public good—*salus publica*. Whatever party will coöperate with him for the welfare of the country he welcomes as a help, and when their roads diverge he seeks a new alliance. In 1873, when a more stringent press law was opposed by Lasker as being an invasion of the rights of the people, Bismarck replied: "We are all of us representatives of the people. I belong to the people, we all belong to the people, as well as the gentlemen who call themselves Liberals. I deny that there is any antagonism between the people and the Government." He is a firm believer in discipline, even in matters of diplomacy. The foreign ambassadors, he says, must file right or left, at the word of command, as if they were sergeants.

Although containing little or nothing that is absolutely new, the present work states a few things which are not generally known. One is that what actually led Bismarck to join in the *Kulturkampf* against the Vatican was not the Italian but the Polish question. The Roman Church brought the conflict on itself by the zeal with which it labored to foster the Polish elements and repress the Germans in Silesia, and the Government was compelled to resort to energetic measures to counteract this injurious tendency. Again, we are told that in 1878 Marshal MacMahon was extremely desirous that Germany should be represented at the Paris Exposition, and although the Empress was in favor of the proposal, Bismarck succeeded in having it rejected. His reasons were that the German exhibitors would be exposed to all manner of dangers and insults, which might ultimately lead to international complications and disturbances. There is, further, a long and interesting extract from a speech in which Bismarck gave an account of his intercourse with Lassalle, whom he calls one of the most amiable and intelligent men he ever met. "Lassalle was an energetic and highly intellectual man, with whom it was very instructive to converse. Our interviews lasted for hours, and I always viewed their termination with regret."

The extracts from the Chancellor's speeches evidence a familiarity not only with German and French, but also with English literature, even in its minor productions, and, although the world has never regarded him as an orator, his utterances have a vigorous homely air of common-sense more effective than the most labored rhetoric. The closing chapter gives an interesting account of Bismarck's powers as an athlete, of his proficiency in all manly exercises, of his good fortune as a hunter and sportsman, of his fondness for a country life, and of his success in farming his estates. If we are to believe the author, a simple idyllic existence, such as Pope depicts, is more to the taste of the Prince than an active political career; but even the most docile reader will refuse to honor so huge a draft on his credulity.

Italian Masters in German Galleries: a Critical Essay on the Italian Pictures in the Galleries of Munich, Dresden, Berlin. By Giovanni Morelli, Member of the Italian Senate. Translated from the German by Mrs. Louise M. Richter. London: George Bell & Sons.

Art criticism divides itself broadly into two branches—archæologic and æsthetic. The latter is an affair of sympathy with the artist's faculty of comprehending his purpose and of measuring his success in attaining it, and demands for its outfit a certain knowledge of the facts of nature and the laws of art, with a sufficient practical acquaintance with methods and processes to enable the critic to follow the artist through his work, and to judge of his success and the difficulties overcome in reaching it. The former is a matter of science, but science followed with a fine discrimination in the facts which form the foundation of it. This does not involve the capacity to pronounce judgment on the relative merits of an artist, or of works of art; it deals only with authenticity, with historical and chronological relations, and the lines of development of art and the schools of art. The capacity of the critic in one of these branches does not in the least imply his equal ability in the other. On the contrary, it can rarely happen that the man endowed with the scientific temper necessary for success in the archæology of art, and for patient collation of the requisite data, and with the impartial estimation of all painters and all schools which he must possess, will also have that degree of sympathy with the art of his time, and above all with new and yet unplaced art, which makes his criticism of it of distinct value. The union of high eminence in both branches is as unlikely as the analogous union in the same person of great scientific attainments and poetical excellence. There is no impossibility in the æsthetic critic acquiring the knowledge embraced in the archæology of art; but it is exceedingly improbable that the temper which fits him for one function would permit him to prepare himself for the other. At

all events, there is, so far as we know, no case on record of distinguished eminence of the same person in both branches, nor is there the least utility in such a combination. The æsthetic critic has to deal with new matter, and the ability to place it properly and with absolute justice depends on his freedom from prepossession and prejudice. He must measure Michael Angelo as if an unknown man, or how can he detect the yet unknown Michael Angelo? The passionate reverence of the hierarchy of art which makes its study a labor of love, is inconsistent with the free-thinking and radical temper of the critic, who must, if possible, ignore the weight of all tradition and the pressure of all authority, maintain the right of individual judgment, and measure Millet and Michael Angelo by the same standard. Even if the two so diverse qualifications should be united in one individual, there would not appear to be any gain—the law of specialties, indeed, indicating the advantage of their separation.

It is thus easy to understand why the Germans, so profound in their science and so patient and exhaustive in research, are so utterly inadequate in æsthetic criticism, narrow in judgment, bound up in conventionalities, and provincial, in what pertains to contemporary art; while the fact that an Italian critic, Senator Morelli, has been able to attack them successfully on their own ground, may possibly be, in part at least, due to his thorough acquaintance with and employment of German methods and research. His book—written in German, that those whom he virtually attacks might lose none of the force of his distinctions—is a model of archæological criticism; and although, unfortunately, limited to examination of the great German galleries, will leave an ardent hope in the mind of the reader that he may one day pass the great English, French, and Italian galleries through the same ordeal. The book is so compact and terse in its reasoning and collation of data, so exhaustive in its investigation of the material obtainable, that we admit without hesitation the claim of the author to have examined every picture accessible; and the minuteness and excellent method of his investigation, shown on every page of the book, carry conviction with them. His sarcastic deference to those arch-bunglers, Crowe and Cavalcaselle; his easy upsetting of Passavant; the lightness of the touch with which he overthrows Dr. Marggraff, are delightful. It is impossible to quote, but as an example of the best vein of archæological criticism we may take the investigation by which, if we are not too easily convinced, he develops the astounding fact that Raphael was really the pupil, not of Perugino but of Timoteo Viti, commonly believed to be his pupil, and only to have come into the studio of Perugino as an assistant about 1500.

The complete demonstration is too long to be quoted and too terse to be much abbreviated, but it shows that Perugino was not in Perugia for any considerable time between 1493 and 1500, while Raphael is said to have entered his studio in 1495; *per contra*, that Raphael had a warm friendship for Timoteo, a pupil of Francia, fifteen years the senior of the Urbinate, and already a prominent and delightful painter when Raphael began his studies; and that, as far as the indirect testimony of pictures and documents can go, it is the most probable conclusion that Raphael was a pupil of Timoteo until about 1500, when Perugino came to the comparatively steady occupation of his studio in Perugia. This demonstration is followed out with such logical concatenation of evidence, dates, and data, the result of an exhaustive investigation in every direction, that a new examination of all the material, the discovery of new information, or the demonstration of the falsification of Signor Morelli's data, alone can save Perugino his chief title to glory. Morelli's conclusion is that Raphael was the pupil of his friend and townsman during the period between 1495, when Timoteo came home from his studies under Francia, until 1500, when, already a tolerably accomplished painter, he entered the Peruginian studio; and that the oft-noted likeness between the work of the two was due to the boy of twelve having adopted the style of his friend of twenty-seven, rather than the reverse, as has been generally taken for granted.

"Now let me ask any unprejudiced and thinking student of art, is it seriously to be imagined that a talented artist like Timoteo, in his twenty-seventh year, after completing his years of study with Francia, would let himself be taken in hand and tutored by a boy of twelve? Is not exactly the opposite theory by far the likeliest?"

The argument is illustrated by facsimiles of various drawings, and Timoteo is shown to have displayed the characteristics which have caused him to be considered Raphael's pupil (and, in one case adduced, even caused one of his pictures to be accepted as Raphael's until documentary evidence was found which showed that it was Timoteo's) before Raphael's own style was formed and before he became a pupil of Perugino.

The study of Signor Morelli is certainly the most valuable contribution to the archæology of Italian art which the modern scientific spirit has brought out, and causes but one regret—that its field has been so circumscribed.

English Poetesses. A Series of Critical Biographies with Illustrative Extracts. By Eric S. Robertson, M.A. Cassell & Co. 1883.

"THERE are not less than sixty women in our own day," says Mr. Robertson, "who have written verse which would have attracted great attention a century ago"; and although he immediately adds that "we are being punished for the increase of poems by the decrease of poetry," the mere number of women who now profess literature is very significant of the change that has taken place within a hundred years in the intellectual condition of the sex. Mr. Robertson has not confined his attention to living poetesses, but has given a biographical sketch of all who can be regarded even by the most indulgent as having obtained any distinction, from "the matchless Orinda," Katherine Philips, to the more brilliant of the shining ephemera of the present moment.

On reading the volume, one is particularly impressed by the shocking mortality of poetic reputations among women; it is almost infantine. Of most of these poetesses the present generation is practically ignorant, for their works have perished, while their names survive for a little. Aphra Behn is a scandal to the sex; Mrs. Piozzi, Hannah Cowley, Mrs. Smith, Mrs. Norton, Miss Smedley, only the bookworm devours; Lady Mary Montagu is known as a letter-writer, Mrs. More (alas for her thirty volumes!) as a very respectable moralist, Miss Baillie as a Scotchwoman. Miss Anna Seward, "the Swan of Lichfield," who "from her earliest days cherished the notion of becoming a songstress"; Mrs. Opie, of whom it is here said "dukes and princes, and even kings, cherished her friendship with affection"; L. E. L., "the English Sappho"; Mrs. Southey, "the Cowper of poetesses"—who reads them now? In fact, the comparative weakness of women in poetic composition has suffered a very severe exposure in this revivification of expiring mediocrities. A few exquisite lines of Mrs. Barbauld's, some half-dozen beautiful Scotch ballads that have practically become anonymous, George Eliot's great hymn, and the uneven and inartistic works of Mrs. Browning are all of undoubtedly permanent worth that women have contributed to the second great age of English poetry. Mrs. Hemans and Miss Procter, touching as many of their compositions are, are receding names, and of Miss Rossetti and Miss Ingelow it is too soon to speak. Mr. Robertson himself is convinced, by the force of what seems his unpremeditated demonstration, that some general reason must underlie this ineffectiveness of woman's song, and he attempts an explanation; but as this, like nearly all the original work inserted in the interstices of his compilation, is superficial and commonplace, we shall not examine it. Of his thought and style some judgment may be made from a remark or two which light up his pages with unintended humor. Thus, of Mrs. Hemans he very truly says: "Her love-poetry may be said to be that of the domestic affections rather than that of the elective affinities by which the sublimest souls, with peril to themselves, grope for each other"; surely a natural characteristic, since we are informed that, "under the sheltering wing of her mother, Mrs. Hemans brought into the world a family of five sons." Sometimes, however, the author is altogether too spiritually profound. What does he mean, for example, by saying that "every birth is a try-back after innocence"? It is only as a convenient repertory of facts that his book is valuable.

Our American Cousins. By W. E. Adams. London: Walter Scott. 1883.

IF we go into any considerable public library we shall find rows of shelves covered with the works of American tourists in Europe. They were for the most part written from twenty-five to fifty years ago, when foreign travel was confined to comparatively few persons. To write now of an ordinary tour abroad would be very much like describing a trip from New York to Philadelphia. The tide has turned the other way, and it is the European traveller in the United States who gives his impressions to the world. But while the American traveller is attracted by art and architecture and the varied local color which history has given to the several nations, the European devotes his attention to two quite different problems: (1) What is the meaning of the political institutions under which this great democratic republic has grown to be such a figure in the world? and (2) What sort of homes are awaiting the vast swarm of emigrants, not by any means now limited to the poorer classes, who are pouring across the ocean? One reads with something like amusement the nearly uniform answer to the first question, whether proceeding from men like Spencer and Freeman, or our less ambitious author—which is, in substance, We give it up! As to the social question, the former class, while acknowledging the attentions which they receive, naturally miss the gradations of class which are suited to their tastes and habits. The hearty optimism of a man of the people is much more likely to influence the mind of a well-to-do citizen of Scotland or North England who, with a large and growing family, is wavering as to the chance of bettering their prospects in the new world. As the present book is a republication of letters to the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle*, they probably reached this class.

From his rosy views we concluded that the writer was a young man till we found him greeting a friend with whom he was engaged in political movements in England a quarter of a century ago. He goes so far as to say that hotel clerks are always civil and obliging, and is the first person whom we ever heard speak a good word for the boys who sell books, candy, prize

packages, and cigars in the cars, describing them as an "exceedingly useful institution." As there must, however, be a background to every picture, he has a chapter on murders, including reference to Guiteau and his trial, to the James boys, and to the general lawlessness, not even confined to the frontier States. In a foot-note he quotes the remark of his friend W. J. Linton, which seems to us to include more political philosophy, as applied to the United States, than the rest of the volume, or indeed than many volumes which have been written—namely, that our difficulty is "not in the occurrence of crime, but in the escape from punishment through laxity of law." The key to so much which puzzles foreigners among us is, that our people have not yet discovered that it is of not much use to make laws unless provision is also made for their enforcement; and that the science of administration, almost wholly neglected, is the one thing necessary to give to our Government, local as well as national, the assurance of permanent stability.

The chapter on the disposition of the public lands echoes a foreboding, which seems to be common among foreigners, that it is laying the foundation for a landed aristocracy. We cannot see any great occasion for alarm. Mr. Smith, the Liberal member for Liverpool, in an article in the *Contemporary*, points out that all the countries which have made most progress in civilization are just those where private ownership in land prevails, and that the most miserable conditions of society are those where land is held in common. However that may be elsewhere, our case is exceptional in two respects, first, that a simple system of transfer makes land just as salable as any other property; and, second, that the possession of land as such carries with it no special distinction, either social or political. Large farms are held in the newer States and Territories, because, with modern machinery, they pay; but we suspect that the tendency in the older States, which time will extend to the new, is to separation rather than aggregation of land-holding. The policy, so much condemned, of land-grants to railways has also two sides. In the first place, the grant is of alternate sections, so that the remainder receives a full equivalent in value either for the Government or its grantees; secondly, the railway cares nothing whatever for the political or social advantages of land-holding, nor is it tempted to hold for future value, but is anxious to sell as quickly and to as many people as possible, because the business thereby brought is of more value than the land itself; and lastly, the shareholders desire only that the lands shall be sold, and the results reach their pockets as quickly as possible in a money form. Railway feudalism is one of the smallest dangers that this country has to dread.

The topics which we have selected will show the character of the book, and we will add that it at once is entertaining and affords a soothing titillation to the vanity of the true-blooded American.

Brief History of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern Peoples: with Some Account of Their Movements, Institutions, Arts, Manners, and Customs. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 600.

THE series of "brief histories," published by Messrs. Barnes & Co., has earned a high reputation as school text-books. Of the whole series, the history of ancient peoples, forming the first part of the work before us, is probably the best, and we are inclined to think it the best ancient history for the common schools. The modern part suffers somewhat, we must think, in the comparison. In the first place, it is out of proportion. Taking into consideration the needs of American school-boys, nine-tenths of whom will never study or perhaps read any other history, the decided preponderance ought to be given to modern history proper—that is, the period since the Reformation. We should say that these four centuries ought to have fully half the space, and the last hundred years at least half of this. But in this volume of 600 pages, modern history begins on page 423, and the French Revolution on page 536. This is, however, only an illustration of the thoroughly unpractical way in which history is usually taught in our schools.

The defect in question is at the bottom of the defect next to be mentioned. It is impossible, in the few pages given here, to present a view of mediæval and modern history at once complete and graphic. The work in detail is very well done, but it undertakes to do too much. Boys of fourteen need not be told about every king and every battle; a few leading characters and events should be selected, and these should be impressed upon the memory by skilful narration and careful depiction of character. Here again we do not criticise this book, but the prevalent school methods.

Many of the illustrations are mere pretty pictures, of neither historical nor educational value; there are, however, many excellent maps and portraits, and occasionally a picture which does something more than please the eye, especially in ancient history. A made-up picture is as likely as not to teach what is untrue; as, for example, the Pope crowning Charlemagne (p. 334), with the triple tiara on his head—which was not adopted by the popes until the fourteenth century. The maps are well selected and instructive; but the map of the great voyages of discovery, etc. (p. 426), is hard to understand. It would seem to show the present colonial possessions of Great Britain, etc., and therefore gives the British color to Canada; but the French color embraces the territory west of the Mississippi, *including Oregon.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Carey, Alice. Clovernook: or, Recollections of Our Neighborhood in the West. 2 vols. First and Second Series. New edition. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.50.
Disosway, E. T. Sydney, the Knight: an Historic Tale of Rustic and Religious Life in England in the Sixteenth Century. Philadelphia: American Sunday-school Union.
Hervey, Rev. G. W. Manual of Revivals. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.25.
Hinsdale, B. A. Schools and Studies. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Hollis, E. B. Cecil's Summer. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Hoppin, S. B. The Medical Directory of Philadelphia, for 1884. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. The Register: a Farce. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Jacob, Rev. E. A. The Lord's Supper Historically Considered. London: Henry Frowde. $1.
Knight, Dr. C. H. A Year-Book of Surgery for 1883. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Laveleye, Émile de. The Elements of Political Economy. Translated. Introduction and supplementary chapter by F. W. Taussig. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Leland, C. G. Hans Breitmann's Ballads. Complete edition in one volume. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. $4.
Lincoln, Jeanie G. Her Washington Season. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
McLaren, W. S. B. Spinning Woollen and Worsted. Cassell & Co. $2.
Neubaur, L. Die Sage vom ewigen Juden. B. Westermann & Co.
Newman, Rev. J. P. Christianity Triumphant. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Wizard's Son: a Novel. Franklin Square Library. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Seaver, E. P., and Walton, G. A. Logarithmic and Trigonometric Tables. Philadelphia: J. H. Butler.
Sheppard, N. Darwinism, Stated by Darwin Himself. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Statesman's Year-Book, for 1884. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Symington, A. J. Hints to Our Boys. With an introduction by Lyman Abbott, D.D. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Taussig, F. W. Protection to Young Industries, as applied in the United States. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Thirty Thousand Thoughts: being Extracts covering a Comprehensive Circle of Religious and Allied Topics. Sections I.–V. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.50.
Topographical Surveying. Including articles by G. J. Specht, C.E., Prof. A. S. Hardy, Prof. John B. McMaster, and H. F. Walling. Science Series. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Tuke, Dr. D. H. Illustrations of the Influence of the Mind upon the Body in Health and Disease. Second American edition. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Son & Co.
Wentworth & Hill's Examination Manuals. No. II.—Algebra. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Wheeler, E. J. Pulpit and Grave: a volume of Funeral Sermons and Addresses from Leading Pulpits of America, England, Germany, and France. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Young, R. Light in Lands of Darkness: a Record of Missionary Labor. Cassell & Co. $2.
Zola, E. The Joys of Life. Translated. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 27, 1884.

The Week.

THE Democratic caucus on Tuesday did not impose the Morrison bill on the faithful in an absolutely compulsory manner. Some concessions were made to the right of private judgment and the wishes of constituents. But it is difficult to say exactly what the final result was. The *Herald* thinks it was a defeat of the tariff reformers. The *Times* maintains that it was "nothing," or meaningless. The *Tribune* says that the party in the House stands now just where it did before the caucus was held. What the *Sun* thinks is, however, of more importance than what any of them think, and the *Sun* evidently thinks there was some meaning in the result, and is much displeased with it, for it intimates that in the matter of Democratic blundering there is nothing worse to come. This indicates, of course, that, in the *Sun's* eye, the tariff reformers have achieved some sort of success. To the outside observer what apparently happened was, that the Morrison bill was not repudiated; that its consideration as a Democratic measure was determined on that Democrats might oppose or criticise it, but that in doing so they were to be under a moral obligation to remember that the majority of the party approved of it. In order to appease the non-whiskey States of the South, Mr. Morrison has offered to reduce the tax on tobacco, and also that on applejack and peachjack, or whatever the alcoholic product be called which is obtained by distillation from peaches.

The protectionists at Washington are gloating over the chances of a Democratic "split" on the Tariff Bill, and are trying to frighten Messrs. Carlisle and Morrison by reminding them of 1860, and the trouble that discord in the ranks on another point then entailed. This is merely the old "harmony" dodge in a new and ridiculous shape. Year after year it has prevented the Democrats from taking a positive stand in favor of any reform in which the public is interested. For the sake of "harmony" they have stultified themselves with regard to free trade and civil-service reform, and every other important question that has come up since the war; and as a result they have got neither "harmony" nor offices; while the Republicans have had the most terrible dissensions inside the party, and yet have managed to carry the country with them every four years. The Democrats who, like Mr. Morrison and Mr. Carlisle, have some political ideas, are evidently sickened with "harmony," and are beginning to wonder whether a good dose of discord might not do the party some good. We believe they are right, and that, if they do split on the tariff, the free-trade section of the party will be able to look back hereafter to the day of the split as the birthday of a real Democratic party. The fact is, that a party without discord cannot long retain its vitality. In politics, as elsewhere, beliefs, if real, must be fought for or fought against by party men, and cannot be covered up and hidden in a corner, or treated as if they did not exist.

The Bonded Whiskey Bill in the House, which proposes to give the great distillers, who have been guilty of overproduction, longer time to pay their taxes in, is in some danger from the opposition of the small home distillers of the Southern States, who are jealous of the great manufacturers of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio, and whom they accuse, not without reason, of encouraging the revenue officers in their pursuit of them. The Southern and Southwestern farmer is fond of making his own liquor in his own barn out of apples, peaches, and the like, but finds himself ruthlessly pursued by the revenue officers whenever he does so, and believes that the great distillers egg them on. His representatives in Congress, therefore, have received numerous warnings that they must not help the great whiskey men out of their present trouble. It is accordingly proposed by the Democrats, with that disposition to sacrifice great things to small for which they are remarkable, not to abandon the big whiskey men, and to appease the little ones by taking the tax off applejack and other stimulants made from fruit, so that the small farmer can get drunk cheaply on the product of his own land.

The opposition to the Bonded Whiskey Bill is likely to be strengthened, says a late rumor, by a remark of Little Phil Thompson, the Kentucky member who committed a social murder last year, that its opponents were a lot of "temperance cranks." This, with other indications that the liquor interest throughout the country is not only making its way into politics, but becoming aggressive and defiant, is likely to bring about the defeat of the bill, by rousing the hostility of many who were disposed to let it alone. There is nothing just now which would better become the liquor fraternity, high and low, than "modest stillness and humility," and the brewers of beer would consult their own interests by not appearing in politics with threats and defiance, in alliance with the distillers and whiskey dealers. There is still, even among the "temperance cranks," a readiness to distinguish between beer and spirits as agents of social enjoyment, but we do not believe it would long survive the formation of a great alcoholic party, formed with the avowed object of frustrating all attempts to regulate the sale of intoxicating drinks. People are already getting tolerably disgusted with the use of the Government warehouses to enable whiskey speculators to evade some of the legitimate consequences of their reckless overproduction, particularly when they hear that the distillers are still producing at the rate of 95,000,000 gallons a year. There is not a gallon of it in which there is not some danger to life or property.

The debate on the Bonded Whiskey Bill has disclosed a sort of private alliance and tacit understanding between the Republicans and the high-tariff Democrats to force another reduction of the internal revenue, in order to relieve the Treasury of its surplus income. There being no internal revenue of consequence remaining except the taxes on whiskey, tobacco, and bank-notes, we are curious to see where the allied forces will begin the work of reduction when they shall have defeated the Morrison bill. To tax bank-notes as much as possible is an article of Democratic faith. To tax whiskey as much as possible is equally a matter of Republican faith. Both parties might, under stress of weather, unite to repeal what is still left of the tobacco tax; but this would not obviate the need of some reduction of the tariff. In this dilemma the suggestion of Mr. Belford of Colorado is naïve and timely. Mr. Belford proposes that the problem of surplus revenue be attacked at the other end. Instead of stopping the sources of income, he would "put the money in circulation among the people." He would make the disbursements equal to the receipts, and to that end he would set his face as a flint against every measure of economy. Mr. Belford's plan has the merit of frankness, but will, we fear, be exposed to those difficulties of execution which always embarrass "a square divide" of the proceeds of common pillage.

The Lasker incident has ended in Bismarck's inviting Mr. Sargent to a dinner in honor of the Emperor's eighty-seventh birthday, and in our Minister's attendance. He was also invited to a "swarry" at the palace. The dinner is the principal thing, however. In countries where a stiff etiquette prevails, a man may be let in after dinner to a house where he would never be invited to dine, and, according to foreign ideas, no better proof of Bismarck's good will to the United States could be given than in inviting Mr. Sargent to his table. This will, we presume, put an end to the story that Bismarck hates Mr. Sargent because of a letter written by the latter, explaining the German hostility to American pork by the fact that the Prince himself is a great landowner and pork-raiser.

The moral of the Lasker incident as regards the House of Representatives is this: Never pass resolutions, especially those relating to foreign politics, without knowing what they contain. It would have been more consonant with our notions of magnanimity and high statesmanship if Prince Bismarck had transmitted the Ochiltree resolutions to the Reichstag without comment; but he was not bound to do so even if the phraseology of the resolutions had been agreeable to him, there being no recognized channel of communication between the legislative bodies of different countries. For this reason the form of the resolution ought to have been considered with care. If the intention was what the House now says it was, viz.: to be "a tribute of respect to the memory of an eminent foreign statesman

who had died within the United States, and an expression of sympathy with the German people for whom he had been an honorable representative," it would have been well to have confined it to those lines, in which case there would have been no Lasker incident to lacerate our feelings afterwards. The original resolutions were the product of a total want of system in the matter of giving expression to the views of the House. The lesson which Prince Bismarck in his unfeeling way has taught us, will not be without its value if it leads to greater carefulness in confining the opinions which we send abroad under official seal strictly to the subject in hand. Turn it as we will, it is humiliating to acknowledge, as the House has been forced to acknowledge, that it said something more than it intended to in the first instance. If the practice of the *hari-kari* were in vogue, Mr. Ochiltree might well avail himself of its privileges.

It is difficult to feel much sympathy for the Republicans of Congress in their steadily increasing perplexities with Keifer. The two investigations which have been made in regard to his performances with a stenographer and a newspaper correspondent have resulted in showing that nearly all of the worst things said about him were true. The committees are in great trouble about the revelations, and are likely to lack the necessary courage to report them plainly to the House. So far as the case of the stenographer is concerned, there has never been any doubt about the nature of Keifer's proceedings in that. He forced a faithful employee of the House to resign on the eve of adjournment, in order that his own nephew might be put in the place and might draw the vacation salary which the other man had earned. The investigation has not only established this fact beyond dispute, but it has shown also that in order to escape the odium of his acts, Keifer has not hesitated to make statements which have been refuted by documentary evidence in the form of letters in his own handwriting. In reference to the dispute with a newspaper correspondent, the case is not quite so clear, but it is clear enough to show that Keifer is a statesman who resorts to methods which few public men would care to stoop to. If he had not been "vindicated" by the Republicans at the opening of the present session, when he was given the complimentary nomination for Speaker as an answer to the assaults of a "venal press," it would be much easier for them to dispose of him now. As it is, however, they will probably endeavor to carry their self-imposed burden with as few groans as possible.

The principal event of last week in the business world was a further "cut" in east-bound freight rates, or rather two such cuts, which have brought the figures down to 15 cents per 100 pounds for grain, with corresponding reductions on provisions and miscellaneous produce. As these cuts had no perceptible effect on the stock market, or on the grain market, or on the export trade, it was at once concluded that the actual rates for some time back had been as low as the new cut rates, if not lower. This view is confirmed by a telegram from Chicago which says that actual grain rates are twelve cents per hundred pounds, or three cents below the newly published rate. It is expected that Commissioner Fink will make a further reduction within a few days. Indeed, it is now a matter of life and death to the Trunk-Line Pool to put an end to secret cutting, and the only means of defence left is to make the public rate as low as the lowest private rate. The *Financial Chronicle* furnishes figures going to show that at fifteen cents per hundred the railroads do not get back first cost, but this is by no means clear (as the *Chronicle* acknowledges), since its calculation is based upon the ascertained cost per ton-mile of carrying all freight, through and local, and not upon that of through-freight alone. Before announcing any decisive opinion on this matter it is necessary to know also how much it costs a road to let half of its rolling-stock lie idle.

General trade remains in the same torpid condition as before. The course of the grain and provision markets has been downward, that of dry goods, iron, and general merchandise stationary. Some faint symptoms of improvement in the weather have been hailed as the harbinger of the long-deferred spring trade. Indeed, if we are to have any spring trade at all this year, it must come very soon. It seems to be the common opinion that we have reached "hard pan," that prices cannot go lower, and that the weak concerns have been nearly all weeded out. The record of business failures remains about the same as before, showing a continuous drizzle of small suspensions. The demand for a new bankruptcy law is naturally increasing, and the inaction of Congress upon this subject is by many considered to be one of the contributing causes of the existing dulness. Business on the Stock Exchange has apparently reached its minimum. Commission houses are scarcely making office expenses. The investment demand of the public is confined almost exclusively to bonds. Nevertheless, prices have been well sustained, and there is a general feeling that any change from this time forward must be for the better.

The resumption of gold shipments on a moderate scale is not a circumstance to excite alarm, but rather the contrary. The money market has been for a long time in a state of congestion. If money can be used to better advantage in London than here it will go there, and ought to go there, till an equilibrium is established. If fifteen or twenty millions of gold were exported it would tend to advance the prices of commodities in England, and to lower them here, so that new life might be put into our sluggish trade in grain, cotton, and provisions.

The Rev. Henry Ward Beecher's opinions on any current topic are sure to be facetious, and are often, but not always, instructive. When he says that "a tariff with incidental protection is like beefsteak with incidental strychnine," we perceive that he has hit the nail on the head. But when he says that a Presidential candidate ought to be jovial, and that jovial men are commonly "big-bellied and big-chested," and that here Senator Sherman and Senator Edmunds are found wanting, "having able heads with shad bellies," we can only say that he has added new terrors to the political arena. It is interesting, however, to know that Mr. Beecher prefers Mr. Arthur as a candidate this year, regardless of his qualifications as a story-teller or his measure around the waist. He thinks that General Sherman could be elected, although his wife is a Catholic, and that his standing by his wife under the disadvantage of her being a Catholic is very much in his favor. An alluring hint was given by Mr. Beecher to the *Herald* interviewer that he "could name a ticket for the Democracy that would carry the country without a doubt." But he declined firmly to render the Democracy the service of naming it.

The testimony thus far taken as to the Ottman compromise throws no additional light on the connection of Mr. Richard Crowley with it—though this is a most important matter. The main facts are undisputed. Ottman's money was, by a compromise, divided between the Government and the lawyers, the lawyers getting the lion's share. In this Mr. Crowley had a hand, and what it would be worth the while of the Investigating Committee to find out is, whether he acted for Ottman or the Government, or, as has been alleged, for both sides at once; and if the last, how it happened that a Government officer could stand in such a relation to an offender against the Government, whom the Government was prosecuting.

The late Sir Edward Archibald's nephew has written to the London *Telegraph* that his uncle never for a moment supposed that the Thurlow Weed Barnes "Benjamin" letter was written by Mr. Judah P. Benjamin, and adds cruelly that what Mr. Barnes found in the Thurlow Weed collection was only a copy after all. This, the *Tribune* truly remarks, leaves Mr. Barnes "in a sorry plight," for he said that he had ample evidence of the genuineness of the document as the production of the Southern Senator. But it ought to have said something complimentary about the remarkable process of reasoning by which Mr. Barnes met the objections offered to his discovery *ab extra*. That was a very neat bit of dialectics, which must always remain a comfort to him.

The bill extending and making mandatory in cities of over 20,000 population the State Civil-Service Act is now before the Senate. The police force was exempted from its operation in the Assembly on the motion of Mr. Husted, who compared the police, somewhat ludicrously, to an army. It is an army in so far as it obeys the orders of a commanding officer and is drilled and disciplined; but it differs from an army in the very important facts that anybody can leave it when he pleases; that its duties enable its members to live with their families in one spot; that they enjoy what few other functionaries in this country, except the United States Judges, enjoy, a life tenure—being only removable after trial; that they receive what is, for this class of men, splendid pay,

such as no other police force receives, besides being pensioned when superannuated, and having a handsome compensation paid to their families in case of death. It differs from every army in the world, too, in being commanded by a board of obscure local politicians—which is perhaps the most important difference of all—who are chosen for the express purpose of making the force what it ought not to be, a partisan body. It would never occur to any human being to put Steves, Sids, Joes, or Jimmies at the head of a police force for any other reason.

We have no fault to find, however, with the pay or tenure of the police. What we do find fault with is the way in which it is governed, and in which admission to it is obtained. We know that certain formal precautions now surround its recruitment, but, like the old Federal pass examination, these are a complete sham as a defence against favoritism and political corruption. For no branch of the public service is the safeguard of competitive examination more necessary. Every honest man in this city, of the proper physique and character, ought to have as fair a chance of entering the force as any other man, whether he have a politician to back him or not, and the city is entitled to the services of the best men to be had. But so thoroughly is the force impregnated with the foul influence known in this city as "politics," that even if the competitive system were established to-morrow, and all future appointments severed from partisan and personal influences, it would take many years to purge the force and bring it up to a satisfactory standard of efficiency. We cannot begin a day too soon, and the change will certainly be made, and probably before very long. The O'Briens and Husteds may as well make up their minds to that. The people of this State have at last begun to turn their attention to the best means of getting decent administrative service, and they are going to have it.

The bill depriving Mr. Edson of authority to make any appointments of heads of departments running over into the next Mayor's term has passed the Senate, and will, no doubt, pass the Assembly. It applies to the Comptroller, the Commissioner of Public Works, and the Corporation Counsel, and will prevent any Kelly-Edson deals as to those offices. The bill provides that any one who is appointed by the present Mayor shall go out of office on February 1, 1885, and that the new Mayor (to be elected next fall) shall appoint successors, who shall hold office for the terms during which the officials whom they succeed would otherwise have held office. The act is to take effect immediately, and all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with it are repealed. We mention this because the bill making the Comptroller elective, now in the Governor's hands, appears to be inconsistent with it. Should the Governor sign the Comptrollership bill to-day, and afterwards sign this bill requiring the new Mayor to appoint a Comptroller, the later act will apparently override the former. This result, however, would not follow if the appointment bill were to receive his signature first. We presume that Messrs. Roosevelt and Gibbs and the Committee of Fifty-three may be relied upon to prevent their scheme of reform from being impaired by accidents of this nature.

There are now pending at least three different measures which affect the Mayor's power of removal: the two mentioned above, and a third giving the Mayor absolute power of removal. All three seem to trench upon the existing provision of law, making it impossible to get any heads of departments out of office without a "hearing," which experience shows means a lawsuit. Now it is of the most extreme importance that the new legislation shall be so plain and distinct that there can be no room for dispute about it, and no chance for litigation. A judge with an injunction or a mandamus is always the last hope of an ousted city politician, and this time he ought to be "bounced" out of the courts as well as out of his offices.

When Mr. Isaac H. Bromley took the editorship of the *Commercial Advertiser* with a view of making it decent and respectable, we pronounced the task a herculean one, which would probably prove more than he was equal to. Our forebodings turned out to be correct, for in a few weeks he abandoned the attempt in despair. The evil was too deep-seated to be eradicated by any editorship however good. It was plain that nothing short of a change of proprietorship would suffice, if any change would suffice. This change has now been effected, and the experiment will be tried in complete freedom from the debasing influences which have so long surrounded the paper. The new conductors are young and ardent, and have high aims, and may be able to cleanse the Augean stable. We sincerely hope they will; but they have still to reckon with the old subscribers, who will probably be much tried by anything in the nature of reform. They liked the blackguard, flippant, ignorant, silly, venal, and mendacious old *Advertiser:* will they put up in its stead with a "first-class newspaper in all respects—political, literary, artistic, and commercial"—such as the new proprietors now promise us? Perhaps they will, but we fear that the present managers will have, in order to hold them, to rely largely on the fact that now that the old *Advertiser* is gone there is absolutely nothing quite as bad in New York journalism to fall back upon. They will have to read a better evening paper than they were used to, or go without any.

The use of the revolver among women to right the wrongs done them by men is, of course, encouraged by the attitude of juries towards women in general and especially towards murderesses. On Saturday two murders were committed by women with pistols, and in both cases the murderesses seem to have armed themselves in advance, "just like" a male murderer. In Hazleton, Penn., Mrs. Thomas Rees, "driven to desperation by the taunts and jeers" of Mrs. Simmons, of whom she was jealous, suddenly pulled out a pistol, and with it killed an innocent bystander, who was unwise enough to undertake to save Mrs. Simmons's life. On the same day, in Syracuse in this State, Mrs. William Ransier killed Mr. Adam Sutter, with whom she had had a good deal of trouble, and in this case, too, she seems to have armed herself in advance, with an eye to whatever might turn up. Is it customary for women to carry pistols? It might be worth while to find out in such cases where the pistol had been concealed up to the moment of use. Is the "hip-pocket" coming into vogue among women for this purpose?

The Parnellites have apparently hit upon a new mode of resistance to the Government which is likely to give some trouble. The Repression of Crime Act enables the Lord Lieutenant to station extra policemen in proclaimed districts in which murders or outrages have been committed, and impose the cost of them on the taxpayers, which they are now advised by Mr. Parnell not to pay; and the Limerick Common Council seem to have begun the war by refusing to obey a mandamus directing them to levy the rate. The object of the law is, of course, to oppose the tendency of the people of the localities in which crimes are committed, to shield the criminals, either through sympathy or fear. The remedy is a legitimate one enough and is efficacious, but the proposed resistance to it shows the difficulty of combining constitutional and despotic methods of government. The cost of extra police in a disturbed district ought to be paid by the district itself, but if the tax has to be imposed by an outside authority regarded by the people as hostile, it ought not to have to be levied by a Common Council. The rule of the strong hand can rarely be maintained through half-measures.

The most curious thing in the news from the Sudan, which is so varied and contradictory, is the disappearance from it of the old, original, and genuine prophet the Mahdi, and the substitution of Osman Digna, who was at first spoken of as the Mahdi's lieutenant, but is now treated as a principal who does what he pleases, and is accountable to nobody. There is probably just as much exaggeration in the stories about him as there was in the stories about the Mahdi. His force was multiplied by three or four, and his sanctity in the eyes of his followers probably doubled. It would appear now that he is not subdued, and refuses to make terms; but as long as he cannot be pursued there is no reason why he should make terms. The British have no force capable of following him into the desert. He will probably make it difficult, at least, to open communication between Suakim and Khartum by way of Berber, but the making of communication difficult for all strangers is, and has been from time immemorial, the business of the desert tribes. Some of them get their livelihood, or a considerable part of it, in this way. The probabilities seem to be now that Osman will harass the British with a small force, but will not risk another action, and that three or four months hence there will be a reaction in England against the "forward" policy in the Sudan, as there was against the forward policy in Afghanistan.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 19, to TUESDAY, March 25, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A CONFERENCE of the Democratic free-trade leaders in Congress was held on Friday, and as a result, later in the day, a call was issued for a caucus to be held on Tuesday night, to consider the Morrison Tariff Bill.

The caucus was attended by all but ten members, and the following resolution adopted by 114 to 57, after a long debate: "That the bill commonly known as the Morrison Tariff Bill shall be taken up for consideration at the earliest practicable day, and reasonable time for debate allowed thereon; and, after such debate, that a bill be passed for the reduction of duties and war-tariff taxes; that the adoption of this resolution shall not be considered binding in controlling the individual action of Democrats, except to the extent that each member may feel that he ought to be influenced by the expressed opinion of the majority of his associates." A resolution offered by Mr. Carlisle was then adopted (88 to 57), as follows: "That in order to reconcile conflicting opinions and to secure legislation reducing taxation, the plan for the reduction of taxes at the present session of Congress shall embrace a provision repealing all internal-revenue taxes on tobacco, snuff, and cigars, and special taxes connected therewith, and also reducing the tax on brandy distilled from fruits to ten cents per gallon; provided, that such repeal and reduction shall not be made except in connection with a reduction of tariff duties." The large vote against the first resolution is considered an indication that the Morrison Tariff Bill cannot be adopted.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs reported on Wednesday its resolutions on the Lasker matter. After calling attention to the fact that the previous resolution was intended as a tribute of respect to the memory of an eminent foreign statesman, they recite: "That the House, having no official concern with the relations between the executive and legislative branches of the German Government, does not deem it requisite to its dignity to criticise the manner of the reception of the resolutions, or the circumstances which prevented their reaching their destination after they had been communicated through the proper channels to the German Government." Mr. Ochiltree, of Texas, the mover of the original resolution, opposed them, and delivered a eulogy of Lasker and a severe criticism of Bismarck. The resolutions were finally adopted without a division. The House then adopted resolutions cordially reciprocating the wishes of the Liberal Union of the German Parliament for the closer union of the two nations, and recognizing their graceful appreciation of its sympathy with those who mourn the death of Edward Lasker.

Senator Vance (Dem., N. C.), in a minority report from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, submitted on Monday, expresses the opinion that Germany has a right to exclude American hog products on the ground that they are unwholesome, if she deems it proper, and that this Government is not justified in impeaching her motives. "If it be true," continues the report, "that our pork is to any extent unwholesome, we should endeavor, by a rigid system of inspection, to remove the cause of the complaint. If it be true that fear of trichinosis is only a pretext, and that the real reason for excluding our hog products is the desire to protect their own producers, then we are the last people on earth who ought to complain. After surrounding ourselves for more than twenty years with a protective tariff wall so high as to exclude virtually all the products of Germany which compete with ours, it is rather late for us to advocate retaliation against a government which merely follows our example."

In the House, on Thursday, the seat of Mr. Mayo, Readjuster, of Virginia, was given to Mr. Garrison, Democrat.

The House refused on Monday to pass a bill appropriating $300,000 to save New Orleans from the danger of a flood on account of a breach in the levees; yeas 90, nays 115. The resolution was referred, after debate, to the Committee on Appropriations.

In the Senate, on Tuesday, a bill was passed, yeas 42, nays 13, which makes the salaries of all United States District Judges $5,000 per annum, and prohibits them from appointing to position in their courts relatives within the degree of first cousin.

It is believed that Justice Miller of the Supreme Court is a candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination, and that he has considerable support in Iowa.

Ex-Secretary George M. Robeson has written a letter to James G. Blaine, congratulating him on his chances of receiving the Republican Presidential nomination, and urging him to press forward for the victory which he predicts is to be won at Chicago. Robeson promises Blaine his hearty support.

The Boston *Advertiser* has been making a canvass among the Republicans of Massachusetts. Two hundred and eighty replies were received. For first choice Edmunds receives 198 votes; Arthur, 53; Blaine, 19; General Sherman, 3; Lincoln, 4; and Hawley, 3.

The Rhode Island Democratic State Convention on Wednesday, after several ballots, nominated George H. Corliss (the candidate of the Independent Republicans) for Governor. This was a move to break the Providence *Journal* Republican ring. Mr. Corliss refused the nomination. A straight Democratic ticket was then nominated, with Thomas W. Segar for Governor and Col. Amasa Sprague for Lieutenant-Governor. The Republicans on Thursday renominated the present State officers.

There was a lively time in the State Assembly on Wednesday when the defeated City Civil-Service Reform Bill was taken from the table for reconsideration. A motion to reconsider the bill was passed, by 79 to 32. The sense of the House was taken on the ruling of the Speaker that the bill could not be amended on reconsideration, and he was overruled. The bill was sent to a final vote with a provision making the present State Civil-Service Law compulsory in cities of 20,000 inhabitants and over, and exempting persons now in office, the police departments of all cities, and also all employees for whose proper action the Supervisors give bonds. It was passed by a vote of 82 to 32.

The bill making the Comptroller of New York city elective passed the Assembly on Thursday with only one negative vote.

Mr. Gibbs's bill limiting the term of the appointees as heads of departments by the present Mayor of New York to January 30, 1885, was passed in the Senate on Monday night by a vote of 18 to 7. On Tuesday it was ordered to a third reading in the Assembly.

As a result of the recent Assembly investigation and report, the Grand Jury on Friday in this city handed in ten indictments—three against Sheriff Alexander V. Davidson, each for grand larceny in the second degree; one against Warden James Bowe, of Ludlow Street Jail, for perjury; the rest against other minor officers. All the indicted persons were arrested and gave bail.

The State Senate Committee on Public Health, which has been investigating the adulterations of food, made a report on Friday. They have discovered wholesale and alarming adulterations of food, dangerous to the consumer and tending to depreciate property in the rural districts. Adulteration of butter by tallow oil, bone oil, and lard oil was found in almost every town and city in the State, and equals in amount half the production of natural butter. The Committee point out that our export butter trade is breaking up on account of the manufacture and sale of bogus butter. They recommend a total prohibition of the manufacture and sale of all butter adulterations after a given time. They also discovered that 200,000 out of 500,000 quarts of milk furnished in New York daily in 1882 were watered or skim milk. They recommend the appointment of a State inspector of milk. Accompanying the report was a bill prohibiting, under a penalty of $200 or six months' imprisonment, the sale of adulterated milk, keeping cows for the production of milk in an unhealthy condition, or diluting milk with water.

The New Jersey Assembly on Monday evening passed a resolution asking Congress to pass a bill "to prohibit the importation and the migration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labor in the United States."

The delegation of representative cattle men from Chicago in Washington during the week say: "There is not a single case of foot-and-mouth disease in this country, and there probably has not been any. Such is the experience of men who have had practical knowledge of the ravages of the disease in the old country. The disease has not the symptoms of the foot-and-mouth disease. The shell of the hoof does not come off: the whole foot is lost. This is a simple foot rot, such as is common in severe winters."

A Louisiana member of Congress, on Tuesday, received a despatch from Rodney, Miss., which said: "Kemp Levee gave way at 12:15. This makes the disaster complete, and the Mississippi Valley one vast inland sea. Congress must come to our relief and feed the people at once. The lofts of our gin houses and floating rafts will be the only place of abode."

The breaking of a levee at Roberts Island, near Stockton, Cal., on the night of March 18, destroyed 27,000 acres of wheat, valued at $500,000.

A very destructive tornado passed through parts of Tennessee and Kentucky on Tuesday.

The coal troubles in the Schuylkill, Lehigh, Wyoming, and Lackawanna regions of Pennsylvania are becoming very serious. The continued suspension of operations, and the half-pay plan that has been exacted by the leaders of the combination, are creating intense dissatisfaction among all classes of mine operators. A secret protective association is forming.

The Rev. Thomas Rutherford Bacon, son of the late Dr. Leonard Bacon, who has been pastor of the Dwight Place Church in New Haven for three years, astonished his congregation on Sunday by suddenly resigning. He gave as his reason the report that had reached him that his ministry was not acceptable to all his people. A strong effort will be made to have him withdraw his resignation.

Madame Anna Bishop, the once famous singer, died in this city on Wednesday at the age of seventy. In 1831 she was married to Sir Henry R. Bishop, the well-known composer and musical director. Her career as a singer began in 1837, and her first triumphs in concerts and oratorios were followed by brilliant success in opera. She left her husband in 1839 and made an extensive concert tour, visiting almost every country in Europe, and also this country and Australia. She started on her last tour around the world in 1875. Since its completion she has lived most of the time in this city with her second husband, Mr. Martin Schultz, whom she married in 1858. Her last appearance in public was at a concert in Steinway Hall about a year ago.

George Fuller, a landscape and portrait painter of prominence, died in Boston on Friday at the age of 62.

John J. Cisco, the well-known banker, died in this city on Sunday, in the 79th year of his age. In 1852, his financial ability caused President Pierce to appoint him Assistant United States Treasurer, in charge of

the Sub Treasury in this city. Mr. Cisco was still Assistant Treasurer when the war broke out. Some hesitation was manifested among the bankers and capitalists about investing in the first war loan. It was Mr. Cisco who induced them to take the loan, and after that there was no trouble.

I. Saunders Irving, only surviving nephew of Washington Irving, died in Washington on Sunday. He was a civil engineer.

Hubbard Hinde Kavanagh, senior Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, died at Columbus, Miss., on Wednesday, at the age of eighty-two.

Brevet Major-General Godfrey Weitzel, of the Engineer Corps, died in Philadelphia on Wednesday at the age of forty-nine. His services during the rebellion were notable, especially as engineer of General Butler's expedition to New Orleans. He took a prominent part in the last Richmond campaign. In the capacity of Chief-Engineer of the department, he constructed the various lines of defence and bridges on the James and Appomattox Rivers, besides the approaches and piers for the pontoon bridge over which the Army of the Potomac crossed the James.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone went to Coombe in Surrey on Wednesday for his health. He was guarded by a detective.

The London *Daily News* announces: "The report that Mr. Gladstone thinks of resigning this year is absolutely unfounded. Mr. Gladstone is the last Minister who would think of quitting office in view of the present condition of affairs at home and abroad."

The second reading of the Franchise Bill was moved in the House of Commons on Monday evening by the Marquis of Hartington, Mr. Gladstone being absent. Mr. John Bright spoke for one hour in support of the bill, advocating a perfect and full representation in the House of Commons. The debate was adjourned until Thursday.

In the House of Commons on Monday a motion against the Bishops continuing to sit as members of the House of Lords was rejected by 148 to 137, the Parnellites voting with the minority.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday Lord Randolph Churchill moved that the Government submit any further news it might have regarding operations in the Sudan and concerning the position of General Gordon. In his speech Lord Randolph Churchill pronounced the mission of General Gordon a failure, and said if the Cabinet's apathy should cause the death of General Gordon the Cabinet could not remain in office a single day. After a short debate he withdrew his motion.

News was received on Saturday that General Gordon had had a successful encounter with the rebels. He steamed down the river to Halfaya, a small town surrounded by the Arabs, and succeeded in fighting his way to it against great numbers; rescued the garrison, and brought them back in safety to Khartum.

The situation of General Gordon at Khartum is regarded as very critical. He is disappointed in what he has been able to accomplish, and cannot defend the place against the advancing tribes. Retreat from Khartum has been cut off. The whole country south of Berber is in revolt.

On Wednesday the tribal rising in Egypt was reported universal from Kassala to Berber. The Arabs, also, between Korosko and Assuan were threatening to revolt. The Bedouins were massing at points on the Nile. The Batakheer tribe was preparing to attack Shendy. It was rumored at Dongola that the garrisons under Lupton Bey, in the province of Bahr Gazelle, had surrendered and been massacred.

Advices from Khartum, dated March 16, say that General Gordon had repulsed an attack upon the camp at Umderman. He was surrounded by rebels, and intended to force his way at the head of the troops along the bank of the Nile to Shendy. He proposed to begin the advance on March 18.

El Madhi is organizing an artillery corps composed of Egyptian deserters, with which he will set out on the march to Berber. He has with him twelve European and sixty Egyptian officers of Hicks Pasha's army.

It is proposed to leave 400 British soldiers at Suakim, to be relieved every fortnight, and to station the remainder of the troops at healthier points in the interior. Admiral Hewett is sanguine of being able to open the Berber route. The troops will advance on Wednesday to form camps around Tamanieb, and attempt to surround Osman Digna.

The British reconnoitering force was entrenched at Handuk on Wednesday. In the morning an extended reconnoisance was made, but the rebels were nowhere seen.

On Tuesday it was telegraphed from Egypt that the camp of Osman Digna is twenty-five miles from Suakim and thirteen beyond the advance post of the British. General Graham has determined to attack the rebel leader on Thursday, and will afterward push on to Sinkat with one brigade, if this course is practicable.

General Graham has ordered the concentration of the British forces at Handuk and Otad prior to marching out to give Osman Digna battle near Tamanieb. Osman has 4,000 combatants. All the leading sheikhs continue their adherence to him. The British Cabinet Council on Tuesday decided to give General Graham discretion to march to Berber if necessary to keep the route clear.

Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, has been ordered to return to Paris.

The new French Minister has started for Pekin, where he will carry on peace negotiations with China. He is instructed to demand an indemnity of $32,000,000.

The French Government has decided to occupy Upper Tonquin as far as the Chinese frontier. General Millot, commander of the French land forces, has decided to attack the Black Flags at Hunghoa. After the capture of Hunghoa the French will fix the western frontier of Tonquin at Tuan-kuan, which is now in possession of the Black Flags. The Northern frontier of Tonquin will extend from Phulang-Thuong to Tuan-kuan by way of Phu-binh and Phu-doan-hong.

Prince Napoleon has returned to Paris without issuing a manifesto.

At a recent meeting in Paris of the supporters of Prince Napoleon, M. Pascal, a member of the Chamber of Deputies, said: "Prince Jerome's ardent desire is that the power of expressing the national will shall be transferred to the people's voice. He will never sanction a resort to violent measures in order to secure power. He relies on the chances of his name."

The speeches made at a banquet in celebration of St. Patrick's Day at Belleville, a suburb of Paris, contained hints that more explosions would occur in London before long. The ranks of the dynamiters are being recruited by large accessions from the Irish in Paris.

The Paris *Gaulois* on Tuesday said: "The London explosions were plotted in Paris. The dynamite was sent from France, while the clock-work came from abroad."

The Swiss Federal Council has decided to grant the extradition of Anarchists whenever this is asked for. Otherwise, Anarchists will be expelled from the country.

François Auguste Marie Mignet, the celebrated French historian, and the oldest member of the French Academy, both in point of age and membership, died on Monday. He was born May 8, 1796. He received his early education at Aix, his native place, and Avignon. While studying law at the former place, he made the acquaintance of Thiers, and the friendship lasted for sixty years. Mignet's 'History of the French Revolution' appeared in 1824 and was a great success. In 1830, with Thiers and Carrel, he founded the *National*, which became an important factor in the impending revolution. He became Minister of Foreign Affairs under Louis Philippe, and was elected to the French Academy in 1836. He was the author of many historical works which have become standard in France, and is said to have labored half a century on a 'History of the Reformation' which has not yet been published.

The eighty-seventh anniversary of Emperor William's birthday was celebrated on Satday in Berlin with great enthusiasm. The American Minister, Mr. Sargent, was present at a banquet in the evening.

Emperor William, on his birthday, received two splendid Sèvres vases from some person whose name was not given. The gift was believed to be from President Grévy of France. Prince Bismarck, it is said, remarked that he hoped that the day was not far distant when he would be able to make France as happy as some one had made Emperor William.

The American Exchange in Berlin was opened on Monday with a dinner. Minister Sargent, who was one of the guests, proposed a toast to Emperor William, and referred to the important increase of commercial relations between Germany and America.

Herr Witte, a Liberal, has been elected to the seat in the German Reichstag made vacant by the death of Herr Lasker.

There was a debate in the German Reichstag on Thursday on the Anti-Socialist law, which it is proposed to continue for two years longer. Prince Bismarck said this was necessary not only as a repressive policy, but as a positive measure for the benefit of workingmen. It was impossible to abandon preventive measures. The debate was continued on Friday, and the bill was referred to a committee.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday elected Signor Coppino President as the successor of Signor Farini. Owing to the smallness of his majority the Ministry resigned. King Humbert invited Signor Depretis, Premier of the old Cabinet, to form a new one, and he consented.

It is reported in Rome as possible that the Pope may depart from the Vatican, but the Papal journals deny it.

Count Vladimir Fedorovitch Adlerberg, the Russian general and statesman, is dead at the age of ninety. He was confidential friend, Minister of the Czar's household, and Chancellor of the Russian Orders, under Nicholas and Alexander II.

It is reported in Constantinople that the Grand Vizier of Turkey has complained to the United States Government of Minister Wallace's recent conduct.

There has been considerable excitement in Toronto during the week over the bribery of several members of the Mowat Government party in the Ontario Legislature by prominent gentlemen of the Opposition. The majority of the former is only twelve, and it is not in accord with the Dominion Government. Two members were given $1,000 and $800 respectively for their votes. They exposed the scheme, and several arrests followed. An investigation is pending both in the Legislature and in the police court.

Advices from the far East indicate that the situation of the crew of the wrecked British steamer *Nisero* is precarious. The British Cabinet are considering steps to effect their rescue. The *Nisero* was wrecked on the west coast of Atcheen, Sumatra, the 12th of last November. The vessel was looted by the subjects of the Rajah of Tenom, and the crew, consisting of twenty-five men, among whom was an American, were taken captive.

THE TRUNK-LINE POOL.

THE best index of the commercial and financial situation is the virtual break-down of the Trunk-Line Pool. What happened a few years ago, when there was no pool, and when each road was carrying through-freight at cost, or less than cost, has now come to pass in spite of the best organization we have ever had for curbing and controlling competition. The pool is still in force. It is managed by the best railway talent in the country. All the companies appear to be anxious to obey orders, to maintain rates, to be good members of the pool. Nevertheless, the law of competition has triumphed completely over the law of combination. Rates have fallen to nearly the lowest point reached during the great railroad war, and the common expectation is that they will fall still lower.

The last remedy which the pool holds in reserve against the cutting of rates has been brought in requisition. The regular or open-tariff rate has been reduced to the level of the lowest cut rate. If there is to be any further cutting, the open-tariff rate will be again reduced. Cutting will be made unprofitable at all events, but it does not follow that the cutters will be brought to repentance, or that rates will be restored. When a railway manager sees a portion of his cars and locomotives standing idle, his operating expenses and fixed charges running on, and pay-day coming around, he gets into a state of mind in which human virtue counts for little. The temptation to "shade" the rate in order to attract sufficient business to meet his payments, but not enough to excite the suspicions of his partners in the pool, becomes irresistible. But the partners are too smart to be hoodwinked. They know that something is going wrong before they can locate or describe it, and they take instant measures to hold the business which has begun to slip away from them. They reduce the rate a shaving lower than it was reduced against them, by way of punishing the known or unknown offender. The latter, finding that his game is understood, has no alternative but to cut again. He cannot go to his partners and acknowledge that he has been cheating, and then ask them to put the rates back to the old figures. He knows what kind of a greeting he would receive. Having got on the down track, there is no stopping short of the bottom of the hill. The pool is supposed now to be at the bottom, but if it is not there yet, it will go there. Rates will continue to fall until either business improves or the weaker concerns are crushed out, bought in, amalgamated, or eliminated as competing forces. The attempt, however often made, to chain the continent or any large part of it to the wheels of monopoly, will surely fail. Railway companies have to compete not merely with each other, but with all the unemployed capital of America and Europe seeking investment; for whenever their profits rise above average profits, or even if they fail to decline as average profits decline, new railways will be built. This is no mere theory. It would hardly be possible to put one's finger on the map of the United States where this law has not been exemplified and vindicated over and over again. It is now running its course at great length and heavy expense in the far West, on the borders of Salt Lake, in the mountains of Colorado, and even at the capital of the Montezumas.

One grand factor in the problems of the pool, and in the commercial and financial situation generally, is the competition of new wheat-growing districts in Asia, South America, and Australia, with our own. The railways of India compete with the New York Central as grain carriers on opposite sides of the globe as effectually as though they were parallel with it and only a mile distant. Obviously, every bushel of grain that reaches the English market competes with every other bushel. The railways of both India and America must square their charges by the selling price of the article, which is regulated by the law of supply and demand. Undoubtedly the low prices ruling in England now and for some time past have contributed much to the breaking of railway rates in this country. For this there is no help. If our supremacy in agriculture is to be maintained, it must be done by offering our grain and provisions at something less than our competitors can afford. We have gained some advantages lately by offering our wheat in the form of flour, and there seems to be a large field for the display of our enterprise here; but, as time goes on, we must look for the same aggravating rivalry in milling that we have at last found in wheat-growing. Five years, or even three years, ago nothing seemed more improbable than that there should be such a surplus of food products in the world that the price of wheat would fall to 90 cents in Chicago, and that the cost of carrying it to the seaboard would fall to 10 cents. What is even more remarkable is the fact that these reductions have not led to any increased export movement.

It has been suggested, as a last remedy against rate-cutting, that all railway earnings within the precincts of any given pool be turned into a common fund, and apportioned among the members according to an agreed ratio. We are not prepared to say that such an arrangement could not be made to work if everybody would keep hands off while the experiment was in progress. But since any railway shareholder could object to the diversion of the earnings of his property to the treasury of another company, the immediate outcome of the plan would be an injunction and a lawsuit. Such an arrangement, moreover, could in no way restrain the competition which arises from the wheat fields of India, Russia, and Australia, and which, as stated, weighs with peculiar force upon the Trunk-Line Pool at the present time. Manifold difficulties would arise from the apportioning of expenses as well as receipts. In short, the problem is too complicated to be dealt with by makeshifts. It can only be solved by great natural forces, the same which are solving it now. The only thing that can be said with certainty is that the public will get their transportation, as they get other things subject to the law of competition, at the lowest possible cost.

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENTARY FRANCHISE BILL.

SEVENTEEN years have elapsed since a change was made in the electoral franchise of the United Kingdom. It was then made under very peculiar circumstances. In 1866 the Liberal Government, in which Lord Russell was Prime Minister and Mr. Gladstone Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader of the House of Commons, brought in a bill to reduce the franchise in boroughs from the limit of £10 annual rental to £7, by which change they proposed to grant the suffrage to the upper ranks of the working class. The proposal met with warm opposition, not only from the Tory party, but also from a considerable section of the Liberals, who declared that it would swamp the rich and the educated, and endanger the country by placing the control of its destinies in the hands of a wage-earning class which they described as ignorant and reckless, likely to pursue its own interests solely, and to become the victims of profligate demagogues. The opposition to the measure was led by Mr. Robert Lowe, whose vigorous philippics against it are still remembered as having produced a sensation that has been seldom equalled and never surpassed. The conjunction of Tories and disaffected Liberals threw out the Government. Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli came into power, and carried next year a measure, the Representation of the People Act of 1867, which, to the astonishment of the country—and most of all of their own followers, who scarcely knew what they were doing until they had done it—reduced the franchise lower than Mr. Gladstone had proposed, giving it to all rate-paying householders in boroughs, and also to lodgers, though under conditions which have turned out so awkward to work, that the number of lodger electors is comparatively small. How this was accomplished is a piece of history which is, indeed, very curious, but which need be mentioned now only for one purpose, viz.: to point out that as it was the work of a Conservative Government, the Conservative party thereby abandoned its former ground of resisting extensions of the franchise, and encouraged the formation of what may be called a Tory democracy. Since that date, therefore, the Conservatives have felt precluded from openly opposing the cry for further suffrage reforms, and are obliged, if they really dislike such reforms, to plead either that the moment is inopportune, or that various concomitant precautions are needed to prevent a very extended franchise from being abused. This fact is the explanation of their present attitude.

The Act of 1867 applied only to boroughs, so the next demand was made in behalf of county householders, and took the form of insisting that the household-borough franchise should be extended to them. It began about 1872, and has been kept up in a somewhat languid way ever since, growing stronger, however, during the last three years. The present Ministry admitted it as a thing to be done as soon as they came into office, and promised to propose it before the expiry of the present Parliament. Some pressure was put on them last autumn by their more radical

supporters in the country to lose no time in carrying it; and they accordingly announced that it would form the leading item in their programme for this session. No Liberal objected to this course. Some thought that the reform of county local government was a more pressing matter; others called for the creation of a municipality for all London. But the principle of the assimilation of the county and borough franchises was accepted as sound. At the close of February Mr. Gladstone introduced the bill, in a long speech marked by all his old skill in lucid exposition and ingenious argument. The bill is a comprehensive measure, which deals with the right of suffrage in boroughs as well as in counties, simplifying the law, and providing for a class of occupants who had been omitted from previous acts. Stripped of technical details, it establishes a uniform Parliamentary franchise through England, Scotland, and Ireland, under which every householder paying local rates will be entitled to vote, and about 2,000,000 voters be added to the 3,000,000 who now enjoy the suffrage. Its practical effect will be, as regards England and Scotland, to admit both the agricultural laborers in the rural districts, who have hitherto (except where they lived within the limits of three or four large boroughs, which were really rural districts) had no vote, and also the working classes in the mining and manufacturing districts, and in the counties lying round London.

The principle of this enfranchisement is not contested. The Liberal party, with the exception of Mr. Goschen, has been long committed to it. The Conservatives cannot offer direct opposition to it, partly because they are hampered by their own action in 1867, partly because they do not like to appear hostile to or distrustful of that great mass of working people whom the bill seeks to bring within the pale of the Constitution. But they are unwilling to see it pass, and will endeavor to defeat it; while there is a section of the Liberal party which, without being positively hostile, regards the change with apprehension.

Their chief alarm relates to the effect of the bill on Ireland. At present the suffrage is in that country much more restricted than in England, so that not only will many new county voters be added, but a great number of borough voters who are below the present English and Scotch limit. In fact, Irish constituencies will become new bodies altogether. The lower one goes in Ireland, the larger becomes the proportion of Roman Catholics and Nationalists, so that the bill must strengthen Mr. Parnell's party in both boroughs and counties, and by consequence in the House of Commons. As regards the counties in the West, South, and West Centre of Ireland, the difference cannot be very great, because these counties either already return Parnellite members, or will do so at the next election even if it be held under the present franchise. But there are some counties, such as Dublin or Armagh or Leitrim, in which the lowered franchise will greatly strengthen the Parnellites. In the boroughs this result will be more marked. Nearly all of them, except Belfast and one or two others in the North, will fall into Nationalist hands. If a general election were now to take place, Mr. Parnell would probably come back at the head of nearly seventy members out of the whole number of 106. If it were to take place under the extended franchise which the bill proposes, he might win another fifteen seats, and have more than four-fifths of the Irish representatives serving under his banner.

This effect, and the aggravation of the difficulties of governing Ireland which it seems to threaten, is regarded by the Tories as a reason against proceeding with the bill. Either, they say, let it apply to England and Scotland only, or else postpone it till a better opportunity, when Ireland has been thoroughly pacified, and coercive legislation is no longer necessary. The objection to the first alternative is, that to omit Ireland would not only convert the Irish members into implacable opponents of the bill, but would be inconsistent with all the professions which the Liberal Ministry has been making of its resolve to do equal justice to Ireland. The objection to the second is, that the Ministry has absolutely pledged itself to the unenfranchised classes of England and Ireland, and cannot recede with honor. In these circumstances the uneasy Liberals, who see that the bill must go on, and that it must include Ireland, suggest that at any rate some steps ought to be taken to mitigate its dangerous effects there, by devising a system under which the loyal and educated minority in Ireland shall not be left almost wholly unrepresented. In England and Scotland there are so many differences between one constituency and another that every party is pretty sure of a fair hearing, and no party becomes so powerful as to trample on the others. But in Ireland county constituencies and borough constituencies are so like one another throughout the three Roman Catholic provinces that the Protestant minority will be extinguished. If Irish constituencies were large, so that for several of them three or more members might be allotted, the plan might be adopted under which, in England, a constituency with three members returns two members representing the majority and one representing the minority; no elector being allowed to vote for more than two candidates. But in Ireland no constituency has more than two members.

SUMMER HOMES.

THE spring in town is a depressing season all over the world, and in no city more so than in New York, where its recurrence involves the search for a "summer home." This cannot be put off later than March, and many prudent people think that midwinter is none too early to be looking about for a place to pass the summer in. We are not speaking, of course, of the very rich, the people who have country seats and yachts, but of the great mass of people of limited means, who have to remain during the summer near the shop, store, broker's or lawyer's office, which constitutes the source of the family supplies. Among this great class the summer-home problem casts a gloom over a large part of the year, first, in the anxious canvass of the advantages of the various homes that are offered, then in the discomfort and misery attendant upon the occupation of the one that is selected, and finally in recovering from the effects of occupying it after returning to town.

There are one or two points with regard to the selection of a summer home that are frequently overlooked, and we are sure that our readers will be glad to have their attention called to them. The first is that nothing is gained by inquiries about malaria. It used to be thought that certain districts in the United States were malarious, and certain other districts free from it, and, as long as this belief prevailed, the owners of houses in the suspected regions always had, when interrogated, a guilty look, or else an air of brazen composure by which the presence of malaria might be detected even while they were engaged in boasting of the healthfulness of the spot; just as we used to be able, during the war, to detect treason in the glance of a peace Democrat even while he was vaunting his devotion to the Union. The scientific researches pursued in the last twenty years on the subject of malaria have resulted, however, fortunately or unfortunately, in discovering it everywhere. In the most salubrious valleys, on the tops of the loftiest mountains, on the sandy sea coast, and far away from it, in New England as well as in New York or Illinois, the germs of this fearful pest are found by Science, and so widespread has the dread of it now become that we have known it to prevent an owner of property from getting tenants in a New England village where there had not been a case of malaria from the time of the earliest settlement.

The scientific discovery that malaria exists everywhere has greatly emboldened the owners of property in the old suspected districts, and enabled them to take a new line in reply to questions on the subject. They no longer deny impudently that there is any reason to fear malaria, nor stammer and hesitate in their answers, but, with a look of patient superiority and compassion for the ignorance of the inquirer, they remind him of the unquestionable fact that malaria is said to prevail on the shores of the Hudson and the Sound, on Long Island, in New Jersey, in the city itself, and that the particular town in which he is searching for a "home" is not entirely free from it. The fact is, they go on, on the other side of the railroad track there have been cases, caused no doubt by the construction of the road; but elsewhere there has never yet been any malaria. Of course, they continue, with a steady look in the eye of the inquirer, families coming from malarious districts may bring the germs of malaria with them, and it may break out after they get into a pure bracing air like that of Mudview; of course such an accident as this would only make the evidence of the healthfulness of the place still stronger. There is no way of meeting such an argument. We have known a person whose fingernails were blue with ague, and who was shaking all over—owing, according to his own account, to some fish he had eaten for breakfast—crudely to deny that he had ever had a touch of malaria; but this was a generation ago; if he is still alive, he probably now explains it by declaring that he got it somewhere else, and that it had been brought

out by the healthiness of the air in his new home. The moral influence of malaria in stimulating mendacity and invention is one of its most marked features, and an eye for a non-malarious summer home is like an eye for a horse, only to be got by much experience and some suffering.

The matter is complicated still further by the fact that the owner of the summer home never wants the place as a summer home for himself. Healthy it is, and cool, free as any home from malaria and mosquitoes, in the midst of a smiling country, abounding in excellent roads, fanned by bracing breezes from the hills or the sea, as the case may be—a spot full of charm and attraction, and within easy reach of town by rail or water; yet for some inscrutable reason it is, at the very season when these advantages are at their height, to let. The reason is that the owner, if the home is inland, always happens to prefer the seaside; if on the seashore, he always likes to go into the mountains—a most singular fact when you reflect that the place was originally selected by him as his own summer home. His position is very different from that of an old-fashioned boarding house keeper, who, at least, vouched for the fitness of the place for human habitation by living in it himself. The longing of the proprietor of the summer home to put some one else in it during the summer, breeds distrust and suspicion, which he only partly allays by the enormous price he asks for it. His feeling evidently is that, if he asks enough, the applicant will begin to think that his stories about the place are true, just as the venders of candy recommend it to women and children by labelling it "high-cost bon-bons."

In this way we reach the extraordinary economic result that the rent of a summer home, for the time occupied, is just as great as that of a winter home in the city, and this although the owners of the summer homes are all anxious to let them, and do not like to live in them. If Adam Smith was not an arrant impostor, this must be because there is an extraordinary demand for such places, which it would be worth the while of the enterprising capitalists who are engaged in "developing" the country about New York to consider.

A CURIOUS HISTORY.

A PARAGRAPH in the daily press states that the Trustees of St. Patrick's Cathedral have obtained from James Doyle, of Boston, a quitclaim deed to the Cathedral property, comprising the two blocks of ground bounded by Fourth and Fifth Avenues and Fiftieth and Fifty-first Streets. Why John Doyle should be asked to give his quitclaim to one of the most valuable tracts in the city of New York, appeared to be worth inquiring, especially in the light of the commonly-received opinion that the city of New York had once conveyed this property to the Catholic Church for the nominal consideration of one dollar. Being moved to look into this history, we have come upon two facts of very considerable interest, which will be narrated in their order.

The first is, that the Cathedral property was never given by the city of New York to the Roman Catholic Church at all, but was bought by the Cathedral Trustees through an agent at a foreclosure sale in the year 1828 for the sum of $5,500 cash, the foreclosure having been made at the suit of the Eagle Fire Insurance Company against Dennis Doyle. To go back to the beginning, the land in question was part of the "commons" of the city of New York. It was conveyed by the municipal authorities to one Robert Lylburn on the 1st of May, 1799, for the sum of 405 pounds sterling, subject to a quit-rent of four bushels of wheat per annum. In the year 1810 Lylburn conveyed it to Francis Thompson and Thomas Cadle. In the same year Thompson and Cadle conveyed it to Andrew Morris and Cornelius Heeney, and the latter grantees mortgaged it to the Eagle Fire Insurance Company. On the 22d of May, 1821, they conveyed it, subject to the mortgage, to Dennis Doyle. The Eagle Fire Insurance Company foreclosed their mortgage, and sold the property under a decree of Chancellor Walworth at public auction on the 3d of November, 1828, and it was bought by Francis Cooper for the sum of $5,500. Cooper then conveyed it to the Trustees of St. Patrick's Cathedral, reciting in the deed that he had bought it at the sale as the agent of said Trustees. The property remained subject to the quit-rent of four bushels of wheat per annum until May 13, 1852, when the city of New York gave a quitclaim deed to the Cathedral Trustees for the consideration of one dollar. It appears that this latter deed had no other force or effect than to release the Trustees from the wheat rental, which was of a nominal character altogether. The title was already in the Trustees; the city had been divested of its title more than half a century before. Nevertheless, the story has gone around the world, and is probably believed by nine-tenths of the inhabitants of New York, that a lot of corrupt politicians controlling the city government, in the year 1852, in order to secure Irish Catholic votes, made a donation to the Church of this valuable ground. It is a pity to spoil so apt an illustration of the depravity of our rulers and the rapacity of the priesthood. We are reluctant to part with it, but we see no present means of retaining it. We pass it along to keep company with the tales of William Tell and the apple, of Pocahontas and John Smith, and other Phœnix-like delusions which rise from their ashes as often as they are put to death.

The second part of this curious narrative is not less surprising. It shows how the sum of $700, arising from the sale of the Cathedral property in the year 1828, as a surplus after satisfying the claims of the mortgagees and certain judgment creditors of Dennis Doyle, was bandied about from one public officer to another till the latter part of the year 1882, when it had grown, under the fructifying breath of compound interest, to the amount of $17,000, and was then paid over to an obscure laboring man named James Doyle, of Boston, Mass., grandson and only surviving heir of Dennis Doyle aforesaid. The record in this case shows that Dennis Doyle disappeared from New York before the foreclosure sale took place in 1828, and that the surplus money was left in the custody of the Assistant Register in Chancery, and was invested, accumulated, and reinvested by him and his successors in office until the 5th day of July, 1847, when, under a change of the law applicable to such funds, it was transferred to the custody of the Clerk of the Court of Appeals. Under a law subsequently passed it was retransferred to the County Treasurer of Richmond County, by whom and his successors in office it was invested, accumulated, and reinvested, always on bond and mortgage, until a couple of years ago, when a mousing lawyer had his curiosity excited by it, and put an advertisement in the papers inquiring for the heirs of Dennis Doyle. After some months of diligent search, in the course of which a good many wrong Doyles were started from cover, the right one was found in July, 1882, in the person of the aforementioned James. A proceeding was instituted in the Supreme Court of Richmond County to recover the surplus money and its accumulations. Upon the trial of the cause it was proved conclusively that James Doyle was not only a lineal descendant of Dennis Doyle, but the only surviving one of several. The assets, consisting of bonds and mortgages, and accumulated interest, amounting in all to about $17,000, were accordingly adjudged to belong to James Doyle, and were paid over to him. The most surprising feature of this branch of the history is not that James Doyle should have been found, but that this money should have been "lying around loose" for more than half a century unclaimed, passing through the hands of many officials of different grades, and yet that no part of it was ever lost, stolen, misapplied, or even badly invested, but was at all times in readiness to be delivered to the rightful owner, and was at last paid to him with its large accumulations of compound interest.

THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND.—III.

LONDON, March 6.

ANY of your readers who may happen to be interested in the subject of these letters* would do well to read with care Mr. Herbert Spencer's denunciations of "the new Toryism," and also the recent debate in the House of Lords on the Commission for Inquiring into the State of the Dwellings of the Poor. No two men are more different from each other, in intellectual gifts and in moral feeling, than Mr. Spencer and Lord Salisbury. Yet, oddly enough, the speculations of the philosopher and the speech of the Tory leader both tell the same tale: from the writings of the one, as from the words of the other, you may safely infer that (to use an expression borrowed from your ingenious correspondent) the "decline in the doctrine of laissez-faire" is a marked feature in the present condition of English opinion. In a former letter I pointed out that a belief in the benefits to be derived from state interference, or, in other words, the unpopularity of the doctrine of laissez-faire, was one of the sentiments or ideas which lay at the basis of the social movement in England. My sole object, in the present letter, is to account for a remarkable change of opinion.

The discredit into which the dogma of laissez-faire, and with it a whole body of economical doctrine, has for the moment fallen, is due to the combined influence of three different causes.

First. The formulas of political economy are, of all the principles which concern the conduct of life, the hardest for educated men, and still more for uneducated men, to grasp with a firm hold. The so-called "laws" of economical science are in reality descriptions of certain permanent tendencies. The rule that men will buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market, though it lies at the foundation of all commerce, does not constitute an inflexible law, subject to no exceptions, but is rather the expression of the way in which men, in so far as they pursue the principles of trade, tend, and must tend in the main, to act. Now, the most difficult thing for all men at many times, and for most men at all times, is to realize what is meant by a "tendency," or, to put the same thing in a slightly different form, what is the meaning of a rule which prevails generally, though subject to some real and to many apparent exceptions. A very slight acquaintance (and I have no right

* See the *Nation*, Nos. 967, 968.

to pretend to more than a slight acquaintance) with economical speculations, will convince any candid student that economists themselves have found it hard always to keep clear in their own minds the exact nature of the rules which make up economical science. The moral and intellectual temptation to treat maxims which you know to be true in more than ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, as laws admitting of no modification, has certainly not always been resisted by the exponents of economical doctrine or by the advocates of economical reforms. The greatest and most beneficial triumph of political economy has been the establishment of free trade, and there is great danger at present lest the world should underrate the debt we owe to free-traders such as John Bright. But, from a speculative point of view, the heroes of the Anti-Corn-Law League have damaged their own cause. To teach men to consider doctrines as absolutely true which are true only with certain limitations, is the readiest and the necessary method of converting abstract theories into practical reforms. But one evil of this method is, that the time comes when every one perceives that doctrines supposed to be absolutely true are true only subject to certain limitations; and it is very well for the world if the popular conviction that doctrines which have been accepted as dogmas need certain speculative limitations, does not lead to the delusion that beliefs true enough in the main are essentially false. This is what seems to have happened as regards many maxims of political economy. Bastiat, or Herbert Spencer, writes of laissez-faire as if it were a sort of absolute truth, as little open to limitations as the truths of mathematics. Ingenious thinkers like Bagehot point out to every thoughtful person that no economical, and one may say no political, truth has this character of rigid, absolute certainty. The result is that thousands, educated or uneducated—such, for example, as Lord Salisbury—who are not thinkers at all, come to fancy that the perfectly sound doctrine, within due limits, of laissez faire is an "exploded idea."

Nor is the difficulty of grasping the nature of rules which describe permanent tendencies rather than an invariable course of action, the only impediment to the maintenance of sound economical faith. The true hindrance is, that every important truth of political economy is a paradox. "I like to see the great chimneys smoking," was, it is said, the reply of Thiers to all the arguments adduced against the protection which kept up French manufactures. He saw the one fact which lay on the surface, namely, that free trade would abolish the manufactures which can be more easily carried on elsewhere than in France. He did not see all the incalculable gain which France herself would obtain by the due application of her own labor. What is true of protection is true of charity, of expenditure on luxuries, and the like. In each instance science teaches a doctrine which is opposed to appearances. It teaches us, in short, to look to what is unseen and therefore eternal, rather than to what is seen and therefore temporary and delusive. But this, the real strength of political economy, is, as regards its hold on the ordinary imagination, its weakness. What, in truth, requires explanation is, not that the majority of Englishmen should become sceptical as to the validity of doctrines which are opposed to all the natural prejudices, to all the "idols" of the human intellect, but that a whole nation should have seemed, during a generation, to have adopted scientific truth for the guidance of practical life.

The explanation of this marvel is obvious. The success of free trade was one of those palpable, so to speak, tangible facts which go for more even than they are worth. Ordinary Englishmen adopted, or thought they adopted, the speculative conclusions of Adam Smith and his followers, because Englishmen felt that actual experiment had demonstrated the validity of conclusions which few Englishmen would have adopted as long as they claimed assent merely on the ground of their inherent reasonableness. Seeing was, in short, believing; but faith which rests upon sight is not faith at all, and convictions based, as far as the populace were concerned, on the success of one great experiment are necessarily shaken by any change of outward circumstances. Never did free trade benefit a country more than it has benefited England throughout the last ten years. But a period of less than our ordinary prosperity has made men begin to doubt the wisdom of that very course of policy which has alone prevented lessened prosperity from turning into actual ruin. Thousands of Englishmen, in short, believed in free trade without understanding the logical grounds of the belief that was in them. The palpable fruits of free trade and the practices which went with it have been less striking than they were some ten or fifteen years back. Immediately half the enthusiasts for free trade and laissez-faire have begun to suspect that their economical creed itself was unsound. This is just the state of national feeling in which all the old arguments or fallacies which have from time immemorial been deduced in favor of state interference naturally rise up like ghosts from their grave, and are found to come back and to haunt the minds of all that ignorant and illogical class who, whether peers or commoners, are known as practical men of common sense.

Secondly. A change in social life, very characteristic of the age, has given to many of the maxims of political economy an appearance of being out of date. This change is the immense increase in the number of corporate bodies, and especially of corporations such as railways, which, from the nature of things, constitute more or less of monopolies. Now, the teaching of the older political economists, though in principle applicable to corporations no less than to individuals, undoubtedly contemplated a state of society in which one individual A should bargain with another individual B, and in which everything should be regulated strictly by individual competition, and took little account of corporate feelings and of the kind of monopolies which, in many cases, are produced by the existence of corporations having exclusive rights over definite portions of land. The result has followed that the form in which economical truths were expressed by Adam Smith, or Ricardo, or M'Culloch, is often hardly applicable to the transactions of modern life; and when the practical maxims in which theoretical principles are embodied are seen to be inaccurate, mankind are apt to fancy that the principles themselves are untrue. Nor is this the only result of the development of corporations. There are many cases where the choice of the public lies in reality not between laissez-faire and governmental interference, but between the interference of the state and the despotism of corporate bodies. Every one can see that, for example, as regards railways, the question for the public to consider is, whether it is better for the nation that the great highways of the country should be in the hands of the Government, or in the hands of two or three huge monopolists, who will find it their most gainful course to exclude competition by a system of combination. It is vain to trust to the energies of individuals where an individual has to compete with an artificial personage who has a thousand times the resources of the richest man in England. On the debated question whether the existence of corporate monopolists is a valid ground for placing the Government at the head of large business concerns, I express no opinion whatever. What I do insist upon is, that the existence of large companies does to a certain extent lessen the force of the argument in favor of laissez-faire, and, what is of more consequence for my present purpose, is one of those facts which attract popular attention. Their experience of railways has, it may be conjectured, converted hundreds of Englishmen to a belief in the benefits to be gained by the intervention of the state in matters of business.

Thirdly. Moral feeling has, as is usually the case in England, and (I conceive) also in America, had more to do with the discredit of laissez-faire than either speculative reasoning or plausible inferences from the actual experience of modern life. The predominant sentiment of the day is, as I pointed out in my first letter, one of pity for the miseries, and especially the physical miseries, of the masses. Sympathy lies very near to indignation, and compassion for sufferings which individuals feel themselves powerless to avert, makes it to many persons seem an intolerable injustice that these sufferings should exist. But the natural opponent of injustice is the power of the state. It is therefore all but inevitable that persons who consider the poor to be wronged by the fact that they are poor, should demand the intervention of the Government on behalf of the mass of the people. The same point may be put in another light. Reformers bent on removing great evils find it in general impossible to acquiesce in the notion—which is often, however, a true one—that no specific cure for a definite evil exists, and that the best that can be done is to leave men free, in the hope or expectation that a series of individual efforts will by degrees remove or lessen the worst defects of society. Now, given the assumption that some power exists capable of remedying directly all great social diseases, it soon becomes palpable that the only power which can conceivably be available for the achievement of great social improvements is the state. Reformers, in short, believe in the intervention of the Government, not in reality from a well-grounded conviction that governmental interference can achieve tasks of infinite difficulty, but because the power of the state is the only conceivable *deus ex machinâ* capable of cutting through the knots which ardent reformers know they have not the skill to untie or the power to cut through. The current and exaggerated belief in the power of the state is, in fact, a sign and a result of the growth of sympathy.

A. V. Dicey.

THE ENGLISH IN EGYPT ON THE ENGLISH IN ENGLAND.

Cairo, March 6, 1884.

We in Egypt sometimes think, not to say flatter ourselves, that we are somewhere about six months ahead of our friends in England in the views we hold of English policy in Egypt. It is wonderful what an amount of practical unanimity there is, and has long been, among Englishmen here as to the course which it behooves England to take. This unanimity is not confined to the merchants at Alexandria, whose clear and absorbing commercial interests might naturally lead them all to think one way; but in the Cairo world, where all the conflicting tendencies of English political life are fairly represented, there is to be found only a trifling divergency of view. It is very rare to meet any one who would favor the instant annexation of Egypt; and it is equally rare to meet any one who does not invoke the most absolute and authoritative influence of England in all

Egyptian affairs, or who would, even in imagination, fix any limit of time at which that influence ought to be withdrawn.

The criticisms on the recent proceedings in Parliament afford a good example of the different attitude of the English Liberals in England and of English Liberals in Egypt. Throughout the English debates, the leading Liberals and leaders of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry have constantly assumed an apologetic tone in speaking of the English intervention in Egypt. In the last debate, indeed, they have spoken little, if at all, of an early withdrawal, and have even ventured to allude to the permanent presence of English influence; but everywhere there are unmistakable tokens of the dislike which the Liberal party have, as a party, to the English occupation, and of the sanguine view they take of the actual progress being effected in Egyptian reforms. Mr. Goschen, indeed, who, like Mr. Forster, acted as a candid friend of his party, pressed the Government to discriminate between reforms as measured by statistics and reports, and reforms which were vital enough to endure if the support of England were withdrawn. A few only of the speakers, such as Mr. Goschen himself, have any real knowledge of the true obstacles to beneficial change in all Oriental, and especially Mohammedan, countries; and of those who are well informed on this point, there is scarcely one besides Mr. Goschen who commands respect as a practical statesman. The result is that, but for the glaring calamities which have called for a reinforcement of English authority in Egypt, it is probable that the abstract dislike to foreign enterprises, which was a natural reaction against the turbulent insanity of Lord Beaconsfield's imperialism, would have carried the day. Instead of the evacuation of Cairo, the Mahdi's victories in the Sudan have compelled England to undertake what is practically a second war on Egyptian soil. The indirect consequences of this call for renewed activity have been still more signal. The long debate in both houses of Parliament exhibits the spaces of thought which have been travelled over in a few weeks by the whole English people. Nothing but the rapid change of front of the Government could probably have saved it from disaster. At the present moment the English Government and their supporters in Egypt are far nearer together than they have ever been before, and it only needs a few more calamitous break-downs in the fictitious native administration which is still being propped up here, to make advanced reformers in England and in Egypt absolutely at one.

It is from no imperialistic tendencies or foolish pride in the extension of the English name and fame that Liberal English politicians in Egypt call for the most energetic and avowed exertion of English authority. It is only in the interests of the true people of Egypt themselves, and in the pursuance of exactly the same ends as those which Mr. Gladstone's Government loudly and consistently professes to keep before them. Diplomatically speaking, England cannot leave Egypt at this moment. If England's work of establishing native government on a firm and lasting basis is never done, England can never leave. But every Englishman here knows well enough that the establishment of native institutions with independent vitality in them has proceeded as yet only in outward form. It will take a new generation to grow up, under a new state of things, before the experiment of how this state of things will last can be so much as tried. To an Englishman at home, even of the rudest and simplest condition, impatience with his lot, desire of self-improvement, and belief in the possibility of things being made better for him, whether by his own exertions or by the exertions of others, are as natural to him as the English air he breathes and the English language he speaks. They are the product of eighteen centuries of Christianity, and of some eight or ten centuries of the English Constitution. Even the ruling classes in England only indicate their existence by devoting themselves to the cause of public improvement. In Egypt the ruling classes, with the exception of a few of their members who might be counted on the fingers of one hand, are slothful, ignorant, selfish, and sublimely indifferent to the progress of themselves or others. This is at the best. At the worst, they themselves constitute the first object which a reformer would wish to reform away. The people are only saved from the infirmities due to generations of serfdom by an amount of Mohammedanism which prevents them from being patriots and keeps them fatalists.

Till these conditions of the problem are mastered, Englishmen in England never will be able to translate English political institutions and ideas into Egyptian terms. Of course it is well to introduce courts of justice which will be free from the gross blots of corruption that rendered the late administration of justice such only in name. It is well to compel Egyptians to learn the art of voting and to have formally inculcated upon them the fact of political responsibility. It is well to create a native army, the bands of which can at least play European tunes, and which, if never brought into the field, will be safe not to run away. But as yet neither the heart nor the mind of the nation itself is touched by any one of the reforms which have been inaugurated. Mohammedan fanaticism, said to be excited by the Mahdi, is arresting an attempt even to deal with the slavery question. No movements but the voluntary ones of the eminent American missionaries are grappling with education on any scale commensurate to the purpose. The obliteration of women, even in the families of Coptic Christians, is still treated as a divine institution. The only reforms that have made any way, such as the improvement of the prisons, are social rather than political, and relate to work which in other countries has been mainly set on foot by private philanthropists.

It might be thought that the prospect thus opened out is not a cheering one; but the fact is, that the only disheartening circumstances are where too sanguine a view is taken of the early resurrection of Egypt from its sleep or death of ages. As England begins really to feel how worthless are superficial reforms in Egypt, there is no doubt she will brace herself afresh to undertake a longer and harder task than she has yet had the courage to contemplate. It is not a question as to whether Egypt is to be independent or to belong to this country or that, to be annexed, protected, or advised. The question is, whether the true and indestructible life of the people is to be called out by securing years and years of just and blameless government, or whether all the money, blood, energy, time, and sentiment of England already expended on Egypt is to be thrown away. A.

Correspondence.

THE SECOND AND THIRD ARMY CORPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In behalf of many thousands of former soldiers, allow me to protest against a perversion of military history which Captain Phisterer has committed in his so-called 'Statistical Record,' forming a volume of the Scribner series.

On pp. 55–61, inclusive, Captain Phisterer gives what purports to be an official account of the organization and history of the several army corps, twenty-five in number, besides the cavalry corps. I will not undertake to criticise the statements concerning other corps; but as regards the Second and the Third Corps, this account is grossly erroneous. Let me take the Second Corps in illustration of the kind of errors committed. The following is Captain Phisterer's record:

"Second Army Corps.
(Trefoil.)

"August 12, 1862, the troops of the Shenandoah Department were to constitute the Second Corps, under command of General Banks.

"September 12, 1862, the President ordered that this corps should be known hereafter as the Eleventh; and that the corps arranged in General Order No. 101, of March 13, 1862, Headquarters Army of the Potomac, as the Second, should be known as such.

"June 28, 1865, Discontinued."

Here it is asserted that there was no officially-designated Second Corps until the 12th of August, 1862, certain reports emanating from the Peninsula of Virginia to the contrary notwithstanding. The troops who, under the heroic Sumner, were contending at Fair Oaks, at Gaines's Mill, at Glendale, and at Malvern Hill were a set of impostors. The title "the Second Corps," it appears from Captain Phisterer's account, was first properly used on the 12th of August, 1862, when it was applied to the command of General Banks! That title was, on the 12th of September following, taken away from Banks's command, and bestowed on the vagrant and orphaned body of troops then moving into Maryland, under the command of Sumner, to repel Lee's invasion.

Now, in direct opposition to this, I assert that the divisions of Richardson, Sedgwick, and Blenker (the last was soon afterward detached) were, on the 13th of March, 1862, by order of the President, organized into the Second Army Corps; that the corps so organized had a continuous existence, under that name, until June 28, 1865, when its shattered regiments were disbanded, with the right to inscribe more than thirty considerable battles upon their banners. We will not allow Captain Phisterer to whistle away our existence as a corps, under our own proper name, between March 13 and September 12, 1862.

Captain Phisterer altogether mistakes the purport of the President's order of August 12. That order did not constitute General Banks's command the Second Corps, but only *the Second Corps of the Army of Virginia*, afterward to become the Eleventh Corps in the armies of the United States. This is in terms stated in the President's order of September 12, as follows:

"War Dept., A. G. O.,
Washington, Sept. 12, 1862.
General Orders No. 129.

"The President directs that the First, Second, and Third Corps of the 'Army of Virginia,' announced in General Order No. 103, be hereafter designated as the First, Eleventh, and Twelfth.

"The several army corps will now stand as follows: The First, Second, Third, and Fourth, as arranged in General Orders No. 101, of March 13, 1862, from the Headquarters, Army of the Potomac," etc., etc.

The utmost that could possibly be said in defence of any part of Captain Phisterer's statement would be that between March 13 and September 12, 1862, General Sumner's command was the Second Corps of the Army of the Potomac, while General Banks's command was, between August 12 and September 12, the Second Corps of the Army of Virginia, neither having the right to bear the title "the Second Corps." But even this would not be justified on any proper principles of interpretation and con-

struction. The succession of facts was as follows:

On the 13th of March, 1862, the system of army corps was instituted. The following is the first order naming army corps:

"Hd. Qu. Army of the Potomac,
Fairfax C. H., Va.,
March 13, 1862.

General Orders No. 101.

"In compliance with the President's War Order No. 2, of March 8, 1862, the active portion of the Army of the Potomac is formed into army corps as follows."

Then follows the designation of army corps No. 1 to No. 5. On the 17th of July, 1862, Congress passed an act the purport of which Captain Phisterer has misapprehended. He says this act "legalized and allowed the organization of troops into army corps, and under this authority the following corps were organized," etc. Now, this was not the substantive part of the legislation of July, 1862, relating to army corps. By his powers as Commander-in-Chief, the President had from the beginning possessed all the authority needed to create army corps, as fighting and marching bodies, or for administrative purposes, just as fully as he had authority to create divisions or brigades; and this authority the President had rightfully exercised in the order just recited. But the President had no power to appoint a special staff for the army corps he might create under his authority as Commander-in-Chief. It was to meet this need that the legislation of July 17, 1862, relating to army corps, was had. It provided that each corps established by the President might have four departmental officers with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, an aide-de-camp with the rank of major, and two aides-de-camp with the rank of captain.

Antecedent to this provision, and properly introductory to it (inasmuch as army corps had not theretofore been known by that name to the law), is the following: "That the President be and he is hereby authorized to establish and organize army corps according to his discretion." Captain Phisterer seems to interpret this as signifying that, prior to the date of that act, the President had no authority to organize army corps. He might just as well infer, from the last of the thirty-two acts confirming Magna Carta, that the right to the free election of Bishops did not exist before Henry IV., or that the use of the writ of *Præcipe* had never before been limited. The President had always possessed the authority to form army corps, under his general powers as Commander-in-Chief; the act of July 17, 1862, gave a statutory sanction to this right, and thereupon provided the special staff needed to make the corps organization most effective. The President's designation of Sumner's command as the Second Corps, March 13, 1862, held good unbroken from that date to June 28, 1865.

But even were it conceded that Sumner's command was from March 13, to Sept. 12, 1862, only the Second Corps of the Army of the Potomac, while Banks's command became the Second Corps of the Army of Virginia, Aug. 12, with what propriety can it be claimed that the latter had, at any time, the right to the designation of "the Second Corps," or to wear the trefoil? If Sumner's command was not "the Second Corps" before Sept. 12, 1862, much less was Banks's, for Sumner's command had been much the earlier organized as a marching and fighting body. This President Lincoln fully recognized in the order of Sept. 12, 1862. Sumner's command remained the Second Corps, as it had been declared by the President in March; while to the "Second Corps of the Army of Virginia" was assigned a later number.

Capt Phisterer is equally in error respecting the Third Corps, which he makes out to have been organized under the command of General McDowell, Aug. 12, 1862, in entire disregard of the body of troops which was commanded by Heintzelman, which was designated in the President's order of March 13, 1862, and which participated, under the title of the Third Corps, in the great battles of May, June, July, and August: the noble corps of Kearny, Hooker, Sickles, Birney, and Berry. Francis A. Walker.

Boston, March 17, 1884.

A SUGGESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A recent visit to Bermuda has persuaded me that a small portion of your valuable space might not be wasted in calling attention to some economic features of its local administration, which have produced to the inhabitants valuable and permanent results at a trifling expense.

These islands, now connected into one by permanent and solid causeways, constitute the summit of a great submarine mountain somewhat higher than Mont Blanc, and some 600 miles distant from any other land. The land area is nineteen and one-fourth square miles, or about 12,378 acres, of which 2,300 acres are under tillage. The construction of its rocks and the derivation of its vegetation, birds, and insects, afford some interesting and suggestive illustrations of modern views on those entertaining subjects. Its settlement was nearly coincident with that of Virginia, although its population of 761 per square mile far exceeds that of Virginia or of any other rural part of the adjacent continent.

The aggregate population (exclusive of sailors and soldiers) is 14,650, of which 60 per cent. is colored, but, owing to a £60 freehold qualification, the whole number of legal voters is 854. Hence the representative body, as well as all administrative functions, is in the hands of the most respected, tax-paying citizens.

The general revenue—as distinguished from the post-office and light-house surplus—is about £30,000, derived entirely from a specific duty on spirits and tobacco, and a trifling ad-valorem duty of 5 per cent. on all other importations. The entire incidence of this taxation, compared with our 50 to 100 per cent duties, and our vast direct general and local taxation, is absolutely inappreciable and imperceptible. From this general revenue is maintained the entire legislative and judicial and a fair proportion of the executive machinery, excellent municipal conveniences in the two towns of Hamilton and St. George, a general island police, and the efficient maintenance of over ninety-five miles of roads and streets, exclusive of the sixteen miles of military roads—which are also open to public use, but maintained by the Imperial military authorities.

It is the streets and roads, and their economic construction, which are especially interesting to Americans, who have only got a step beyond savage tribes in the making and maintenance of public highways, although we spend somewhat more upon them than the richest and most perfectly supplied European nations. The Bermuda roads, though penetrating a very uneven and undulating surface, are graded almost to the capacity of railroads, shrinking from no "rock cuts," or expensive "fills," or solid causeways, to obtain this result. Most of the heaviest work of grading, draining, and metalling (they are all metalled) was done by borrowing long-term convicts from the mother country. The heavy fortifications belonging to the Imperial Government were mainly constructed in the same manner—that is to say, at no expense except transportation, since the convicts had to be subsisted somewhere. A view of these vast constructions, effected almost without expense, and yet stupendously costly, and politically demoralizing if done by our methods, leads me to make a suggestion which, indeed, has provoked this communication.

Our sea coast defences, which have cost many millions, are now said to be obsolete and worthless, and our shores without real defence. We are painfully aware that under our system, in the absence of a reformed civil service or any other modern guarantees of administration, we cannot reconstruct them, any more than a navy, without great—well, let us say *waste*. Yet every State in our Union possesses, inside and outside of its jails, thousands of healthy convicts, supported on the taxation of honest industry, and whose indoor labor is supposed by the latter to affect it injuriously. Why should not the General Government hire these convicts from the States, for their custody, and food, and a small daily sum, and use them as the British Empire has done, viz.: to lighten the burdens of its honest population by constructing roads, forts, and other public necessities, wherever they are needed?

Not only their innumerable colonies, but the British Islands themselves, bristle at every entrance and on every headland with stupendous works of defence, which have cost nothing to the taxpayer either directly in taxation or indirectly by competition with honest industry, but have been almost entirely constructed by the penal labor of those who had elected to live at war with the community.

Cannot we do as well? I. J. W.

Philadelphia, March 22, 1884.

FLOODS AND DRAIN TILES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication on "Floods and their Causes," in your paper of February 28, is a good example of the way in which meteorological phenomena are so easily explained by a large class of reasoners. The earliest instance that I recollect is the famous Tenterden steeple, believed to be the cause of the Goodwin sands in the English Channel; for before the steeple was built there were no sands, and, of course, its erection brought about the sea flood that destroyed Earl Godwin's property. To come down to modern times, we find that the increased rainfall in Utah is due to the few hundred or thousand apple trees set out by the Mormons. The droughts of Illinois are in consequence of tillage and the breaking up of the land on an extensive scale, for in a prairie country they cannot be attributed to the destruction of the forests. In Kansas, on the other hand, where it is asserted the rainfall is increasing, it is believed that tillage brings rain. I have heard, too, in our great deserts, that railroads affect the climate—"the rails carry electricity, you know." Lastly, we are told that the great floods lately prevailing over such an immense territory, including Southern California and even Arizona, were due to the fact that tile draining is becoming common in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Tenterden steeple is nowhere. It is not likely that any farmer thinking of tile-draining his land will be stopped by this wonderful theory, for he will be very apt to know that surface drains are more likely to produce floods than are buried tiles. He knows, too, that tiles carry little or no water in winter, when the soil is frozen, say at the date of our last flood, but that rain falling on a frozen soil will run off and make a flood. A flood produced by tiles in winter would be very little short of a miracle. Your correspondent must try again.

George Clendon, Jr.

Arizona, March 14, 1884.

Notes.

SUMNER, WHITNEY & Co., San Francisco, will add to their series of "Legal Recreations" a volume of verse by many lights of the profession, British and American, entitled 'Lyrics of the Law.'

Like every strikingly successful book, 'John Bull et Son Île' is soon followed by others of the same kind. Wyman & Son are about to publish in London a reply to it, called 'John Bull's Neighbor in Her True Light: Being some Criticisms by a Brutal Anglo-Saxon.' But M. Max O'Rell's lively sketch has hastened the publication of a book not less clever, and more serious and useful, namely, 'La Vie Publique en Angleterre,' by Philippe Daryl. M. Daryl has lived in England for ten years, making a special study of English institutions and customs; and his observations have been published in a series of letters to the Paris *Temps*, which form the present volume. We shall speak more particularly of it hereafter. A translation is to be published by Routledge.

Mr. Bancroft's "final revision" of his history has reached the fourth volume, embracing epoch third of the American Revolution, from May, 1774, to July, 1776, ending with the Declaration of Independence (D. Appleton & Co.). This volume, like the last, contains a well-marked and distinct period—that of organized resistance, ending in separation; and, as in the previous period, Mr. Bancroft's treatment is especially distinguished by the fulness with which the English discussion of the American question is reported. It appears to us that we notice more in this volume than in any of the others the exuberance of style and enthusiasm in the presentation of the American cause, which characterized the original edition. These qualities are considerably toned down in the earlier volumes, but in the stirring events of these two years the veteran historian seems to feel himself burn anew with the enthusiasm of his youth.

The advent of a white (or whitish) elephant has led the Messrs. Harper to bring out a new edition of Charles Reade's 'Jack of all Trades' (the story of the Siamese Djek and her keeper). The author should not complain because a rival house has done the same thing, omitting, however, the first four chapters.

The *Art Age* (New York: Arthur B. Turnure), a beautifully printed sheet, gives in its eighth number the particulars of the formation of the new Grolier Club, of this city, which consists of "bibliophiles, publishers, practical designers, printers, etchers, binders, lithographers"—in short, of men who, as mere book-lovers or as artists lovingly engaged in the manufacture of books, wish to promote a like sentiment in the community. Mr. Robert Hoe, jr., is President. The occasional publication of books is contemplated. A tentative Grolier Bibliography is begun in the same number of the *Art Age*. Of this periodical, by the way, we may say that it is already interesting and useful, and promises (with the Club, morally, behind it) to be more so.

Mr. S. S. Rider's gossipy *Book Notes* (Providence, R. I.) seldom fail to contain something curious or suggestive. Two columns in the issue for March 15 open a vein that would furnish much amusement in the working—"The Shows which our Grandfathers [why not our Fathers?] attended a half century ago"

A brochure, printed rather than published at Louisville, Ky., commemorates the late Joshua F. Speed, who played a very important, but unobtrusive, part in the war, in helping to retain Kentucky in the Union. He was the trusted friend of Lincoln, and his lecture upon that President, here preserved side by side with a rather commonplace lecture on a trip across the continent, was well worth printing or reprinting. Perhaps as characteristic an anecdote of Lincoln as any related by Mr. Speed, is that telling of his retort to a political opponent who had taunted him with his youth: "Live long, or die young, I would rather die now than, like the gentleman, change my politics, and, simultaneously with the change, receive an office worth $3,000 per year, and then have to erect a lightning-rod over my house to protect a guilty conscience from an offended God."

Mr. Christern sends us the catalogue of the French Water-Color Society, sixth exhibition, now open. Bearing the imprint of Jouaust, we naturally expect much from it, and it is indeed manufactured with more care and liberality than is common in such publications. The size of the pamphlet is a large octavo, and most of the pen sketches of the pictures commemorated are more elaborate and interesting in themselves than usual. A certain elegance, too, is attained in a very simple manner, by means of ornamental vignettes or borders indicative of the painter's line—his "leading motive," to borrow a term from music—as, *e. g.*, rifles and a row of helmets over Detaille's list of drawings.

With Part 118 Brehm's 'Thierleben' (B. Westermann & Co.) closes the chapters on insects, with many colored plates of beetles, butterflies, ephemeridæ, etc., auxiliary woodcuts in abundance (though we might have wished for color in depicting the protective mimicry of this order), and the usual index. No. 119 introduces the "lower animals (*Thiere*) of the German nomenclature—crabs, starfish, worms, etc.

The *Revue Historique* for March-April has a very attractive table of contents. Alfred Stern prints a number of important documents derived from the French Foreign Office, and pertaining to the relations of France and Prussia from 1807 to 1813. Not least remarkable are those which bear upon the Emperor Napoleon's pursuit of Stein in 1808 and 1809, and the vain endeavor of King Frederick William to have the blow of confiscation mitigated in favor of Stein's infant children. This paper will be continued. Joseph Reinach, the literary executor of Gambetta, contributes an orderly series of valuable inedited despatches and letters from this statesman during the siege of Paris, or from October 10, 1870, to January 22, 1871. That of November 9 is a pomt-for-point reply to complaints made against his dictatorship by the Provisional Government shut up in Paris. The final letter presages the end of the conflict at the capital, and declares the writer's resolve not to lay down his arms while a Prussian pollutes the soil of France.

Gambetta's wished-for "spirited foreign policy" is recalled by the formation of "L'Alliance Française," at Paris, which aims to strengthen the bonds between the mother country and its colonists wherever found. Its means are confined to the "propagation" of the language, through missionaries, schools, and associated study and cultivation. It will found institutions of learning, and train teachers, encourage books and reviews, especially of a pedagogic nature, award prizes, hold lectures, and publish a periodical bulletin. Algeria and Tunis will receive most attention, as being nearest. M. Tissot is president of this patriotic organization, and a large number of distinguished men in all ranks are among the honorary supporters. The Secretary is P. Foncin, 2 Rue St.-Simon.

No. 109 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* has an important map of the new Northern provinces of Greece, by H. Kiepert. It shows the administrative divisions, the population, etc., and is very full of names.

Nothing seems surer than that, like the Russians in Merv, the Austrians in Bosnia, and the French in Tunis, the English in Egypt have come to stay. A good chart of that country therefore becomes a necessity, and to meet the permanent demand Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, has published apart from Dr. H. Kiepert's 'Hand-Atlas' the general map of the Nile region ("Uebersichtskarte der Nilländer"), on a scale of about eighty miles to the inch, with a side-map of the Delta, on a scale of twenty-four miles to the inch. It has been revised to date, and ranges as far south as the middle limit of Shoa.

The *laudatores temporis acti* often refer to the giants of erudition of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. There are quite as erudite men now, though their works do not so often appear in folio, and there are men who, if not perhaps so erudite, give birth to a number of octavos sufficient to counterbalance a good many folios. One such man has just died in Rome, the Abbé G. Moroni, compiler of the 'Dizionario di eruditione storico-ecclesiastica,' in 103 double-columned volumes. Moroni was originally a barber by trade, and got into ecclesiastical circles by shaving Gregory XVI., one of whose principal councillors he became.

A new historical monthly has been started by the publishing house of Cotta at Stuttgart, under the somewhat cumbrous title, *Zeitschrift für allgemeine Geschichte, Cultur-, Litteratur-, und Kunstgeschichte.* It is to be devoted, in large part, to the history of civilization, ancient and modern, and to satisfy both the student and the unscholarly reader. No editor is named, and the rather inflated "Introductory," by "Die Redaktion," makes one inclined to expect more active management than learned supervision; but a long list of professors and authors who have promised their coöperation is presented, including such conspicuous names as Ernst Curtius, Felix Dahn, Droysen, Ebers, Giesebrecht, and Gregorovius. The external appearance of the periodical is very neat, but the monthly parts are slender, and the outcome of a year can be no more than two medium-size volumes. The contents of the first number embrace the first part of a topographical essay on "Ancient Syracuse," by A. Holm, Professor at the University of Naples; "A Picture of Convent Life in Austria," by A. Horawitz; a history of the murder of Anthony Ascham, the English Ambassador to the Court of Spain, in 1650 ("Ein Gesandtenmord im siebzehnten Jahrhundert"), by M. Brosch; "The Plague in Russia in 1654," part 1, by Professor A. Brückner, of the University of Dorpat, the historian of Peter the Great and Catherine II.; and an essay on "American Statesmen," by Professor Schönbach, of Gratz, forming a discursive review, in the friendliest spirit, of the biographical collection edited under that title by J. T. Morse, jr., in Boston. There are also a few brief book notices and an obituary.

Dr. Hermann Wagner, whom his dismissal from office, in 1873, in consequence of Doctor Lasker's revelations of Governmental corruption connected with the granting of concessions to railway companies, has not deprived of the title of "Wirklicher Geheimer Ober-Regierungs-Rath," has come before the public with a first instalment of political recollections, entitled 'Erlebtes: Meine Memoiren aus der Zeit von 1848 bis 1866 und von 1873 bis jetzt.' The first period to be embraced in these memoirs is that of the bloom of the ultra-reactionary party, known in Prussian history as the Kreuzzeitungpartei, or *Cross-Gazette* party, so called from the *Neue Preussische Zeitung*, its leading organ, and its emblematic frontispiece, the cross. Doctor Wagner founded the Berlin newspaper in 1848, after the outbreak of the revolutionary move-

ments of that year, and *in hoc signo* gallantly carried on the championship of conservative and privileged interests, as editor-in-chief till 1854, and subsequently as member of the Legislature. The period of the decline of the party, ending with his own disgrace, is left out. As a contribution to the recent history of Germany by a man so deeply versed in politics, and so learned as to be the editor of a 'Staats- und Gesellschafts-Lexikon' in twenty-three volumes, the book cannot fail to be interesting, in spite of the author's extreme partisan bias. It is, however, to form only one volume of moderate size. It is in part supplementary to the author's 'Die Politik Friedrich Wilhelm IV.,' and in an appendix it will contain the as yet inedited correspondence of that Prussian King with the Protestant Bishop of Jerusalem, Gobat.

Professor Hans Prutz, of Königsberg, the author of a life of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, of a work, 'Aus Phönizien,' descriptive of a scientific mission, undertaken in 1874, under the auspices of the German Imperial Chancellorship, for the discovery of the burial-place of that crusading Emperor, and of a number of monographs on events and institutions connected with the history of the crusades, has recently summed up the results of his investigations on the civilizing effects of the protracted struggles in the East between the Cross and the Crescent, in a work entitled 'Culturgeschichte der Kreuzzüge' (Berlin, 1883). It is written in a spirit friendly to the nations of the East, especially to the Arabs, to whose conflicts and relations with the Christians, in earlier times, much space is devoted in the introductory parts of the book. Professor Prutz is the son of Robert Prutz, the poet and historical and miscellaneous writer.

The Nautical Almanac Office of the Bureau of Navigation, Washington, has just added a third publication to its list of annual issues, entitled the *American Coaster's Nautical Almanac*. The first volume is prepared for the present year, and is mainly a compilation from the *American Ephemeris*, previously issued by the same office, and the publications of various Government Bureaus, particularly the Hydrographic Office, the Light-House Board, and the Coast and Geodetic Survey. The volume comprises 158 pages, more than half of which is taken up with lists of lights of the United States and foreign lights of the Atlantic coast. The astronomical data take up about forty pages, and the tide tables twenty. At the conclusion of the book a few pages are devoted to nautical directions for manœuvring in or avoiding the centre of cyclones in the North Atlantic; regulations for preventing collisions at sea; general information regarding the life-saving stations, and instructions enabling the mariner to coöperate with the stations in case of disaster; and a description and explanation of the cautionary signals displayed by the Signal Service, United States Army, on the approach of severe storms and rough weather. The entire work appears to be carefully and well planned and executed, and cannot fail to be a great boon to all officers in command of coasters in the West Atlantic.

The Observatory of the University of Cincinnati, which, previous to 1880, paid no attention to comets, the principal instrument being occupied almost entirely with double-star observations, has lately issued the seventh of its series of Publications, which is devoted entirely to observations of the comets of 1880, 1881, and 1882, made under the direction of Messrs. Ormond Stone and Herbert C. Wilson, and prepared for publication by the latter, now astronomer-in-charge of the Observatory *pro tempore*. Observations of position have been obtained of nine comets in all, two in 1880, four in 1881, and three in 1882—among the last, the great comet of that year. The physical observations of these comets consist of sketches, measures, and notes in regard to their appearance; and the appended photo-engravings are of about the same size as the original sketches. Ten plates accompany the work, which is issued in uniform style with the previous publications of this observatory.

The second or outer satellite of Mars (Deimos) was found to be visible with the great refractor of the Naval Observatory at the late opposition of the planet. It was also observed by the MM. Henry at the Paris Observatory, January 24, the satellite appearing as a star of about the fifteenth magnitude. As the planet was nearly as unfavorably located as possible, Mars being near aphelion, there is no longer any doubt of the visibility of this satellite, in some telescopes at least, at every opposition of the planet. The smaller telescopes can hardly be expected to reveal the satellites before the opposition of 1890.

A new astronomical journal has appeared in France, entitled *Bulletin Astronomique*. The first number was issued February 15, and the periodical will be published monthly. It is edited by M. F. Tisserand, assisted by MM. Bigourdan, O. Callandreau, and R. Radau, and is conducted under the auspices of the Paris Observatory.

—A correspondent writes us from New Brunswick:

"With regard to the word 'cull' discussed by the writer of the critique on Shakspere in last week's *Nation*, it may be interesting for you to know that the word is still used in Newfoundland in *sorting* or *separating* the different grades of salt codfish."

—We have just seen, in the *Bookmart* of January 20, a paragraph referring to our notice of the Cooke sale (*Nation*, Dec. 27), and asking us to "instruct large-hearted book collectors how they may divide their collections among public institutions with less expense and more mutual satisfaction." The task does not seem to us very difficult. Let the large-hearted collector who wants to do good to ten public libraries, and does not care for the renown to be derived from a large catalogue and a sale made conspicuous by inflated prices, order that his library be appraised by an expert, and that then the ten beneficiaries choose each $5,000 worth of books, all rival claims to be decided by an umpire designated by the donor. No appraiser charges 10 per cent., as auctioneers do, and there would be no expense of printing a catalogue for the part of the library chosen by the ten recipients. It seems to us that this method is much cheaper, and would be very much more satisfactory than the method adopted by Mr. Cooke. The *Bookmart* asks: "Is there any truer method of setting [settling?] values and the real rates [ratios?] between demand and supply than the auctioneer's hammer?" Perhaps not in an ordinary auction; but the prices obtained under such peculiar circumstances as prevailed in the Cooke sale are really no indication at all of the ratio between demand and supply. No book-buyer will ever accept the Cooke prices as a standard.

—Since our last issue, Harper & Bros. have printed by itself Charles Reade's story 'The Picture,' lately running in the *Magazine*. Some years ago Mr. Reade defended his "method" of plagiarism on the ground that he had done merely what other men of genius had done before him—"Je prends mon bien où je le trouve"—and that genius has the right of eminent domain over the material produced by mediocre writers, since literary metal is but dross until it receives the mint-stamp of authors like Mr. Reade. Though morally indefensible, it must be admitted that this procedure sometimes results in an advantage to literature. This may be seen by comparing 'The Picture,' which, as a correspondent has pointed out, is only a free translation of Mme. Reybaud's 'Mlle. de Malepeire,' with the original—a pretty enough little tale, but with no claim to the energy, vigor, and crispness of style which distinguish Reade's version. The reader, however, would be greatly in error should he jump to the conclusion that the variations, at least, are original with Mr. Reade, for herein is illustrated another phase of the latter's method. In the original, for instance, and in the two literal translations mentioned by our correspondents, viz.: 'Where Shall He Find Her?' (New York, 1867) and 'The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-Room' (Boston, 1869), as well as in still another, 'The Old M'sieur's Secret' (New York: Carleton, 1882), the trial and sentence of the heroine are disposed of in a single short paragraph. In 'The Picture' is interpolated a vigorous and effective speech made to the jury by the heroine. Now, in August, 1867, was published in the *St. James Magazine* a tale called 'What the Papers Revealed,' a very free adaptation of the plot and incidents of 'Mlle. de Malepeire.' Comparison of the former with 'The Picture' shows that, as Mr. Reade has improved on the original in the body of his tale, so here he has improved on the adapter:

'What the Papers Revealed.'

"God forbid! gentlemen of the jury," he said, "that I should attempt to palliate this crime; but in shrinking from the act, I cannot forget the provocation. Trampled on and insulted by the man through whom she had lost all—name and fame, home and friends; reviled and disowned for him, deceived and degraded by him, this woman expiated in years of bitterness—who can estimate their bitterness?—the crime of having loved too faithfully. But even the veriest worm will turn at length. There came a day when the one drop that filled it to overflowing was poured into this woman's cup. Encouraged by the applauding jeers of every member of his family, the brutal coward struck her as she stood alone among them, in her fatal defenceless superiority. Was it the blood of a thousand ancestors that rushed with tumultuous rebellion to her brain? Was it the last agonized throe of a yet unbroken spirit? I dare not conjecture. I only know that, goaded to madness, in a frenzy of wild unconsciousness, the unhappy woman rushed to avenge her wrongs—to cancel her misery in the crime for which she now stands charged before you."

'The Picture.'

"Citizens, the public accuser has told you I killed my husband, and that, alas! is too true; but he has told you I killed him maliciously, and there he is quite mistaken. My husband was my all. I gave up father, friends, rank, wealth, everything for him, and I loved him dearly. He gave me a bitter provocation, and I reproached him cruelly. Then he struck me barbarously. . . . My passion was great, I admit, but my fear was greater; and in fear I struck, not malice. . . ."

—A curious dispute has arisen out of the production of Mr. Brander Matthews's comedy of "Margery's Lovers" at the Court Theatre in London. Mr. Henry Pottinger Stephens, the editor of a new and not particularly attractive theatrical newspaper called the *Topical Times*, claims that the piece is a gross plagiarism of a play called "Hearts," written a few years ago by himself and Mr. Percy Mitford, but which has never been produced, and of which only one copy—the author's—is known to exist. How, then, could it be plagiarized? The play was read, it seems, in America by Mr. Daly and Mr. Wallack, and in England by Mr. Wilson Barrett, but by no one else. It was, however, at the Court Theatre for at least two months, and was even cast there, according to Mr. Stephens. How this could possibly account for the plagiarism of it by Mr. Brander Matthews is not at all clear, since Mr. John Clayton, the manager of the Court Theatre, asserts that Mr. Matthews was a perfect stranger to him when he submitted "Margery's Lovers," and that he was informed by Mr. Matthews that "it had bee

written for a long time, and shown to Mr. Wallack." Thus Mr. Wallack seems to be the only person who can throw light on this mysterious matter. "The question is not," wrote Mr. Stephens to Mr. Clayton, "whether your play be a good one or ours a bad one, or *vice versa*—our play cannot now be produced. The fact remains that a literary theft has been committed, and I mean, if possible, to sift the matter thoroughly." This anticipates the reply that since "Margery's Lovers" has not proved a success it is not worth while to quarrel about it. But the correspondence on the subject has already degenerated into an unpleasant personal quarrel, begun by Mr. Stephens's unmannerly remark that he presumed Mr. Clayton was "aware that in cases of theft the receiver is equally liable with the thief." To which Mr. Clayton indignantly retorts that he is "neither receiver nor thief," and curtly denies several of Mr. Stephens's statements. Mr. John Hollingshead accepted the position of arbitrator, but has been compelled to decline it through illness, and another has not yet been agreed upon. Thus far the whole thing looks like an attempted sensational advertisement for the *Topical Times*, with a suspicion of personal ill-will at the bottom of it; and Mr. Matthews, who has emphatically denied the charge in a cable message to the *Daily News*, is to be congratulated upon his distance from the scene.

— In the *Popular Science Monthly*, for April, Mr. Herbert Spencer lifts the veil from the future and protests against "The Coming Slavery," *i. e.*, the enslavement of the individual to the socialist or communist machine. The object of socialism is to substitute for the theory of the state as existing for the happiness and welfare of its members, the idea that the individual exists for the benefit of the community; and as a socialistic order, like any other, must be based on force, each member, as an individual, will, when socialism is once established, be a slave to the community as a whole:

"Such a relation has habitually existed in militant communities, even under *quasi*-popular forms of government. In ancient Greece the accepted principle was that the citizen belonged neither to himself nor to his family, but belonged to his city—the city being with the Greek equivalent to the community. And this doctrine, proper to a state of constant warfare, is a doctrine which socialism unawares reintroduces into a state intended to be purely industrial. The services of each will belong to the aggregate of all, and for these services such returns will be given as the authorities think proper. So that, even if the administration is of the beneficent kind intended to be secured, slavery, however mild, must be the outcome of the arrangement."

But this is only the first step. There are more behind:

"The love of power, the selfishness, the injustice, the untruthfulness, which often in comparatively short times bring private organizations to disaster, will inevitably, where their effects accumulate from generation to generation, work evils far greater and less remediable; since, vast and complex and possessed of all the resources, the administrative organization once developed and consolidated must become irresistible. And, if there needs proof that the periodic exercise of electoral power would fail to prevent this, it suffices to instance the French Government, which, purely popular in origin, and subject from time to time to popular judgment, nevertheless tramples on the freedom of citizens to an extent which the English delegates to the late Trades-Union Congress say 'is a disgrace to, and an anomaly in, a republican nation.' The final result would be a revival of despotism. A disciplined army of civil officials, like an army of military officials, gives supreme power to its head—a power which has often led to usurpation, as in mediæval Europe and still more in Japan—nay, has thus so led among our neighbors within our own times."

Finally, when we have reached this point, the sociological pendulum begins to swing back:

"It would need but a war with an adjacent society, or some internal discontent demanding forcible suppression, to at once transform a socialistic administration into a grinding tyranny like that of ancient Peru; under which the mass of the people, controlled by grades of officials, and leading lives that were inspected out-of-doors and in-doors, labored for the support of the organization which regulated them, and were left with but a bare subsistence for themselves. And then would be completely revived, under a different form, that régime of status—that system of compulsory coöperation—the decaying tradition of which is represented by the old Toryism, and toward which the new Toryism is carrying us back."

—This is a new form of the very old jeremiad that all power tends to concentration; concentration in one hand leads to tyranny, tyranny to rebellion for the sake of liberty, liberty to license, license to a new intrusion of tyranny. This is in a certain sense a law of human nature; but it does not enable us to know accurately what is likely to be the immediate fate of any nation or people. Mr. Herbert Spencer's jeremiad, however, is applied distinctly to England, and it is a gloomy prospect that he declares to be before her. It is a jeremiad which ought to be still better adapted to the American market, because here there are no "Tories" to stem the tide. The race on both sides of the Atlantic is in a bad way; but why remind us of it? What can we do? The English might avert their fate for a time by getting into foreign wars; but we cannot afford anything of that sort, for we have no navy and hardly any army. With Agnostics and the Nineteenth Century Club doing their best to take away our hopes of immortal life, and Mr. Spencer demonstrating that there is no hope on this side of the grave, and that we must all look forward to being enslaved by Justus Schwab and the trade unions, the old maxim never to despair of the Republic seems an insult to our intellect. How can we do anything but despair, especially when we find, on turning to a good old conservative magazine like the *North American*, one of the writers discussing in the current number the proper precautions to be taken for the preservation of our civilization from a return of the Glacial period? The air seems to be full of danger on every side.

—The *Century* has an illustrated article on the White House, by Mr. E. V. Smalley, which contains some account of the new decorations of the interior, and calls attention to the absurdity and inconvenience of having the President's residence serve the purpose of a public office as well. There certainly seems no reason why one of the few handsome residences bequeathed to us by the last century should be made uncomfortable and at times almost uninhabitable for the head of the Government whom we put in it. There is no necessary inconsistency between a republican form of government and the protection of the private life of its head from the impertinent intrusion of strangers who want to button-hole him. If the right to button-hole the President is an inalienable right, then certainly a place for its exercise should be provided by Congress, at the public expense. The right of access to the Executive as now enjoyed is destructive of the cleanliness of the house which the country gives him; the hosts of politicians muddying and otherwise soiling the carpets and furniture, so as to give the White House from time to time a shabby and demoralized appearance, and to entail many otherwise needless appropriations from Congress. The old "levee" system is gradually disappearing, the public receptions being now few and far between, and the audience abuse will unquestionably follow it. Progress of late years has been slower than it otherwise would have been, because the manners and customs of the White House have been so generally in the hands of people who cared very little about privacy. Indeed, since Buchanan's time, the etiquette of the place has been furnished, if at all, like the dinners, by contract. The audience abuse really involves higher considerations than those of etiquette, viz., decency and comfort. Good Emperors and Sultans grant audiences to their people, but this is supposed to be because the government is one of men, not laws, and because Emperors and Sultans hold courts of justice of the last resort, and cannot shut out the public without doing injustice. But for justice we go to the courts, and for laws we go to Congress, and the only thing left to go to the President for is offices. If the truth were known, the persons who insist upon the right of every American to have an interview with the Executive are almost altogether office-seekers, and Congressmen who are their friends and backers; and as long as the right is insisted upon, the least the Congressmen who make so much use of it can do is to provide a proper place for its exercise. The *Century* also contains an interesting account by George Alfred Townsend of the adventures of Wilkes Booth in getting across the Potomac after the assassination of Lincoln. Everything in it tends to confirm the impression produced at the time by Booth's behavior—that a passionate love of notoriety was the chief motive of his act. The first question he asked when he got to a temporary place of safety was as to the "view" the newspapers took of him.

—Examination shows the 'Statesman's Year Book' for 1884 (Macmillan) to be more than usually replete with useful information. Separate notices are for the first time given to Madagascar, the Orange Free State, the Transvaal, Zanzibar, Burma, and Hawaii, while the space devoted to each of a number of other countries has been considerably increased. Ballot boxes and electoral suffrages play nowadays a large part in controlling the course of events, and a book for statesmen ought to give all the facts attainable as to the theoretical and practical workings of the electoral systems of the various civilized Powers. The statistics furnished by the present 'Year Book' as to the number of people who may vote if they want to, and who actually did vote at the last general election, are not the least valuable and interesting of its features. We lack space to comment upon the facts which these figures reveal. In no other country in the world do so many people go to the polls as in the United States at a Presidential election; and, what is practically more important, nowhere, with perhaps the single exception of Belgium, with its very limited suffrage, do so small a proportion of those who may vote neglect to do so. By the census of 1880, there were in the United States 12,571,437 males over twenty-one. Making a proper allowance for unnaturalized foreigners and other disqualified persons, the number of men who had a right to vote was probably rather under than over 12,000,000; and of these, 9,216,856, or something more than 76 per cent, actually cast their ballots. The ratio of votes cast to qualified voters would be even greater if the former slave States were not taken into account. It is impossible in a work of this sort to exclude errors altogether, but it is a satisfaction to note that the absurd blunders and misstatements as to this country which formerly disfigured the 'Year Book' no longer appear. It is not hard to understand how the editor falls into the mistake of giving, on page 632, for the number of States in the Union at the date of each decennial count, the number of the present States of which the population was then separately returned in the Census reports. A more serious error is made on

page 633, when it is stated that there were in the United States in 1880, 13,011,646 *natives* of foreign-born parentage. There were so many *residents* of foreign parentage, but among them were included all but 33,252 of the 6,679,943 foreign-born inhabitants. The table of receipts and expenditures on page 624 is stated to exclude sums received and paid out on account of premiums on purchases and sales of certificates of the public debt. A comparison of the table with the detailed reports of the Secretary of the Treasury will show that premiums are comprised both in the receipts and expenditures as they are given in the 'Year Book.' On page 637, the table purporting to give the value of the exports of merchandise from the United States in each of the last ten years, contains for 1882, 1881, 1880, 1877 and 1876 figures representing the value of the exports of domestic merchandise only, while for 1883, 1879, 1878, and 1874 the values given include the total exports of merchandise both domestic and foreign. The value of the exports of merchandise in 1875 is said to have been $545,069,027; the report of the Bureau of Statistics puts it at $513,442,711. The table of exports of specie, on page 638, gives the value of the total exports for each year except for 1877, when it gives that of the domestic specie only.

—Some curious results are occasioned by the addition of one figure too many, or the omission of a figure that ought to be in. Thus the estimated expenditure for the Austro Hungarian Empire and for Austria proper in 1883 (p. 14), the French exports of home products in 1882 (p. 87), and the number of emigrants from Mecklenburg-Schwerin in 1882 (p. 155) are each multiplied by ten. It is probable that in the perpetration of a couple of similar blunders will be found the explanation of the manifest inconsistencies in the statement on page 551 of the statistics of Canadian shipping. If the total tonnage of the Dominion in 1881 was only 1,260,777 tons, it could not well have "comprised 973 steamers, measuring 1,990,902 tons." Nor does it seem probable that in 1882, 760,113 tons would have been built at the small cost of £541,017. On the other hand, the omission of the figure 1 on page 281 makes it appear that the capital invested in English railroads in 1882 was only one-tenth as large as it actually was; the leaving out of a 1 on page 256 cuts down the percentage of increase in the population of Scotland between 1871 and 1881 from 11.18 per cent. to 1.18 per cent.; and if a 9 were printed before the 42,215 on page 426, the number of electors in Spain would not appear to be but 5 per cent. of those that really existed. The area of Keewatin as originally laid out was nearly a hundred times 450 square miles, and for that number, as given on page 547, we should probably read 450,000. The size of the French battalions in Tunis must be unusually large if a battalion of infantry, a squadron of cavalry, and a part of a battalion of artillery will together number 15,000 men (p. 715). If the new ironclads which have been built in Germany for the Chinese Government have armor "14½ metres thick" (p. 730), it is not surprising that they were "detained" in Germany.

— The late Dr. Lasker was an occasional contributor to the columns of the *Rundschau*, and a personal friend of the editor, Mr. Rodenberg, who devotes to him an article in the March number, containing a series of private letters, with reminiscences of an intercourse lasting more than twenty years. Although politics was Lasker's specialty, he always managed to find time to keep up with the literary and artistic movement of the time, both in 1873, when his popularity was so great that he was commonly mentioned in one breath with Bismarck and Moltke, and a few years later, when the tide turned against the party which he led. Literary projects occupied much of his time, and the direction which his thoughts took may be inferred from the remark that he was very fond of Dickens's works, in which he especially admired the humanitarian tendencies and the reforms effected through them. Professor Edward Zeller contributes an article on the "Significance of language and its teaching for spiritual life," which in true German fashion begins with Noah's Ark, Pythagoras, and Cleanthes. Zeller insists that language is not innate, not a necessary result of the structure of our vocal organs, but the work of man, the accumulated result of the labors of countless generations. From music, language is distinguished by being the outcome of the need of communicating with others, while music, like laughing, crying, jumping, and dancing, is simply the spontaneous expression of emotions, without any original intention of conveying them to others; a vocalist needs no listener but himself. The assertion that conscious thinking can only be done with the aid of words does not tally with the dictum of a great German philosopher that "all original thinking is done in images." The advantages and disadvantages of having two mother tongues, as it were, are also considered. Under the first head, Zeller mentions a special ease in adapting one's self to new circumstances; under the second, an intolerable commingling of languages, as in America, or a habit, prevalent in Switzerland, Alsace, and Belgium, of using the mother tongue only as dialect, and the foreign as the language of the educated, whereby the masses become estranged from the literature of their country without assimilating all the peculiarities of the foreign language. Herman Grimm writes on Cornelius, apropos of the hundredth anniversary of his birth, and Professor Nöldeke, of Strassburg, on "Theodorus, King of Abyssinia." Karl Hillebrand's article on the old and the new novel, in the current *Contemporary*, appears here in a German version. The editor explains that the absence of Hillebrand from the pages of the *Rundschau* for almost two years and a half has been due to a serious illness.

—By the death of Ezra Abbot, which occurred March 21, at Cambridge, Mass., the science of New Testament criticism has lost one of the foremost scholars of this generation. There is hardly a branch of this department which his studies have not illustrated, and the accuracy and impartiality of his work have given him an authority that it has been the lot of few men to enjoy. He has left a noble example to all students in his habit of patient research, his microscopic knowledge, his candor in weighing arguments, and his power of sober judgment. He was born in 1819 in Jackson, Maine, and, after passing through Phillips Exeter Academy, was graduated in 1840 at Bowdoin College. After teaching several years in Maine, he went to Cambridge in 1847, taught in the Cambridge High School in 1852, was appointed Assistant Librarian in the Harvard College Library in 1856, and Bussey Professor of New Testament Criticism and Interpretation in the Harvard Divinity School in 1872, which last position he held till his death. In the library he had charge of the cataloguing department, with good opportunity for bibliographical work, of which he was all his life very fond. In his hands bibliography was no dull list of title-pages, but a delightful collection of wonderful facts and histories, and he was the resort of his friends and of many others for information concerning books of all kinds. His first publication was a catalogue of the Cambridge High School Library, and in 1869 appeared his 'Literature of the Doctrine of a Future Life.' His most valuable bibliographical work is contained in the American edition of 'Smith's Dictionary of the Bible,' the utility of which to critical students, it may be said, has been doubled by his references to the later, especially German, authorities. His proper field, however, was New Testament exegesis and criticism, and particularly the latter in its two branches, textual and historical criticism. A fair example of the minuteness and breadth of his exegetical study is to be found in his article on Rom. ix. 5, printed in the Journal of the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis—a paper on which he spent as much time and labor, from his determination to go to the bottom of every point, as would have sufficed some men to write a book. On New Testament textual criticisms he has published less than on any other subject, and yet it is to this, perhaps, that he devoted the largest part of his time. This is greatly to be regretted, for he had hardly an equal in acquaintance with the manuscripts, versions, and patristic quotations on which the New Testament text depends. Much of his work in this department was in the form of contributions to other men's books: to Dr. F. H. A. Scrivener, for example, he sent a long list of errors occurring in his 'Plain Introduction to the Criticism of the New Testament.' He had opportunity, also, as member of the American Committee of Revision of the New Testament, to make a worthy use of his text-critical learning; but, beyond such results as may exist in the revised New Testament text, and a few scattered newspaper articles, he has left no record of his researches. Among other things he was working on a critical review of Westcott and Hort's second volume, which gives their principles of New Testament textual criticism, and this, if he had finished it, would have been an important contribution to the subject; but he has left nothing in shape for publication. For several years before his death he was occupied with work on the Prolegomena to Tischendorf's eighth edition of the Greek New Testament, the preparation of which is in the hands of an American scholar, Dr. Caspar René Gregory, of Leipzig. The first volume of the Prolegomena, which is now completed, contains Dr. Abbot's textual and grammatical contributions, prepared with his accustomed minute accuracy and careful discrimination, the value of which scholars will soon be able to test. His only historical-critical work is 'The Authorship of the Fourth Gospel' (1880), an examination of the external evidence in the case, the scholarly precision and close reasoning of which called forth high commendation from prominent European writers on this Gospel, one of whom declared that the facts had never before been so well stated. Dr. Abbot intended following this up by an examination of the internal evidences, for which he had collected a large mass of material; but this design, like many others of his, was never executed. It may be mentioned that he ascribed the Gospel to the Apostle John. He was for many years Recording Secretary of the American Oriental Society. This detail of his principal printed works only poorly describes his unceasing scholarly activity, and only his pupils and friends know the inspiration given by the high character of his scholarship, and by the purity, faithfulness, and self-sacrificing devotion of his daily life.

—There is no chapter in Roman history more interesting or more instructive than that which describes the successive steps and the well-considered line of policy by which the city built up her empire within the peninsula of Italy. Many of these steps are obscure, and at best the clas-

sification of the Italian communities—the different groups of *municipia*, *coloniæ*, and *civitates fœderatæ*—is not easy to understand in detail; while as the Social War put a sudden end to the process of growth, our information is late and fragmentary. We find this subject treated with great fulness and perspicuity by Julius Beloch, in 'Der italische Bund unter Roms Hegemonie' (Leipzig, 1880). By "Italian Confederacy" he would not be understood to imply a regularly organized confederation: there was none, only "an aggregate of more than a hundred different alliances, which have nothing to do with one another further than that in every case Rome is one of the contracting parties" (p. 194). The book therefore contains an analysis and history of the various classes of towns and confederacies of Italy down to the Social War. The author begins with an attempt, based upon Pliny, to draw up a schedule of the several *Gemeinden* (*civitates*) of Italy; these are 443 in number, arranged according to the eleven Regions. Then follows a chapter upon the local tribes, their history, and the distribution among them of the Italian communities. Chapters upon the Ager Romanus and the population of Italy are followed by three very instructive chapters, in which the whole subject of colonies, *municipia*, and lesser communities is exhaustively treated; and three others upon the Italian Allies, the Latin Confederacy, and the legal relations of the allies to Rome—*das italische Bundesrecht*. For readers of Mommsen who would like to follow his general sketch more into details, this book will be very acceptable. The author agrees with Mommsen in general, differing from him, however, in a few points, particularly as to the *Jus duodecim coloniarum*, which he considers to be that of the twelve colonies that refused to furnish their contingents in the war against Hannibal; and as to the famous treaty with Carthage, which he holds—as Mommsen did in his early editions—to belong to the first year of the republic. Another point of interest is that Mr. Beloch maintains, and appears to prove, that the Latin Confederacy, at the time of the treaty with Spurius Cassius, B. C. 493, contained only ten or eleven independent members. There is a good geographical index, and two very instructive maps—one of Italy before the Social War, the other of the Ager Romanus at the beginning of the Second Punic War. Both are distinctly colored.

LEONARDO DA VINCI.—I.

The Literary Works of Leonardo da Vinci. Compiled and Edited from the Original Manuscripts by Jean Paul Richter, Ph.Dr., &c. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

THE fascination which the genius of Da Vinci has exerted from his own times down is both manifested and justified by these elaborate and admirable volumes. They contain selections from his note-books, with copious and excellent heliograph reproductions (by Dujardin) of the MS. and the illustrations which are scattered through the notes, together with some of the more elaborate chalk drawings, and pages of sketches embodying his ideas, studies, and inventions. In the archæology of art there has been probably no more important undertaking than this of Dr. Richter, whether we consider Leonardo's relations to art and his claim to the title of *sommo artista*, or his curiously complex genius—painter, sculptor, architect, engineer, anatomist, physiologist, moralist. Subtle in his art, ingenious in mechanics, original and persistent in his pursuit of science, and profound and sincere in his morality, he has left his sign manual in almost all branches of human activity. He competed with Michael Angelo in painting; his Sforza monument was a challenge to the sculptor of the Moses and David; he studied the mystery of gravitation before Newton, and of the circulation of the blood before Harvey. His treatise on painting has been a mine of essays and instruction-books since his death, and his incomplete architectural designs have infiltrated through the architecture of the subsequent ages.

And yet of all his works only a few pictures remain in a condition to convince us that his art was a success, and point to the possibility of his accomplishment of all he planned in other directions. His greater works have all remained in the limbo of projects or perished. The "Last Supper," by which he is best known, is a wreck only preserved to us through copies; his great Sforza monument was never finished; and his "Battle of Anghiari" has so utterly perished that we can only conjecture what it was. His plans for mausoleum, fortress, and cities; his designs for cathedrals and canals; his inventions for war, for commerce, for agriculture, are only in the state of projects. Even his book on the art of painting remains in the form of detached notes, suggestions, hints of laws, and indications of composition, whose greatest interest is, for the most part, as evidence of his colossal intellect, since it has little practical use for those for whom he intended it—the students of art.

"Vasari says, and rightly," we are told in Dr. Richter's preface, "in his life of Leonardo, 'that he labored much more by his word than in fact or by deed'; and the biographer evidently had in mind the numerous works in manuscript which have been preserved to this day." But the fact which our collator seems to have found inexplicable—that these works have remained "so long unpublished, and indeed forgotten"—is, we conjecture, due rather to their fragmentary state and insufficiency for any practical utility, than to the difficulties of deciphering them, great as these now are, though probably not so great when they were most called in question. This very difficulty of deciphering is due in part to the fragmentary and disconnected character of the MSS. The editor's account of them will make this clear:

"Leonardo's literary labors in various departments both of art and of science were those essentially of an inquirer; hence the analytical method is that which he employs in arguing out his investigations and dissertations. The vast structure of his scientific theories is consequently built up of numerous separate researches, and it is much to be lamented that he should never have collated and arranged them. His love for detailed research—as it seems to me—was the reason that in almost all his manuscripts the different paragraphs appear to us to be in utter confusion; on one and the same page observations on the most dissimilar subjects follow each other without any connection. A page, for instance, will begin with some principles of astronomy or the motion of the earth; then come the laws of sound, and finally some precepts as to color. Another page will begin with his investigations on the structure of the intestines, and end with philosophical remarks as to the relations of poetry to painting, and so forth. Leonardo himself lamented this confusion, and for that reason I do not think that the publication of the texts in the order in which they occur in the originals would at all fulfil his intentions. No reader could find his way through such a labyrinth; Leonardo himself could not have done it.

"Added to this, more than half of the five thousand manuscript pages which now remain to us *are written on loose leaves, and at present arranged in a manner which has no justification beyond the fancy of the collector who first brought them together to make volumes of more or less extent.* Nay, even in the volumes, the pages of which were numbered by Leonardo himself, *their order, so far as the connection of the texts was concerned, was obviously a matter of indifference to him.*"

They are, in fact, not books at all, but, as one may, by running over the pages of Dr. Richter's volumes, convince himself at once, suggestions of material for books; jottings down of ideas which would come in somewhere in one, if it were ever written; a commonplace book in which were recorded all the fragmentary ideas that floated through Da Vinci's brain; memoranda which he noted down for his own future use and study, and problems which he put to himself and of which he has suggested no solution. He writes to himself: "Have your books on anatomy bound."

The 'Book of Painting' will therefore be consulted in vain by young painters for any definite course of instruction in painting. They will find many apothegms and sentences which illuminate with the intelligence of a singular genius the path to follow, but the work was never reduced to system by the author, and is only reproduced by Dr. Richter *tale quale*. Thus he says: "Those who are in love with practice without knowledge are like the sailor who gets into a ship without rudder or compass, and who can never be certain whither he is going. Practice must always be founded on sound theory, of which perspective is the guide and gate; and without this, nothing is well done in regard to painting." And again: "The painter who draws by practice and judgment of his vision, without reasoning, is like a mirror, which by itself imitates all things placed in front of it, without knowledge of them." But the practical value of these isolated hints, even to a student of painting, is not great, and this not merely from their want of completion and connection, but from the inherent character of Da Vinci's mind, which was scientific and not artistic. This seems hazardous to say of a man who achieved so much in art as Leonardo, but the fact remains. He was a scientific man *par excellence*, and the subtlety of his speculations and analysis excludes any possibility of a co-existent and commensurate synthesis. He was a geometrician, a naturalist, forced by his surroundings and a certain vein of virtuosity in his character to give great attention to art; but he never was undivided in this devotion, as he must have been to have achieved his full measure of excellence. He always insists on judging and working by rule; and his work, excellent as it is, is invariably more distinguished by mechanical tendencies and achievement than by emotional or imaginative—by a cold, reasoned construction, rather than by any spontaneous and sympathetic quality. What severe and correct drawing and largely realistic study of his material could do, he did; but we are inclined to think that for his fame beyond this he is debtor rather to the general reputation of his astonishing all-roundness, and the attainment of high excellence in many branches of work, than to actual achievement in one. The intellectual greatness of the man imposes on us silence as to any shortcomings in his art. He overcame his time by his commanding completeness, and by this victory we are still controlled; but we are far enough now from his epoch and his ideals to admit, with Vasari, that he labored more by his word than his works. This is an excellent thing for a teacher, but a dubious tribute to a painter.

In his scientific relation, again, he must be judged by the science of his day, and notable are the points in which he was in advance of all his contemporaries, though he is in many others quite as dark as they. His controverting of the theory of vision which makes the eye send out a seeing virtue (*mandino fuora la virtù visiva*), will serve as an example:

"It is impossible that the eye should project from itself, by visual rays, the visual virtue, since in opening it that front portion which should be the first in going out, and would have

to go to the object, could not do it without time. Being so, it could not go to the sun in a month's time. . . . This being the case, if the eye consisted of a million worlds it would not prevent its being consumed in the projection of its virtue."

The notes on the colors of the rainbow are another instance of this close reasoning, which, though not reaching the truth, is discriminating as to the then entertained errors. In the botany of his 'Book of Painting' he shows himself a true naturalist, and his observations on the growth of plants, ramification, the facts of sunlight and shade, show the closest study of arboreal structure and details. As an observer of external nature he broke new ground. "The deeper colors of shadows of mountains at great distances take a more beautiful and more uniform color than do their luminous portions, and from hence it arises that when the rock of a mountain is reddish its lighted portions are purplish, and the more it is lighted the more it appears of its proper color"—is an observation which any landscape painter of to-day may have made, but which, in the purely conventional state of landscape painting in Leonardo's day, was a revelation of naturalism. "Painters deceive themselves oftentimes by representing water in which they make visible (reflected) that which the man sees. But the water sees the object on one side and the man on the other"—contains a fact which many landscape painters ignore to-day.

In regard to Da Vinci's anatomical studies, it is to be said that for him, with his strong scientific tendencies, painting was probably more a handmaid to his science than the converse. It was impossible for him to rest at the surface of things, and *that* the truest artistic vision will always do, because to think of what is beyond the visible disturbs the calm perception of what is seen. There is no reason to suppose that the Greek sculptors knew anything of internal anatomy, but, on the contrary, the best ground for concluding that they had no conception of it; and yet they saw with a delicate discrimination of external muscular action which no man of the anatomical schools has ever shown. Reasoning from the relation of the analytic and synthetic faculties, this would seem to be the inevitable conclusion; and the history of modern art does not show that a true artist was ever helped by the study of internal anatomy, but that many have been made pedantic and artificial by it. Even Michael Angelo did not escape this effect.

The whole collection of sayings, maxims, axioms, and directions in the 'Book of Painting' is of the mechanical and prescriptive kind, of no present real value to painters of originality or who have access to good teaching; but they are interesting as showing the bent of this master mind, whose level of multiform greatness rises higher than any other that we know of so well. The voluminous notes and memoranda of composition and groups in the "Last Supper" and the "Battle of Anghiari" constitute, from the archæological point of view, the most valuable part of the book, and it is from this point that Leonardo is the most interesting object of study which the biography of art has preserved for us. Richter's studies and elucidation of the confused memoranda for these two pictures are among the best examples we possess of successful research in this direction. Of the difficulties encountered in the work only the reader of the book can form an adequate opinion. There is a most interesting variation from the design carried out in the fresco of the "Last Supper" contained in the sketch in red chalk reproduced here, in which St. John, who sits at Christ's left hand, throws himself forward on the table, his face buried in his hands as if in an agony of emotion as Christ is speaking, evidently foretelling his betrayal and death. The important chalk drawings relating to the picture are reproduced with an excellence which we have already commended.

THE OLD TESTAMENT IN THE NEW.

Quotations in the New Testament. By Crawford Howell Toy, Professor in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

FEW readers of the New Testament ever try to compare its acknowledged quotations from the Old, and still less the sentences and phrases which it tacitly borrows, with the corresponding words of the prophets, psalmists, or other sacred Hebrew writers. Few even of those whose attention is from time to time called, by the notes of an expositor, to discrepancies in words and sentences of the Old and New Testaments which ought to be identical, have an idea how frequent such discrepancies are, and how essential are some of them. The divergence lies often in mere particles or turns, sometimes in the phraseology, and sometimes in the different sense and meaning attached to the phrases. Let us examine a few instances, as they almost consecutively present themselves:

In Acts iii. 22, 23, we read: "Moses truly said unto the father, A prophet shall the Lord your God raise up unto you . . . And . . . every soul which will not hear that prophet shall be destroyed from among the people." The corresponding words in Deuteronomy (xviii. 15, 19), are: "The Lord thy God will raise up unto thee a prophet . . . And . . . whosoever will not hearken . . . I will require it of him." The Septuagint version accords with the Hebrew text. A part of the discrepancy is explainable by some copyist having changed the Hebrew word *mē'immō*, of him, into *mē'ammō*, from his people. According to Acts iii. 25, God said "unto Abraham, And in thy seed shall all the kindreds of the earth be blessed." "The kindreds" stands for "the nations" of Gen. xxii., 18—Hebrew text and Septuagint—but corresponds to Gen. xii. 3, which has, however, "in thee," instead of "in thy seed." Acts vii. 43, quotes Amos (v. 26, 27): "Ye took up the tabernacle of Moloch, and the star of your god Remphan, figures which ye made to worship them: and I will carry you away beyond Babylon." This agrees in part with the words of the prophet as rendered in the Septuagint, which couples with the tabernacle of Moloch the star of the "god Raiphan"; but the Hebrew text of Amos, as literally translated in the Authorized Version, says: "Ye have borne the tabernacle of your Moloch and Chiun your images, the star of your god, which ye made to yourselves. Therefore will I cause you to go into captivity beyond Damascus." And the Septuagint, too, has "Damascus," instead of the New Testament's "Babylon," which is strangely anachronistic. The New Testament's "Remphan" is generally explained as being a corruption of the Septuagint's "Raiphan," which must have been originally *Kaiphan*, representing the Hebrew *Chiun*, properly *Chevan*, the primitive name of the planet Saturn. Acts viii. 33, quotes from Isaiah (liii. 8) this "place of the Scripture": "In his humiliation his judgment was taken away," literally as the Septuagint has it; but the Hebrew text of the prophet is different, and the Authorized Version renders it, "He was taken from prison and from judgment." Acts xv. 15–17, quoting Amos (ix. 11, 12), in the words of the Septuagint, says: "It is written, After this I will . . . build again the tabernacle of David, . . . that the residue of men might seek after the Lord"; but in the Hebrew original it is written: "I will raise up the tabernacle of David, . . . that they may possess the remnant of Edom." Evidently the Hebrew copy of Amos from which the Septuagint was translated had *yidr'shū*, may seek, instead of *yīr'shū*, may possess; an abbreviation of the name of "the Lord," instead of the untranslatable particle *eth* of the Masoretic text; and *ādām*, man, instead of *ĕdōm*, Idumæa. That the Septuagint's text was wrong is obvious to every critical examiner.

Striking examples of new meanings attached to Old Testament phrases occur at the very opening of the New. Isaiah having gone to meet Ahaz, King of Judah, to allay his fears in regard to the alliance formed against him by Rezin, King of Syria, and Pekah, King of Israel, gave him a sign of his own divine mission in this prediction: "Behold, a virgin [according to the Septuagint, which is followed by the Authorized Version; "the young woman," *hā'almāh*, in the Hebrew text] shall conceive and bear a son, and shall call his name Immanuel. Butter and honey shall he eat, that he may know to refuse the evil, and choose the good. For before the child shall know to refuse the evil, the land thou abhorrest shall be forsaken of both her kings" (Is. vii. 14-16). Unmindful of the connection between the infancy of the child of the sign and the abhorred invasion of the two kings, the evangelist Matthew (i. 20-23) sees in the child of the *'almāh* indicated to Ahaz the son of Mary, who was conceived of the Holy Ghost and called Jesus—a name denoting salvation, and thus corresponding to Immanuel, or God-with-us—"that it might be fulfilled which was spoken of the Lord by the prophet, Behold, the virgin shall be with child, and bring forth a son, and they shall call his name Immanuel." The same evangelist (ii. 15), quoting part of a sentence in Hosea (xi. 1), which speaks of Israel in Egypt, and of the divine deliverance accorded the young nation, in these tender words, "When Israel was a child, then I loved him, and called my son out of Egypt," presents the quotation as a prophecy referring to Jesus, who as a child was taken by his parents to Egypt, "that it might be fulfilled which was spoken of the Lord by the prophet, saying, Out of Egypt have I called my son."

These few examples may, perhaps, suffice to show what grave perplexities must beset every student of the Bible who endeavors critically to compare the quotations of the Gospels, the Acts, or the Epistles with the corresponding Hebrew texts of the Old Testament. Whence those verbal deviations from the original? Whence those apparent misinterpretations and apparent perversions? Were the New Testament writers ignorant of Hebrew? Had they before them copies of the Hebrew Bible, often differing from our Masoretic text? Did they more or less frequently quote the Old Testament from an Aramaic translation—the Aramaic being the popular idiom of Palestine in their time? Did they more or less exclusively use the Septuagint version? Were their deviations based chiefly on better knowledge or on misconception? Did they frequently quote from memory? Did they ever intentionally misquote a text, or pervert its meaning in order to adapt it to their notions and beliefs? Were their citations, like those of the Talmudists, generally made only in a fantastically homiletic way? Many similar questions present themselves, and only a minute and comprehensive study can afford the answers. Nor have diligent students been wanting. Only the spirit in which the work was done was not always of the right kind. Most of the examiners started with an apologetic bias, some were hypercritical. Few, only, devoted special works to the subject. Fewer still attempted to go over the whole ground. And the requirements of

the general public, in contradistinction to those of the learned, have hitherto been totally ignored. None of the publications in this field, from Drusius's 'Parallela Sacra,' which appeared three centuries ago, to Böhl's 'Die alttestamentlichen Citate im Neuen Testament,' published in 1878, presents a general view of the texts with precise comparisons.

This Professor Toy does in the work before us, in which he proposed to himself "to discuss all the quotations in the New Testament, . . . to give the original texts with English translation, and as exact an explanation as possible of the various passages, so that the precise thought of the Old Testament may be set alongside of the use made of it in the New Testament, and the reader thus have all the material before him, and be able to draw his own conclusions." And this task he has executed with equal diligence, erudition, and good sense. Every sentence cited from the Old Testament is presented first—for the use of the general reader—in English translations of the Hebrew original, of the Septuagint version, and of the quotation as it appears in the best Greek texts of the New Testament. Then follow—for the more learned or inquisitive—the literal words of all three texts in Hebrew and Greek, and explanatory remarks, exegetical and critical, drawn from the vast range of expositorial and kindred literature. The translations are the author's own, with frequent deviations both from the Authorized Version and the Revised, but with due regard to literalness and the results of the latest research. The critical remarks are generally succinct, and always equally frank and remote from irreverence. The same can be said of the extensive Introduction, in which the author sums up the results of the comprehensive inquiry as to the "formal principles of New-Testament quotation," the "hermeneutical principles," and "the characters of the quotations in the several New-Testament books." This portion of the book is especially valuable, presenting as it does both the various questions as to sources, manner of citing, etc., and the solutions reached by the younger and freer school of critics, to which the author belongs, and whose views he lays before the public. He asks "a careful examination of the grounds on which they are based," offering all the material by which they can and must be judged. The leading conclusions we cannot refrain from placing here, with some of the argument, in a condensed form before our readers, deeming them well supported, and in part fully established, by intrinsic evidence and weight of authority.

The quotations from the Old Testament are never made from the original, but always from the Greek version, or an Aramaic, as is amply proved by the frequent deviations from the Hebrew, and by the general agreement with the Septuagint. It is not likely that the New Testament writers, except the learned Paul, knew Hebrew, which was a dead language in their time; Paul's citations are uniformly from the Greek. Where freedom of quotation does not explain deviations from the Septuagint, the citations may properly be referred to an Aramaic version as the direct source. That version, or *targum*, was probably oral—as were the renderings then generally employed in the synagogues—but well impressed upon the mind by constant use on public occasions. Written targums seem to have first made their appearance about a century after the composition of the oldest gospel, the targum of Onkelos on the Pentateuch being the earliest. The written version of the Septuagint was, in its earlier parts, four or five centuries older. When Paul began to write his Epistles, the Septuagint had long been the authorized version of the Jewish world, including Palestine, though Aramaic was there the vernacular. The text of that version which the evangelists and apostles used differed very little from the best recent texts, based on the Vatican manuscript (of the middle of the fourth century of our era). This manuscript shows no traces of corruption, such as other copies largely underwent at the hands of scribes bent on harmonizing the sacred texts, by conforming the Septuagint to the Hebrew of the Old Testament or to the Greek of the New. The Egyptian translators of the Old Testament, whose version is thus accurately preserved, had evidently before them a Hebrew text independent of our Masoretic, and, on the whole, inferior to it; nor did they always understand their Hebrew original. But they did their work conscientiously, and in a minority of cases in which their readings differ from the Masoretic do theirs deserve preference. To the Septuagint's deviations from the better Hebrew texts, as used in Palestine, and at a much later age collated and perpetuated by the Masoretes, the writers of the New Testament added new modifications, some unintentional, "as would be natural in quoting from memory," and others intentional. There are numerous instances of abridgment and condensation, of expansion and combination of passages.

"The attitude of the New-Testament writers towards the Scripture would account for some of these text changes. For them it was the one thesaurus of truth. They had almost no other books. The words of the Old Testament had become a part of their mental furniture, and they used them to a certain extent with the freedom with which they used their own ideas. They would naturally throw in words, or give turns to expressions, that would bring out the ideas they supposed to be contained in the text. This was the more natural from the peculiar ideas of interpretation which then prevailed, which allowed one to bring out of the Scripture-text any meaning that the words could possibly be made to bear, . . .

"The New-Testament writers, . . . as expounders of religion, . . . belong to the whole world and to all time; as logicians, they belong to the first century. . . . As, without being Greeks, they wrote in the Greek of the day, so (with the exception of Paul) without being rabbinical, they thought in the rabbinical forms of the day. Their Scripture exegesis is substantially that which we find in the Talmud—the same methods and principles, and, to some extent, the same results. In addition to this, they are affected in a special manner by their Messianic belief, that is, by the fact that for them (as was not the case with the Jewish expounders of the Scripture) the Messiah had already appeared, and his earthly career was known. . . .

"Knowing the events of the Christ's earlier career, they could compare them with the Old Testament and find the anticipation of them in the Prophets. . . . All those passages . . . that in any way recalled the experiences or the words of the Master would naturally be regarded as prophetic delineations of him and his work. The current system of Scripture interpretation favored such a use of the Old-Testament material. There was no attempt to fix the historical sense of the Bible with precision. The deeper the reverence for the departed Lord and for the divine word, the greater the disposition to find him everywhere. Anything else would have been unnatural for that time and for those men.

"Interpretation is as really a human and a modern science as astronomy or chemistry; and to demand of the New-Testament writers that they shall practise the historical methods of our day is to wish to tear them from their surroundings, and strip them of their human naturalness. . . .

"We must judge the New-Testament writers by the strictest rules of grammatical and historical exposition. Nor can we pursue any other method with the Scriptural citations of . . . Jesus himself. . . . We may safely appeal to him and his teaching for support when we say that true reverence for his person and teaching is not incompatible with the most thorough and independent investigation of his words. . . ."

In a deeply reverential tone and with perfect critical independence Professor Toy has done his work. He has followed good guides closely, but with discretion and discrimination. Aiming at exhaustiveness, and avoiding bulkiness, he has discarded in his notes all unavoidable references to authorities, and practised a close condensation, which here and there slightly borders on obscurity. The revision of the Hebrew verses quoted is remarkably accurate, the only slip which we have noticed being the omission of the particle *eth* after the words *lō th'nassū*, on page 21. Owing, however, to worn-out type, some of the finer vowel-points, or parts of them, are frequently wanting or almost imperceptible—as, to point out some of the worst instances, in the quotations from Isaiah, on page 53, and from Habakkuk, on page 119. In the "list of works," forming a part of the Introduction, the Latin titles of Gramm's and Bauer's Dissertations require correction. In regard to Matthew's quotation from Zech. ix. (see pp. 50, 51), it is almost obvious that the source of the error was not a false reading *hārī'ū*, corresponding to the Septuagint's κήρυσσε, but *hōdī'ū*, answering to the New Testament's εἰπατε.

A Memorial of John Farmer. By John Le Bosquet. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1884.

We cannot better recommend this charming sketch to our readers than by quoting the passage in which the author brings himself and his subject together upon the scene (in Concord, N. H.):

"Allusion is made to a schoolboy not twelve years old, of parentage reputable but not rich, his father a tin-plate and sheet-iron worker, living in the neighborhood. One evening, about the close of the year 1822, he was sent, with a quill in his hand, to the merchant doing business directly beneath the apothecary-shop, to ask the favor of the making of a pen; those being days when pens of steel were little known, and those in use grew upon the backs of geese and swans, and the making of a pen was an art in which experts alone excelled.

"The merchant was busy, and said, 'Run up to Dr. Farmer: he will do it.' In a moment the boy was round the corner, up the stairs, and in the presence of the doctor. He was greeted with a kind word and as kind a smile. The doctor's penknife was always in order. Taking the quill, he shaved off about half the depth of the tubular part at the lower end, inner side; fashioned the nib in approved form; exactly divided the point, and cut it off; then slipped the knife along the nigh side of the shaft, clearing off the web, and clipped it near the upper extremity—and the work was done, with an accuracy and despatch which the nicest machinery could scarcely have equalled; the boy looking on with eyes glistening with admiration, it being to him the neatest of sleight-of-hand. 'Now write your name on that piece of paper, and see if you like it,' said the doctor, passing both pen and paper to the boy. The boy made some scratches meant for his name, and the compliment was returned, 'You write pretty well; wouldn't you like to learn to write better?' The boy answered that he would; when his new-found friend continued, 'If you will come in here Saturday afternoon, I will teach you'—that being the only half-day of the week in which scholars in those days had their liberty.

"The boy promised, and was there punctually at the hour. The writing-lesson despatched, he was invited to take a little exercise at the mortar, pulverizing medicine. And, when the business of the afternoon was accomplished, he went away with an invitation to a similar entertainment the next Saturday. . . . And now the favored lad, who had no other employment, was regularly installed as a student and an employee of the scholarly and honored John Farmer, Esq."

"Uncle Remus" himself would not disown this picture. Its particularity and antiquarian discursiveness are characteristic of the entire memorial. Benefactor and protégé grew so intimate as to become bedfellows, and we learn how the indefatigable historical searcher made his toilet in the morning, what his personal appearance was, how he walked, how he folded a

letter, how he used his ruler, what sort of a desk he wrote at and chair sat in, how his shop and his several bed-rooms were ordered, with reference to the points of the compass, what few journeys he took, and many another detail which it would be tedious to mention, though it is all delightful to read about. A more excellent man than John Farmer, or a more amiable, never lived; or, we must add, a more industrious, for the list of his writings and editings, arrangings and indexings, and the tale of his varied activity as secretary of learned and charitable associations, before death overtook him in his forty-ninth year, are amazing, especially if we bear in mind the extreme delicacy of his constitution. The author perhaps hardly emphasizes sufficiently Dr. Farmer's eminence as having, in his 'Genealogical Register of the First Settlers of New England,' made (to use the words of one of his disciples) "the commencement of our national taste for genealogy," and become the father of a literature already vast in the aggregate, and yearly swelling.

To the humanitarian side of his subject Mr. Le Bosquet does as much justice as was compatible with his modest scheme. Dr. Farmer was corresponding secretary of the New Hampshire Anti-Slavery Society, wrote its annual reports, and willed it money. In 1837, writing to the lad, who had meantime graduated from the printing-office to the ministry, he checks a flow of historical reminiscence with—"But I cannot enlarge, as I must say a word on anti-slavery. It was the remark of a good old Puritan minister, that he wished to sweeten his mouth daily with a little of Calvin; so, in like manner, do I find it comfortable for me to dip a little into anti-slavery." He continues: "The Ladies' Society here are sending out petitions to every town in the State. They are before us *men* in the good cause; and I know not [but] that the world would go on better if Miss Martineau's principles of the rights of women (see the chapter on the 'Political Non-Existence of Women,' in her new work, 'Society in America') should be received and carried out." This passage is interesting because his biographer, like so many clergymen of the time, was just then taking alarm at the admission of women to equal participation in the public proceedings and organization of the abolitionists. Mr. Le Bosquet thought this contrary to the Bible, and destructive of the very bases of society, and in the division which followed he joined his cloth in opposing the woman's-rights (Garrisonian) wing. The extract just quoted is proof enough that his old master, had he lived longer, would have kept his equilibrium. Indeed, there was a beautiful friendly relation between Dr. Farmer and the "M. C." (Mary Clark, as we surmise) of p. 73, which made it impossible for him to view the coöperation of the female sex in all good works as anything but natural and praiseworthy. On p. 122, Mr. Le Bosquet seems to imply that Dr. Farmer disapproved of the censure directed against the Church (as "the bulwark of slavery") by his fellow-abolitionists; but the letter of 1834 cited on p. 106 shows him to have been in full accord with them.

We cannot guess how many book-buyers purchase biographies which have no immediate personal interest for them, but to all we would hold up this sketch as a model in style and feeling: a tribute mellowed by the nearly fifty years which have elapsed since John Farmer ceased from his labors.

A Day in Athens with Socrates. Translations from the Protagoras and the Republic of Plato. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

THE "day" which the reader of this charming little volume spends "in Athens" is begun with an early morning visit of Socrates and one of his friends to the sophist Protagoras, "while in the 'Republic,' far on into the night, a group may be found absorbed in the contemplation of justice and the work wrought by it upon the soul." The selections from these two works—for not even the short 'Protagoras' is given entire—are thus in part designed to present a picture of life in ancient Athens. In another sense this book is a supplement to the 'Socrates' of the same author, published a few years ago, in which the aspect under which Socrates is presented is "that of the hero, the martyr, the inspired thinker." In this, and especially in the 'Protagoras,' he appears in a very different light, "in the irrelevant sallies and flights of fancy in which he indulges, in his wilful misconceptions and misleading sophistries, in the tricks which he plays upon his grave and reverend coadjutors, in his determination to get the better of every one else by fair means or foul." The editor questions whether to regard Socrates as "adopting for the moment the eristic method which he elsewhere condemns," or, as represented by Plato, as young and inexperienced. In either case, the essence of his doctrine is not found in these special features, but his aim everywhere appears to be "to force upon men the conviction that a 'life without self-examination is not worth living.'" The practical value of discussions like these and their direct bearing upon the life of to-day are well illustrated in the preface, and we are heartily glad that a work of such tonic power as this is placed in the hands of the young people of America. The translation is every way admirable, accurate, and in racy, idiomatic English, and there are a number of helpful notes.

Oregon: The Struggle for Possession. By William Barrows. [American Commonwealths Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

IF we should insist upon the nature of the series, as indicated by its general title, this volume would seem quite out of place; there is very little of the "American commonwealth" in it. Indeed, Mr. Barrows himself tells us (p. 320) that "this book is designed to be a history of the concession of Oregon, and not a history of Oregon." But even this disclaimer does not fully indicate the divergence of this volume from the presumed design of the series; it is rather a summary of the territorial acquisitions of the United States in the Northwest, with excursuses into the various boundary disputes which have marked our history. The journeys of La Salle and Joliet, the boundary line between Mexico and the United States, the treaties of Ryswick and Utrecht, the travels of Jonathan Carver, the search for the Northwest passage, the "Aroostook war," all these and a variety of other equally remote topics seem to the author to find a practicable pass into the story of Oregon. When he adds to these minor details those more directly connected with his subject, the early discoveries on the Pacific coast and in the interior, the original claims of the five Powers to the Oregon country, the successive retirement of Spain, France, and Russia, the diplomacy of the two ultimate rivals, Great Britain and the United States, and the final success of the United States, but nineteen pages are available for a very meagre account of the real commonwealth, the Oregon of 1859–84. Surely, a little care in condensation might have availed to give us an insight into the influences of the slavery controversy on the admission of Oregon, and an account of Oregon's first quarter century of Statehood.

Very much space is given to the Hudson Bay Company, that remarkable monopoly which for two centuries walled out civilization from the British portion of western North America, and kept it a wilderness, sacred to fur-bearing animals, to their authorized captors, and to large dividends on watered stock. The story of the struggle of American immigration with this hyperborean oligarchy reads almost like a campaign of the Norse gods against the frost giants. There is the same vastness of territory, the same attendant ice and snow, the same mysterious power for evil in the northern enemies, the same conflict between light and darkness, civilization and savagery. But the American frost giants proved to be only a feeble folk when the struggle was brought to a direct issue. When they were fairly pitted against the plough, the log cabin, the school-house, and the missionary, they were run out of the Oregon country with a rapidity which must have seemed miraculous to the trappers and voyageurs, to whom the company and omnipotence had always been practically synonymous terms.

The story of this struggle is the most valuable part of Mr. Barrows's volume. He abandons the threadbare efforts to find or invent title by discovery, purchase, or prescription, and puts the American title on the true ground, of successful colonization. The story, however, is marred by repetitions. The same details are narrated in different chapters, at considerable loss, even in space. Certain pet phrases are reiterated until they become wearisome. In particular "Whitman's old wagon," which led the first immigration to Oregon and showed that the mountain barrier was passable, is dragged into mention at each successive defeat of the company, until the reader is ready to vote it a bore—an injustice for which the wagon, if it still survives, must look for satisfaction to its injudicious herald.

Gli Amici. By Edmondo de Amicis. Milan. 1883.

THE latest work of this brilliant Italian author is in an entirely different vein from his former productions. It is a collection of essays, in two volumes, on "friends and friendship." The subject seems to be a trite one, and to write a book of this kind at a time when men as a rule are too busy to philosophize on every-day affairs, seems a bold attempt. Yet the result is most enjoyable. The author is not a professional philosopher using the phenomena of life to establish some abstract system. He is a man of the world, who has lived and loved, and has had friends among all sorts of people, men and women, respectable and disreputable. Taking his personal experience as a basis, he tells us what he thinks about the way in which friendships are generally formed, and how they are broken: how friends behave in adversity, how they speak of each other behind each other's back, of the relations between young and old men, between men and women. He introduces us to a number of people, and he has a happy knack of characterizing them in a few words so that they become living creatures to us. The power of observation displayed is remarkable, and the book contains material enough for a dozen novels.

There is a tinge of sadness in it—the author has parted with many illusions. But he is far from being a pessimist; his conclusion seems to be that if we are only willing to take our fellow-creatures as they are, and do not ask for too much, this world is a rather comfortable place to live in. That such a disquisition should have been written by the same person who wrote the brilliant works on Spain and Constantinople, shows not only the wide range of his talent, but also what a wonderful instrument for the expression of modern thought is found in modern Italian prose. It has all the precision and brilliancy of French prose with peculiar merits of

its own. In 'Constantinople' are pages brilliant with sunshine, wonders of word-painting worthy of Théophile Gautier; in the 'Amici' the language sometimes reminds us of Montaigne. In France the rigid rule of the Academy would condemn as vulgar a great many of the happiest expressions used by our author. What can be happier, to express great grief, than to say that a person "weeps all the tears of his soul" (*piange tutte le lagrime dell' anima*)? Yet what French author would use in serious prose the equivalent French expression, *pleurer toutes les larmes de son corps*?

When an Italian wrote to Voltaire in defence of the Italian language, and pointed out to him the happy use which was made in that language of augmentatives and diminutives, the Frenchman answered, that they too had used such childish artifices in the infancy of their language, but that they had outgrown them. Old and quaint language is still used in the provinces; but however it may be admired when introduced by George Sand in her rural sketches, and of late in some books of André Theuriet's, it is not known and is not imitated by those who in Paris lay down the rules for the language of civilized Frenchmen. It is different in Italy. When in this century literature revived from its long sleep, and an attempt was made to purify the national language from the French jargon which had crept in, it was perceived how rich a mine existed in the dialects, especially in that of Tuscany, the classic land of poetry and song—the "bel paese là dove il si suona." By some the movement was carried too far, and our author has written elsewhere a very interesting essay on this subject. But, in the hand of a master, the instrument proved to be a wonderful one. A language was evolved, refined yet popular; and in language, as in politics, the real power rests with the people.

The Boys of Thirty-five : A Story of a Seaport Town. By Edward Henry Elwell. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1884.

THIS little book will captivate young and old. It is a thinly-disguised picture of boy life in "Landsport" (Portland) in Jackson's time, and while much of it is peculiar to the locality, yet a large portion will stand for other parts of the New England seaboard also. Not only in Portland, but in every considerable town, boys were divided into hostile camps by the quarter in which they lived—here the Liberty Streeters, the Gorham's Corner boys, the Down-Towners, etc. Not only to Portland, but to Boston, the Vermont farmer drove his produce down "on runners" in winter. Everywhere in New England the militia muster became as ridiculous, disorderly, and disreputable as in Maine. The noisy Fourth is only just ceasing to be the nuisance which it was then in a far higher degree. It is in and about the harbor that the local flavor of these reminiscences is perhaps the strongest. Mr. Elwell has a light and playful touch, with considerable graphic force and much sympathy with the boyish age. He goes so far in concealing the identity of his set that he even gives himself a pseudonym. It is not otherwise with public characters, except in rare instances. One of these is characteristic enough to be quoted. The boys were playing roly-poly on the sidewalk with a dainty home-made ball of soft leather, stuffed with woollen yarn and india-rubber:

"Ed. Thompson had the ball, and he tossed it into the air just as a gentleman was passing with a small boy at his side. The gentleman caught the ball as it came down, and critically examined it, . . . seemed satisfied with his examination of the ball, and, turning to Ed. Thompson, handed him a four-pence 'alfpenny, gave the ball to the boy by his side, and passed on.

"Ed. Thompson, who was a shy little fellow, stood dumbfounded, while Ben Hunter cried out—

"'That's John Neal, confound his impudence.'"

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, A. D. Mexico from the Material Standpoint. Brentano Bros.

Annals of Sandy Spring: or Twenty Years' History of a Rural Community in Maryland. Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey.

Backhouse, E., and Tyler, C. Early Church History to the Death of Constantine. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $6.

Benner, S. Prophecies of Future Ups and Downs in Prices. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.

Bisbee, L. H., and Simonds, J. C. The Board of Trade and the Produce Exchange; their History, Methods, and Law. Chicago: Callahan & Co.

Boyle, Dean G. D. Richard Baxter. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 75 cents.

Bunce, O. B. My House: an Ideal. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.

Bunner, H. C. Airs from Arcady and Elsewhere. Poems. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Christus: Advent, the Crucifixion, the Resurrection, the Ascension. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.

Church, Rev. A. J. Stories of the Old World. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.

Coues, Prof. E. Biogen: a Speculation on the Origin and Nature of Life. Second edition. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 75 cents.

Daniell, A. A Text-Book of the Principles of Physics. Macmillan & Co. $5.

Davies, Rev. G. J. Successful Preachers. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.

Duganne, A. J. H. Injuresoul: a Satire for Science. American Book-Print Company.

Figuier, L. L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle (1883). F. W. Christern.

Foote, Dr. E. B. Divorce: a Review of the Subject from a Scientific Standpoint. Murray Hill Publishing Company. 25 cents.

Francillon, R. E. A Real Queen. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Franklin Square Song Collection: No. 2, Harper & Brothers. 50 cents.

Guernsey, A. H. The World's Opportunities and How to Use Them. Harper & Brothers.

Habberton, J. The Bowsham Puzzle. A Novel. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.

Hewett, E. C. A Treatise on Pedagogy, for Young Teachers. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Higginson, T. W. Wendell Phillips. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 25 cents.

Hunnewell, J. F. The Historical Monuments of France. Boston: Rev. J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.50.

Hunt, Prof. T. W. The Principles of Written Discourse. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.

Hutchinson, P. O. The Diary and Letters of his Excellency Thomas Hutchinson, Esq., Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of his late Majesty's Province of Massachusetts Bay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.

Irving, Kate. Clear Light from the Spirit World. G. W. Carleton & Co. $1.25.

Keynes, J. N. Studies and Exercises in Formal Logic. Macmillan & Co. $3.

Lanman, Prof. C. R. A Sanskrit Reader: with Vocabulary and Notes. Parts I. and II. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

Life and Poems of Theodore Winthrop. Edited by his sister. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.

McLanathan, Mary L. As at This Time: a Holy Week and Easter Musing. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

Mitchell, D. G. Doctor Johns. New edition. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Mitchell, D. G. Bound Together: a Sheaf of Papers. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Ober, F. A. Travels in Mexico and Life among the Mexicans. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.75.

Reade, C. Jack of All Trades: Being a Narrative of the Famed Elephant Djek and her Keeper. Harper & Bros. 15 cents.

Reade, C. The Picture. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.

Reuss, Prof. E. History of the Canon of the Holy Scriptures in the Christian Church. Translated from the French. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.

Roosevelt, R. B. The Game Fish of the Northern States and British Provinces. New and Revised Edition. Orange Judd Co. $2.

Rossa, O'Donovan. Edward O'Donnell: a Story of Ireland of Our Day. S. W. Green's Son.

Saltus, E. E. Balzac. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Sanitary Engineer. Vol. VIII. June to November, 1883. Cloth, $3.

Schouler, J. A Treatise on the Law of Personal Property. Vol. I. Second edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Schuyler, Eugene. Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $10.

Shirk, Dr. J. K. Female Hygiene and Female Diseases. Lancaster, Pa.: Publishing Co.

Smith, Mary S. Virginia Cookery-Book. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.

Spender, Mrs. J. K. Mr. Nobody: a Novel. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.

Spofford, A. R. American Almanac and Treasury of Facts for 1884. The American News Company.

Stanley, Dean. History of the Jewish Church. Vols. II. and III. New edition. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 each.

Topelius, Z. Times of Frederick I. Fourth Volume of the Surgeon's Stories. Translated from the Swedish. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 3, 1884.

The Week.

THE circular which the Conference Committee of Independent Republicans has sent broadcast over the country is an admirable document. It puts in the right way the influence which all independent voters desire to exert. It calls upon them to make all possible efforts to arouse Republican voters to the necessity of attending the primaries, and securing the election of such delegates to the National Convention as will represent the people rather than intriguing politicians. In case the primaries result in the choice of unsatisfactory delegates, the independent voters are exhorted to take systematic steps for the purpose of laying before the National Convention such evidence of adverse sentiment as will prevent the nomination of candidates who will not command independent confidence and support. The main point at issue is well stated by the Committee in the following passage: "It is universally recognized that success in New York State next fall is vital to Republican success in the country at large. The State can be carried by the Republicans if such candidates are chosen as will deserve to be elected, men whose names will be a warrant, beyond even the pledges of the best party platform, that the cause of administrative reform will be advanced till the separation of the public service from partisan politics is made final and complete. The State cannot be carried by any candidate, whatever his popularity in certain districts, who has used, or who might if elected use, the patronage of office as a reward for personal or party service, or whose past record would put the party on the defensive and compel a campaign of apology or vindication." All the wire-pullers and boomers know that to be an exact and truthful presentation of the case, and we apprehend that the force of it will increase rather than diminish as the days between the present time and the assembling of the Convention pass by. It is the unwilling recognition of this truth which depresses all the boomers now, and makes their work so hollow and, as we firmly believe it will turn out to be at the Convention, so ineffective. It is impossible to believe that a National Republican Convention can be assembled, in this year of reform sentiment, in which there will be a majority of delegates capable of the blunder of nominating a candidate who cannot be elected, especially when it is so clear that all men can see it, that the right kind of a candidate can be elected almost without effort.

The more the action of the Democratic caucus is considered, the less does it appear to be regarded as a victory for Mr. Morrison. At all events, it very clearly prepares the way for wholesale and disintegrating criticism of his bill in the Committee of the Whole. This criticism was started, and its probable effects indicated clearly enough, in a long, and, as usual, able speech of Mr. Hewitt's on Wednesday week on the Bonded Whiskey Bill. In the course of it he took occasion to condemn emphatically Mr. Carlisle's proposal to repeal the tax on tobacco, and to advocate in its stead the total repeal of the tax on whiskey, on the ground that taxation has nothing to do with morality, and that half the alcohol produced in the country is used in the arts, and it is therefore one of our most valuable manufactures. He, however, went far to refute himself as to the connection of taxation with morality by advocating the retention of the tax on tobacco, on the ground that tobacco is a luxury. Now, anybody who selects a thing for taxation because it is a luxury, abandons the ground that you should tax for revenue only, and concedes that you may sometimes tax for other things, because he concedes that the legislator may consider the use made by the taxpayer of the commodity, and his need of it. Whiskey for drinking is not only a luxury but a most pernicious luxury, and the importance of this fact to the Legislature is not in the least diminished by the consideration that it contains a great deal of useful alcohol. It does not follow that you must not tax a thing which a man puts in his belly because other men turn it to account in manufacturing processes, any more than that you must not tax saddle and carriage horses used for pleasure because most horses are used for the transportation of goods.

The Bonded Whiskey Bill was really a proposal that the Government should lend the distillers who have been making more whiskey than they could sell at a profit, the amount of the tax now due, for two years, at 4½ per cent. interest. That whiskey making is a legitimate business is not a good reason why the Government should do anything of the kind; nor is the fact, if fact it be, that if the whiskey men have to pay their tax now, widespread financial disaster will overtake the great whiskey cities and States. Cotton weaving and tanning are legitimate trades, and overproduction among cotton men and leather men causes great financial disaster or depression; but no one would think of proposing a Government loan, to enable either of these industries to tide over troubles caused by the mistakes or misfortunes of the manufacturers. The whiskey men, in short, even if they are as good as other people, must take their chance with the rest of the community. For public encouragement and sympathy they ought not to look. The decisive vote of 185 to 83, by which the bill was defeated in the House on Thursday, must be considered reasonable cause of public rejoicing, all the greater because it was in no sense a party vote. The vote says as plainly as possible that though the country may tolerate the whiskey business, it will not foster it.

The claim which has been set up by the whiskey men, as well as by some others, that the Legislature has no right to discriminate in the matter of imposing taxes for or against any manufacture, on the score of public utility, is a doctrine which we believe no civilized state has ever yet adopted or acted on. All the laws for the regulation of the liquor traffic and for the protection of public health are based on the theory that the state has, or may have, a policy with regard to any commodity the consumption of which may lead to disorder, or be detrimental from a sanitary point of view. The whiskey business, too, has, since the war, created a fresh reason for public distrust and hostility by having made its entrance into politics, as a distinct interest, seeking special protection by every means in its power, good or bad. The mischief wrought by it in this way already is simply incalculable. There is hardly one of the great cities which it has not made almost ungovernable, or delivered over to the rule of ruffianism and profligacy.

The Lasker trouble was brought to an end on Wednesday by the transfer of Mr. Sargent to Russia. The nomination was confirmed at once by the Senate without reference to a committee. This, coming immediately after Bismarck's speech and the invitation of Mr. Sargent to the Emperor's birthday dinner, will, it is to be hoped, prevent any further trouble. It is said that the Administration will not fill the German Legation for some time. This intention, if carried out, would leave the United States in a very dignified position and save the salary of a minister, whose duties can easily be performed by a chargé. The principal use of a minister at a foreign court for us is the cultivation of friendly relations between the countries, and this is especially true of Germany, from which a vast emigration is continually going on to the United States. The idea that Mr. Sargent must be kept at his post because he was "under fire," seems to have found favor only with some of the Southern Senators, who think that no opportunity ought to be lost to teach the Kings and Emperors a lesson. But this feeling has very little hold on the public at large, as the discussion of the matter in the press and in Congress has abundantly shown. It is only indirectly that our diplomatic corps can be made to serve an educational purpose.

The week has been uneventful in general trade circles. With some improvement in the weather there has been a more active inquiry for merchandise, but nothing betokening a real revival. Prices of cotton goods have become firmer, following a small advance in raw cotton, but the demand has not been sufficient to warrant a rise of prices, as it is known that there are large quantities held back by the mills, which will come out on the first fair opportunity. Pig iron is unchanged and the market remains sluggish. There was a further decline in wheat at Chicago, and prices one day touched 80¼ for No. 2 spring cash, but it soon recovered to 83. This decline, coupled with the reduction in railway rates noticed last week, started a heavy movement to the seaboard, but exports have not been much stimulated as yet. Gold to the amount

of $2,200,000 was sent to London without causing any advance in the rate of interest at the banks. Business at the Stock Exchange is almost lifeless, the only demand from the public being for bonds and well-known dividend-paying stocks. The efforts ascribed to Gould, Vanderbilt, and a few other millionaires to draw the public into a speculation for a general advance proved wholly abortive, and have been abandoned. The stock market appears now to stand on its own bottom, the bears being as thoroughly demoralized as the bulls. The general distrust of stocks has led to a more active demand for real estate, both city and suburban property being in good request. Some large transactions on the west side of Central Park have led to the belief that that neglected quarter of the city is about to obtain the recognition which its boulevards and driveways and river scenery have so long invited.

The preparations for increased supplies of wheat which are now going on in various parts of the world, particularly in India, promise a glut in food very like that which we are now witnessing in clothing, and indicate that hereafter the hold of the West on the European grain market will be much less firm than it has been. In fact, there has not been for many years a gloomier outlook for produce bulls. The probabilities are, too, if we may judge from what is passing on the Congo, that the most fertile portions of Africa will soon be pierced by railroads and steamers, and another flood of eatables let loose on the world. What is now needed, apparently, most of all to keep prices up, is more consumers or better appetites. Nothing but a great and rapid increase in the size of families will suffice to keep our farmers and manufacturers out of difficulties, or give any permanent basis for what is called a "bull market." The existing machinery of production is clearly running far ahead of the present normal growth of population in the various civilized countries. Even our system of doubling in twenty-five years, wonderful as it has been considered, will not do; we must double in ten years if we are to keep our farmers and manufacturers out of trouble, or else get the Africans to wear two suits of clothes a year, and take more regular and fuller meals.

In the prevailing business gloom, we take pleasure in calling the attention of our readers to any sign of cheer and hope; and one of the most significant of these lies before us in the shape of a notice that Mr. Emanuel Delmar, late associate editor of the *Commercial Advertiser*, is going to "start a paper." His "salutatory," which is for some reason published in advance, gives the name of the new paper as the *Great Republic*, and fixes the circulation at 200,000 a week, and "as much more as possible." It is to be a large, handsome eight-page semi-weekly, and will appear on Wednesday and Saturday. The name of the editor-in-chief is not given, but his services have been secured, and he is described as "a gentleman and scholar of the highest social and political standing," and a "Republican of national reputation." The *Great Republic* is to be devoted during the coming campaign to the defeat of the dastardly efforts of the Democrats to gain control of the National Government. If we may venture a suggestion, it would be that such a paper ought to be made a daily. A semi-weekly would not terrify the Democrats half as much as a daily. The cost of conducting the paper, Mr. Delmar frankly says, will be "very great," but with a circulation of 200,000 that cannot make much difference. The curious part of the circular is that it contains an appeal for money, to "those personally interested in the success of the party," which reminds the reader a little of Jay Hubbell.

Another chapter of Mr. Blaine's History has got into the newspapers, and there are intimations that others will follow. He seems to have lost all control over it, and to be completely at the mercy of some heedless person who has small conception of what a great historical work really is. The successive publications are used precisely as if they were ordinary campaign documents. Thus the first chapter given out related mainly to Jere Black and Buchanan's administration, and was published in full in the Philadelphia newspapers as being of absorbing interest to the people of Pennsylvania. The second instalment, which appeared exclusively in the *Tribune* of Saturday, relates to the Whig campaign of 1848, and was announced as having a "special relish for New Yorkers," since it deals "with the later career of President Van Buren." Doubtless the work contains other chapters relating to other States, which will follow in due order, and, by the time the Convention assembles, every important State in the Union will be permitted to peruse an entrancing account of its own share in the political annals of the country. We do not remember that any previous historical work has been laid before the world in this way, but the reason may be that no other has had the misfortune to be nearing completion on the eve of a Presidential campaign.

The National Bankruptcy Convention have issued a little pamphlet giving in a few words a statement of their reasons for urging the passage of a bankrupt law. They are able to put the case this year in a stronger light than that in which it appeared at the last session of Congress, for every additional six months of depression of business makes the need of a bankrupt law more apparent. The failures in the United States, they say, were $65,000,000 in 1880, $101,000,000 in 1882, and $173,000,000 in 1883, and yet, with this enormous burden of indebtedness, our laws provide no uniform means of distributing the property of the insolvents among their creditors, or of giving the former a discharge from liability on a surrender of their property. The State insolvent laws are of little or no use, because they are local, and because they have to a considerable extent been framed by debtor communities in the interest of the debtor. The first great stride the United States made in material prosperity was made on borrowed capital, and borrowers were, in much of our early legislation, treated as a favored class. This explains the large exemptions from attachment in some of the States. The system of preferences, too, though not designed to help the debtor, certainly plays into his hands. It enables an insolvent to perpetrate frauds by palming off a transaction, designed to protect his property from his creditors, as a payment of a preferred debt. On the other hand, a State law can give an insolvent no discharge binding in any other State, and the result of this is that a very large proportion of the debts of an insolvent are kept alive for years by creditors who can afford to wait, and hang like a millstone round his neck.

The Judiciary Committee of the Senate has taken a step of some importance towards the solution of the "divorce problem" by reporting a bill for the collection of statistics with regard to marriage and divorce. It provides that the Bureau of Statistics n the Treasury Department shall, under regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary, collect and report all such statistics to Congress. These statistics, if carefully collected, will throw a great deal of light upon the facility for divorce afforded by diversity of State laws and jurisdictions. We have little doubt that half the divorces in the United States would never be granted at all if there were a uniform law extending all over the country, and the number of courts authorized to grant divorces were not so enormous. Marriage in the United States is practically dissoluble at the option of either party. The old legal maxim that the state is a party to every marriage has become merely a pretty fiction, because, in nine cases out of ten, when the time for divorce comes, it is not the State of the marriage to which application is made, but some other State.

Some very interesting views upon the subject of prohibitory laws as a means of suppressing the traffic in liquor have been expressed recently by ex-Chief-Justice Appleton of Maine. He is a teetotaler in principle and practice, and was on the Supreme bench in Maine for more than thirty years. As a result of his experience and observation, he says that while the present prohibitory law of Maine has been of some use in the smaller towns and villages, it has not succeeded in the larger towns and cities, and has failed to accomplish as much in restraining the sale of liquor as a strict license law would have done. He opposes, therefore, the present movement in favor of a prohibitory amendment to the Constitution, first, because an amendment will not in itself accomplish anything for temperance, since it would be of no avail without special legislation in accordance with it, and it would be in the power of each successive Legislature to take such action as it pleased on the question. In the second place, the adoption of such an amendment would annul all existing temperance laws, and an entirely new start would have to be made. Whether he expresses the opinion of a majority of the people or not will be shown in September, when a popular vote is to be taken on the question of the amendment. It is evident, however, that in Maine, as in many other localities in which the temperance crusade has been preached with more zeal than discretion, a reaction has set in, and that there is a grow-

ing sentiment in favor of measures which, while they do not aim at instantaneous suppression, can be depended upon to exert a most beneficial restriction.

The possible effect of the emancipation of woman in infusing into the female character that sort of virility which produces a readiness to shoot at sight, has, we believe, never been considered by the advocates of woman suffrage. They maintain that female virtues will remain just what they have always been, only "more so." Conservatives, however, maintain that as they are clothed with the rights of men, many feminine traits will be lost. The old-fashioned feudal woman always had an excessive aversion to gunpowder; the noise of a pistol or gun being painful to her nerves. She seems, however, in modern times to be gradually growing fond of it; and the ladies who get into "shooting scrapes" explain their connection with them in a way which resembles that of the Southern Colonel or Major. The Countess de Raconska, who had to shoot little Willie Coad in Philadelphia the other day, explains it by saying that her landlady, Willie's aunt, had annoyed her by keeping the gas in their boarding house too low, and making too much noise. She therefore thought she "would fire" next time, and accordingly did so. It looks as if the possession of a revolver had just the same effect on woman that it has on man.

Texas Siftings has some curious particulars about the late Ben Thompson, the noted desperado of that State, recently slain by a brother desperado. He is said to have killed fifteen men with his own hand, and once killed two by successive shots of a revolver, fired in opposite directions, both having him covered with their own weapons, and only showing their heads. His clothes were always fashionable, and he wore $3,000 worth of diamonds. In 1882 he was made City Marshal or Chief of the Police of Austin, but had to take a vacation in June in order to kill a man in San Antonio to whom he owed a grudge. He killed him, accordingly, and was put in prison for it and tried at San Antonio, bail being refused. He was acquitted, of course, but he retained his office in Austin during his incarceration, and, on his return to that city, had the horses taken from his carriage, and was drawn through the streets by an enthusiastic crowd. He was unwell at the time of his death, but people remarked, "Ben is a little bilious, but he will come all right again as soon as he has killed a man." Sure enough, he soon after sought to effect his cure by killing a certain Foster at San Antonio, but Foster was too quick for him. Ben killed him, but not before he had relieved Ben himself of all further pains and aches by a well-directed shot.

Members of Congress who take any interest in "abroad" must be very much puzzled at Mr. Herbert Spencer's reasons for refusing to allow his name to be used as a candidate for a seat in Parliament from Leicester. He says that he could not agree to be "merely a delegate," but would have to act on his own judgment, and would thus be in continual antagonism with his constituents. This, he adds, is because he thinks that legislation ought to be directed to securing to each person without cost "the maintenance of his equitable claims," while his constituents would want something very different from this. Mr. Spencer, if he were an American, would evidently have no such difficulty in going to Congress. With us it is the constituents who want some security for the maintenance of their equitable claims, and cannot get it because the politicians want something else.

The Congo treaty between Great Britain and Portugal has excited scarcely less opposition among the manufacturing and trading classes in England than among those of the Continent. It recognizes the sovereignty of Portugal over a strip of the west coast of Africa embracing three degrees of latitude and including the mouth of the Congo River. Freedom of trade, navigation, settlement, and religion are guaranteed to the citizens of all countries within the prescribed territory, and very solemn undertakings are entered into for suppressing the slave trade, not only in the Congo country, but in all other Portuguese possessions in Africa. The objection raised against the treaty in England is that it puts the country into the hands of a narrow-minded, bigoted, and tyrannical Government, whose administration would probably go far to neutralize the liberal and beneficent guarantees of the treaty. It is contended that the rights of Portugal over the mouth of the Congo are wholly imaginary, and cannot in any event be enforced against other Powers without war. Of course England is not bound to go to war to defend the rights of Portugal, even after they are recognized, but in any complications which might hereafter arise, she would not enjoy the same freedom of action as she would if there were no treaty. Then, looking to the future trade of the Congo Valley, which is now attracting so much attention, the Power which controls the mouth of the river must possess very great advantages, notwithstanding the equality of rights secured by the treaty.

Here is where the British Government expects to find its justification at home for making the treaty. It is necessary that the Congo coast should have a settled government, and that some civilized nation should be responsible for it. Great Britain cannot with good grace seize it by main strength herself. If neither Great Britain nor Portugal establish itself there, some Power stronger than Portugal and more difficult to deal with may attempt to do so. Is it not better, from the English point of view, that a third-rate but friendly Power should be in possession, under color of title, than that the country should fall into the hands of a first-rate and rival Power, or remain exposed to that danger? The treaty has not been ratified, but it probably will be, in spite of the protest of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce and the outcry of the merchants of Rotterdam.

The war in the Sudan appears, as far as the British are concerned, to be at an end, for the Arabs refuse to come any longer within fighting distance. They have evidently had enough of attacking squares with spears. This, doubtless, gives the British their ten miles of coast without much further molestation, but what effect it will have in opening communication with Khartum by way of Berber, and what it will do by way of rescuing the remaining Egyptian garrisons, remains to be seen. The chances are, however, that it will lead to some sort of negotiation and settlement with the principal sheikhs, if not with Osman Digna. As the British proposal is to leave the Sudan, except a small district around Khartum, wholly to the Sudanese, which is what the Sudanese want, there is apparently nothing left for anybody but religious fanatics to fight about. As we have several times maintained in these columns, the Mussulman fanaticism of our day is enormously overrated. Nothing of the old kind which built up Mohammedanism is anywhere discoverable. Turks, Turcomans, Arabs, Persians, Egyptians, all talk very fiercely and threaten dreadful things, till they have actually had some experience of infidel arms; then it becomes rapidly apparent that Paradise is not the near and attainable prize which it was in the early ages of the faith. Wherever the Christian Powers have come in contact with the Mussulman world during the last 150 years, the rapid moral decay of Islam has been increasingly clear.

There is something almost pathetic about the efforts of the London *Spectator* to get the Arabs to behave in what it considers a really becoming manner for picturesque Mussulmans. When Hicks Pasha was defeated, about the middle of November last, it predicted that there would be a rising of the whole Arab world in North Africa, and that "in a month the French would be fighting for their lives from Gabez to Morocco." When the month had elapsed without any trouble, it accounted for the delay by the suggestion that the "swift dromedaries" that were carrying the news had not had time to get down to the coast from the Sudan. It has looked for some time now as if they had fallen lame on the road, or had never started. The *Spectator* has accordingly given up Hicks's defeat as a *causa causans*. It now says that if "Sir G. Graham's force had been annihilated" the other day, "as for ten minutes seemed possible, the Arab world would have been in arms, and some twenty millions of the only Asiatics who have the courage and inherent brain power of Europeans, would have again stormed out of their secluded fastnesses to found an Arab Khalifate." It is amazing what an attraction speculations of this sort have for minds which love sensation. It ought to be obvious to the writer of the above that a race with the capacity and energy to found a Khalifate to-day, would not need to have its power revealed to it by the massacre of two or three British regiments, even if they were "the Black Watch and the Marine Brigade." The great constructive races do not discover their capacity by accident, or relapse contentedly into barbarism because Sir Redvers Buller "got round on their flank" with the Second Brigade.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 26, to TUESDAY, April 1, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THERE was great excitement in Cincinnati last week over the fact that a jury had found William Berner, who had confessed to deliberate murder, guilty of manslaughter only. On Friday afternoon he was sentenced to twenty years in the penitentiary, and deputies started secretly with him to Columbus to put him in the prison there. On the way he managed to elude a mob at Loveland, and escaped from custody. The citizens of Cincinnati believed him still to be in that city. On Friday evening a mass-meeting, attended by 10,000 people, passed resolutions condemning the disgraceful verdict. As soon as it adjourned, about ten o'clock, the crowd moved to the jail to lynch Berner. The riot alarm summoned the whole police force to the jail. The crowd, under a leader, began work on the jail door. Several shots were fired without effect. By 11 P. M. the mob had succeeded in entering the prison. At 11:30 the First Regiment Ohio National Guard entered the jail, and at midnight thirty musket-shots were fired to scare the mob. The glancing balls wounded four persons. Lew Kent, one of the mob, was killed when the door between the reception-room and cells was broken down. This checked the mob, and they slowly retired. For two hours they endeavored to set fire to the building, but failed. The crowd threw stones and fired pistols at the windows, and the militia fired from the windows at the crowd. A score or more were wounded, several fatally. Later the crowd broke into the Veterans' Armory and Kittredge's gun store and procured arms. By the time this was done, however, the crowd had so thinned out that no further serious attempt was made, and at half-past three o'clock on Saturday mroning quiet was restored. Berner, the murderer, after a most eventful experience, was recaptured and landed in the penitentiary at Columbus, secretly, on Saturday night.

The rioting was renewed in Cincinnati on Saturday night and Sunday, with terrible effect. On Saturday evening the mob turned its attention from the jail to the Court-house, which was supposed to be fire-proof. A small squad of police patrolled the sidewalk in front of the building, and for a time kept the rioters from approaching. But the police were forced from the front of the building and back along the Court Street side. Then the doors of the Treasurer's office were broken down with a heavy piece of timber, used as a battering-ram. The militia then charged the mob. Falling back a few steps, the rioters made a stand and fired upon the troops, killing a captain. The mob then pressed forward into the Court-house and set fire to it in several places. Many valuable records and the law library, one of the finest in the country, were burned. All attempts of the Fire Department to reach the fire were prevented. Twice a charge was made, to give them access, but the people were wedged into the streets and alleys so closely that no impression could be made upon them. Men were killed and others wounded in each charge. The idea of the mob seemed to be to destroy wholly the building which it was their belief was only a shield to criminals. When the fire was at its height, three rounds of twelve shots each were fired from behind a barricade at a dense crowd on South Court Street with deadly effect. A scattering fire followed. This aroused great indignation against the militia. At 3 o'clock on Sunday morning the police captured a cannon and dispersed the mob at Fourth and Walnut Streets without firing a pistol. They have shown remarkable bravery throughout the crisis.

On Sunday the Mayor left his sick bed to direct the work of securing order. A proclamation was issued and all good citizens were requested to rally to the preservation of peace. Governor Hoadly ordered every militia regiment of the State to Cincinnati. The rioting, however, continued during Sunday. A crowd was charged upon by the militia at noon and two were killed. All the afternoon there were threatening demonstrations and occasional shots were heard. At 9 o'clock in the evening the firing in the vicinity of the Court-house was again resumed, the militia trying to disperse the mob. Several persons were shot. Briggs Swift, a wealthy business man, was shot and seriously wounded. Reports of the casualties up to Monday night put the killed at 42 and the wounded about 120.

There was some rioting during the early hours of Monday morning, but by 9 A. M. quiet was completely restored and the militia were in full possession of the city.

All was quiet in Cincinnati on Monday night and during Tuesday. The Municipal Reform Association, composed of citizens of all parties, issued on that day a manifesto to the voters of the city, stating that they believed the occurrences of the past few days more than ever demanded the severance of party politics and municipal government; and also stating that they would place in nomination for the various offices to be filled at the approaching municipal election men of irreproachable integrity and undoubted qualifications for the positions, who have consented to accept the nominations merely from considerations of public duty. Such a ticket was announced later in the day.

The President on Wednesday sent to the Senate the nomination of Aaron A. Sargent, now Minister to Germany, to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Russia in place of the late Mr. Hunt. On the same day the Secretary of State sent him the following telegram: "The President approves entirely of your course in the Lasker matter. You have done nothing but obey the instructions of this Government therein. The President, thinking it would be agreeable to you, to-day nominated you as Minister to St. Petersburg, and your nomination, without reference to any committee, was immediately and unanimously confirmed by the American Senate. This action manifests an appreciation of your worth, and does you an honor of which any citizen may well be proud." Mr. Sargent has declined the Russian mission and will return home. He fears the Russian climate and has pressing duties in this country. It is believed that the German mission will not be filled for some time.

President Arthur sent to Congress on Wednesday a special message urging the appropriation of money to reconstruct the navy.

Cardinal McCloskey and other eminent Catholics of the United States brought to the attention of the President several weeks since the action of the Italian Government in the matter of the proposed sale of the Propaganda property at Rome, and requested the good offices of the Government of the United States in behalf of the American College. By direction of the President, the Secretary of State addressed a note to Mr. Astor, the United States Minister at Rome, instructing him to lay the facts in the case before the Government of the King of Italy. On Friday he replied that the American College had been exempted from the sale.

The Senate on Wednesday passed Mr. Dawes's bill providing for granting lands to Indians in severalty. On Friday the Senate passed the bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to issue a proclamation offering a reward of $25,000, to be equitably paid or distributed to any ship or ships, or person or persons not in the military or naval service of the United States, that shall discover or rescue, or satisfactorily ascertain the fate of, the Greely expedition.

The House Navy Bill, as amended by the Senate Committee, was reported to the Senate on Monday. The House refused to appropriate money for the armament of the new cruisers; the Senate Committee gives $400,000. The House refused to appropriate money for the completion of the monitors for harbor defence; the Senate Committee gives $2,000,000. Finally, the House refused an appropriation for additional steel vessels for the navy, although every one admits that such additional ships are necessary and ought to be built as soon as possible; the Senate Committee appropriates $2,500,000 for this purpose.

After a debate of six days the bill to extend the period during which whiskey can be kept in bond was defeated by the House on Thursday, the vote being 83 to 185. The majority is much larger than was expected, and the distillers are very angry.

The House Committee on Coinage reported unanimously, on Thursday, a bill providing that until June 1, 1886, trade dollars shall be received at their face value in payment of all dues to the United States, and shall not be again paid out. The trade dollars received are to be recoined into standard dollars, and are to be treated when received at the mints as silver bullion, and their bullion value shall be deducted from the amount of bullion required to be purchased and coined by the act of February 28, 1878. The bill was passed on Tuesday, with an amendment striking out the deducting clause.

The House Banking and Currency Committee on Tuesday morning instructed ex-Governor Dingley to report his bill, which authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to invest the lawful money deposited by national banks to redeem circulation in such bonds as he may deem for the best interest of the Government, and to hold or dispose of such bonds as the necessities of the redemption fund may require.

The third trial of the suit of Hallet Kilbourn against ex-Sergeant-at-Arms Thompson, of the House of Representatives, for false imprisonment, resulted on Wednesday in a verdict, at Washington, of $37,500 in favor of Kilbourn.

During March the public debt of the United States was reduced $14,238,324.

There was a very exciting time in the New York Assembly on Wednesday, when Mr. Roosevelt's series of bills to correct abuses in New York city offices were special orders for the day. Speaker Sheard allowed opportunity for a Democratic member to demand that the order of third reading, for a number of bills already on the table, be observed. It took a two-thirds vote to set this aside, and the necessary number was lacking. The Speaker ruled, also, that a suspension of the rules would be necessary to make the city bills a special order for another day. This seriously endangered their final passage. The Republicans then resorted to other tactics and were met by Democratic filibustering, the result of which was that the Roosevelt bills were considered in Committee of the Whole when a quorum was not present, and they were, by doubtful parliamentary rulings, saved for another sitting of the Committee of the Whole. Speaker Sheard was subjected to severe criticism for his course, but he affirms that he is a friend of the city reform bills, and will do nothing to delay them.

In the evening the bill making the President of the Board of Aldermen elective was passed. The Senate passed the General Surface Railroad Bill without further amendment. A bill giving a cable traction street railway company certain rights in the nature of a big monopoly was summarily killed in the Assembly on Thursday.

A bill was passed in the Assembly on Wednesday regulating the sale of oleomargarine and other substitutes for butter. Its main feature is requiring the conspicuous posting of notices.

The Roosevelt bills for correcting abuses in the New York city government were consid-

ered in Committee of the Whole on Tuesday by the Assembly, and were advanced, several being ordered to a third reading.

The New Jersey Assembly on Monday night rejected the woman's suffrage law by a vote of 24 to 27.

Augustus Schell died in this city on Thursday at the age of 72. He was graduated at Union College, and practised for 20 years at Albany. He took an early interest in politics and became a power in Tammany Hall. In 1856 he was appointed Collector of the Port of New York. He has been prominent in railroad enterprises since 1862, and for many years was an officer of the Western Union Telegraph Company. During the reign of the Tweed ring Mr. Schell partly withdrew from Tammany Hall, but was elected its Grand Sachem in 1872, after the downfall of the ring. In 1877 he ran as a candidate for the State Senate, but was defeated by John Morrissey. Since 1872 he has been President of the Historical Society.

FOREIGN.

The British infantry on Wednesday were encamped nine miles from Suakim. The march thither was painful on account of the intense heat. Three hundred men fell out of the ranks. The cavalry with fifty Arab scouts went during the day to reconnoitre Tamanieb. Colonel Stewart sent messengers ahead to parley with the rebels, but they were fired upon. A lively skirmish then ensued for two hours. Several of the rebels were killed. The cavalry finally retired slowly, amid the jeers of the enemy, who held a strong position at the rugged and rising ground which forms the end of the valley near Tamanieb. The evening and night were cool and afforded the troops a grateful rest. At 3:30 o'clock on Thursday morning reveillé was sounded and the troops were got in readiness to advance on Tamanieb.

At 5 o'clock the march began. The cavalry were in front with the infantry following in echelon of brigade squares, with the guns between the brigades. The firing opened at half-past seven, and was brisk on both sides, the rebels firing from the cover of rocks. The English cavalry and mounted infantry led the attack upon them, and drove them from their shelter into the hills. When General Graham came up with the infantry and guns, shells were thrown after the flying rebels. The cavalry pursued them, and the village of Tamanieb was burned to the ground. There were no British casualties. The loss of the rebels is unknown.

Orders were sent from England to General Graham on Thursday to return from the Sudan immediately with his troops. He arrived at Suakim with the cavalry that evening. The infantry reached there on Friday, and the Tenth Hussars, the York and Lancaster Regiment, and the Irish Fusileers thereupon embarked for home.

General Graham, with his troops, sailed from Suakim for Suez on Tuesday. The latest advices respecting Osman Digna were that he had encamped in the vicinity of Tamanieb, having about 1,0 0 followers and many sheikhs, and that he was preparing to give battle to the tribes friendly to the English. On Monday evening the rebels approached to within a mile of Suakim and looted the cattle. The inhabitants of Suakim are discontented and angry at being left by the British to take care of themselves.

Colonel Kitchener and Major Rundle started from Cairo on Thursday to coöperate with Captain Chermside in negotiations for the opening of the road to Berber. Telegraphic communication between Berber and Shendy was restored on that day. Five hundred natives will be sent to open the Berber road.

The sheikhs of tribes numbering 5,000 people and living in the district between Suakim and Kassala, came in on Friday to Suakim and promised to assist in the capture of Osman Digna.

Hassan Bey, the commandant at Kassala, has sent word to Massowah that the Kassala garrison has food and munitions for one month. He asks to be relieved by an English force. Admiral Hewett, with Captain Speedy and Consul Mason, will start from Massowah this week on the mission to King John of Abyssinia. They will meet the King at Adulis.

Unfounded rumors were prevalent in Cairo on Friday that Khartum had fallen.

A rumor was current in Cairo on Sunday that General Gordon surrendered Khartum some days ago to a sheikh representing El Mahdi, and that three days afterward he and his secretary, Colonel Stewart, were arrested and imprisoned. Later accounts of the sortie on March 16, where the rebels were encountered near Halfaya, say a charge by the enemy's cavalry put Gordon's 3,000 men to flight. Two hundred of them were slaughtered and three guns were lost. Two black Pashas, whose treachery caused this defeat, have been court-martialled and shot.

Advices from Gordon, dated March 23, assert that ample supplies were arriving at Khartum. Two emissaries of El Mahdi had arrived with drawn swords and declared that El Mahdi did not recognize his appointment as Sultan of Kordofan. El Mahdi advises General Gordon to become a Mohammedan. Armed steamers daily engaged the rebels, who lost heavily. Gordon and his friends were daily expecting the arrival of British troops.

A Cairo despatch on Tuesday reported that General Gordon had finally decided to abandon his policy of conciliating the natives, having become convinced by repeated failures that it is utterly useless. His new policy will be more vigorous.

It is asserted in Paris that Earl Granville has asked the Powers to assent to an English protectorate over Egypt for five years, on the basis of the maintenance of the nominal suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey and the observance of the international treaties, England guaranteeing to order Egypt to meet her financial engagements. Austria, Germany, and Russia have assented under certain conditions. France opposes the scheme.

Mr. Gladstone was at his post again in the House of Commons on Monday.

In the House of Lords on Friday night the subject of state-aided emigration to Canada was discussed. Lord Derby said that emigration was increasing at its own natural ratio without any adventitious aid, and he declined to pledge the Government to any measures involving monetary aid.

The putting of the war-sloop *Alert*, recently presented by England to America to participate in the Greely search expedition, in commission on March 25, at London, was becomingly celebrated. Mr. James Russell Lowell, the United States Minister, hoisted the American colors at the *Alert's* peak. Fifty guests lunched on board, among whom were the Earl of Northbrook and Lord Alcester. The *Alert* sailed for this country on Saturday.

Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany, fourth and youngest son of Queen Victoria, died suddenly about 2:30 o'clock on Friday morning, at Cannes, where he had gone for a few days' recreation. On Thursday evening about 6:30 he fell on the steps of a club house there and struck upon his head, but was able to write a despatch to the Duchess, his wife, immediately after. Doctor Royle, who was sleeping in the Duke's room that night, was startled by the patient's heavy breathing. He approached the bedside, saw the Duke was in a fit, and immediately summoned Captain Percival. The crisis was of short duration. In six minutes the Duke expired in the arms of Captain Percival. The cause of his death was epilepsy. Funeral services, attended by the Prince of Wales and forty distinguished persons, were held on Tuesday, and the body was then taken to Cherbourg, on the way to England.

The Duke of Albany was born April 7, 1853. He studied at Oxford, was made a D.C.L. in 1876, received a grant of $75,000 a year on attaining his majority, and $50,000 more on his marriage in 1882 to Helen, daughter of the Prince of Waldeck. They have one child, Princess Alice, born February 25, 1883. The Duke was the most studious of the Queen's children, showed considerable ability as a writer and speaker, was the author of 'Travels in Italy,' 'The Polarization of Light,' and several musical compositions. He has always been delicate.

Queen Victoria was profoundly affected by the news of her son's death. She was visited by the ex-Empress Eugénie, who warmly sympathized with her. On Saturday the Queen and the Princess of Wales went to Claremont to visit the Duchess of Albany. Telegrams of condolence were received from the rulers of Europe and from President Arthur through Minister Lowell. The marriage of the Princess Victoria of Hesse, niece of the Duke of Albany, has been postponed on account of his death.

The raising of a general fund is contemplated to meet the exigencies of the Parnellites. Mr. Parnell expects, under the present franchise, that his party will be able to carry seventy-five seats in Parliament at the next general election. Candidates, he says, will be required to give a pledge that they will sit, act, and vote with the Irish party, or resign. It is necessary, he believes, to provide eligible candidates for Poor Law Guardians. In his opinion £40,000 would be a sufficient fund to cover election expenses and to secure the constant and efficient attendance of the Irish members in Parliament.

Nicholas Trübner, the well-known London publisher, is dead, aged sixty seven.

Prime Minister Ferry spoke on the Madagascar question in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday. He said that it was hoped that the negotiations which had been resumed with the Hovas would result in a treaty. He concluded: "If, however, the pending negotiations fail, we shall spare no effort to reduce the Hovas to submission." The Chamber of Deputies adopted, by a vote of 430 to 32, an order of the day to maintain France's rights in Madagascar and to refer to a special committee the Government's request for a credit.

A scheme for the revision of the French Constitution will be submitted by the Cabinet in May to the Chamber of Deputies.

Of the new French Budget Committee, fourteen members are hostile to the Cabinet, seven support it, and the views of eleven are doubtful.

The French police have discovered a secret dynamite factory at Tulle.

General Millot telegraphed from Tonquin on Monday that, after the capture of Hung-Hoa, the troops would return to France. Auxiliary native regiments will be organized to defend Tonquin.

Prince Bismarck, it is said, will retire from the Prussian ministry and devote his whole time to the affairs of the Empire. Herr Von Puttkamer will succeed him as Premier of the Prussian Cabinet.

The German Reichstag adjourned on Thursday for the Easter vacation. The political parties are preparing for the general election, which will probably turn on the law against the Socialists.

It is asserted that the Pope has notified the Emperor Francis Joseph, of Austria, that he will leave Rome at a more or less early date.

The Spanish Cortez was dissolved on Tuesday, and a new one will assemble on May 20th.

Prof. Elias Loennrot, the distinguished philologist of Finland, is dead.

THE CINCINNATI RIOTS.

THE state of things which has led to the Cincinnati riots is of long standing. For many years the difficulty of procuring the conviction of murderers in Ohio has been increasing, owing to the frequent changes in criminal procedure made by the Legislature in the most haphazard and reckless way, and almost always with the view, or at least with the effect, of multiplying the murderer's chances of escape. The result has been the creation of an amount of legal confusion through which it is impossible for the best judge to steer his way in the conduct of a trial, without leaving the defence plenty of "points" for an appeal and new trial, or for some kind of delay. Delay, of course, however caused, in capital cases always increases the criminal's chance of impunity.

In Hamilton County, which contains the great city of Cincinnati, the evil effects of all this are more apparent than elsewhere. Murderers are very numerous, and the punishment of murderers is rare. In fact, we believe, only one murderer has been hanged since 1866, and this a colored man. There was a disposition at the indignation meeting, out of which the riot grew, to throw the blame of it all on the "criminal lawyers," who were denounced in unmeasured terms. But tricky and unscrupulous criminal lawyers, skilled and successful in saving murderers from the gallows, do not show themselves, or, at all events, do not become a power for evil, if the criminal procedure does not afford a good field for the display of their peculiar talents. There is no use in blaming them, any more than in blaming the flies which settle on a carcass left in the highway. They get criminals off because the state of the law supplies them with plenty of materials to work with.

These remarks may not seem to apply to the case of Berner, which has given rise to all these troubles, because he escaped through the verdict of a stupid or corrupt jury, and not through successful legal chicane. But the popular indignation which broke forth on his escape has been long growing, under the spectacle of impunity enjoyed by crime through the agency we have been describing. The verdict of the Berner jury was simply the last drop in the cup. And it must be remembered, too, that no matter from what class we take jurors, they must be more or less affected by the attitude of the community in which they live towards crime. Nobody who has been long familiar with the spectacle of unpunished murder can, no matter how sound his principles may be, regard murder with the horror which it ought to inspire, and every man must be influenced by this indifference when he comes to sit in judgment on murderers.

In the riots at Cincinnati there is really nothing new or extraordinary. It is an old, old story, that when a body of men begin in a large city to do deeds of violence, no matter how respectable they may be, or how good their motives, they are apt to degenerate into mobs which revel in mere destruction for destruction's sake. These outbreaks of pure savagery in the great centres of civilization are very awful phenomena, but there is no large city in our day in which they may not occur. It is well to know this, and absolutely essential to bear it in mind in framing municipal government. But the popular discontent out of which the riot in Cincinnati grew has one lesson, and a very impressive one. Everything in our political machinery, including judicial procedure, is supposed, in the American theory, to be constantly supervised by the voters. Every officer, high and low, is supposed to carry on his work under the watchful eye of the people, and the people are constantly exhorted to vigilance by the press. But, as a matter of fact, our political and judicial arrangements are all made as if the people had nothing to do but watch their working; as if there were no farmers, or traders, or manufacturers, or doctors, or lawyers, or mechanics in the United States; as if we were all men of leisure like the Athenians, who could sit in the market place all day and talk politics. Our elective offices are made as numerous and the elections as frequent as if every American citizen was a political "worker," with nothing to do but make up lists of candidates and inquire into their fitness, and see, after election, how they came up to the expectations entertained of them. Our criminal procedure is made so complicated that no layman can follow the thread of a trial, or tell, when criminals escape by the score, how it happened or who is to blame. The jury trial is, as every one knows, a system with some serious imperfections, of which the most serious is the juryman's want of intelligence or want of practice in following long and complicated narratives or trains of reasoning. Nevertheless, we allow the continuance in this State and, we believe, in most others, of a rule of law which permits a murderer to exclude from his jury anybody who has read about his crime in the newspapers and formed an opinion about it. In other words, we try to make up his jury out of the dullest, most ignorant men in the community. This abuse has been exposed a thousand times, but no effort is made to correct it. So has the extreme complexity of criminal procedure, with the large number of opportunities it affords to delay or defeat justice by technical objections which have no bearing whatever on the merits of the case; but every Legislature is allowed to tinker it as it pleases so as to make it more complex.

It is to this difficulty which the people have in finding out what is the matter and who is to blame, that we owe the increasing readiness all over the country to resort to violent or extra-legal modes of setting things right. In the government of the great cities the difficulty is greater than elsewhere, because the whole machinery of society is there more rapid in its movements. Crimes are more frequent, courts and officers are more numerous, and everybody has but little time for supervising anybody's business but his own. The action of public opinion in public affairs is consequently but feeble at ordinary times, and wrongs go on till they become intolerable, and there is either a popular "rising" almost amounting to a revolution, as in this city in Tweed's day, or a great lynching movement, as in Cincinnati on Saturday. The moral of it all is that what we need to aim at in all our reforms is simplicity of machinery, so that popular supervision may be intelligent and constant. In other words, our institutions should be adapted, especially in the cities—as they now are not—to the needs of a busy people, and not to those of an idle one; for no matter how much we preach to men about neglect of their political duties, they will persist in regarding government as a contrivance for promoting their happiness, and will refuse to believe that they live in order to carry it on.

THE LOGAN CAMPAIGN.

A RATHER lively contest is in progress in the State of Illinois for delegates to the National Republican Convention between the supporters of General Logan and those of Mr. Blaine. There is apparently a residuum of political force, especially in the city of Chicago, which is opposed to both, but is not settled in favor of any other candidate. This embraces probably the bulk of those whose votes were cast for Mr. Washburne in the last Convention. The Chicago *Tribune* recently admonished this unsatisfied element to desist from their opposition to Logan, in order that the vote of the State might be cast as a unit first for Logan and afterwards for somebody else. It would appear from this that the *Tribune* does not look hopefully forward to General Logan's nomination, but expects him to be a "favorite son," and to have valuable trading capital when the break comes. Latterly there have been some spirited contests between the Logan men and the Blaine men in the rural districts, resulting generally in Logan's favor, but it is not certain that he can count upon the entire vote of the State.

General Logan has stumbled up to very near the head of his class in politics by dint of perseverance, self-confidence, good-fellowship, and active wire-pulling. He entered public life a quarter of a century ago as a follower of Stephen A. Douglas, whom he resembles in many ways. He has all the courage and pugnacity of Douglas, with only a small share of the latter's mental resources, but this deficiency he makes up in part by a better moral endowment. Through all his stumblings since he became a Republican, there can be discerned a desire to be thought well of by the sober-minded and religious portion of the community. Whenever he has been convinced that any course or policy which the "boys" were inclined to follow would bring him into permanent disfavor with this class, he has abandoned it. He is a very keen observer of the drift of public opinion, and he has become by study and practice a much more steady-going sort of person than his first steps in public life gave promise of. He is not a reformer in any sense, yet he is not one of those who sneer at reformers. He believes in the "boss system" because it is an apt instrument for his purposes, but he would prefer to get on by more reputable means if it were practicable to do so. Personally he is a hearty, jovial, and engaging, but not exactly a "magnetic" man. Nature made him a soldier and a politician, but neither nature nor art ever destined him to be a statesman. As a wire-

puller he has no superior, yet he is not a dangerous member of the class. He prefers good methods of government to bad, but he considers his own methods good because his intentions are to promote the public well-being through the elevation of Logan to the Presidency.

In point of education, training, solidity of parts, mental grasp, and the general equipment so desirable in a Presidential candidate, General Logan is so seriously deficient that his nomination would be looked upon in the Eastern States as something altogether *outré*. Nevertheless, regarded as a foil to Blaine, he has merits not to be overlooked, and the contest going on in the State of Illinois for delegates to Chicago thus acquires a sort of national interest. Thus far Logan has had decidedly the best of it, and if he carries the bulk of the delegation, he will have detached from Blaine an important part of his former Western support. It is evident that a large part of the strength which the former has gained comes from those who look upon the latter as a great mischief maker and firebrand. Probably the adhesion of Mr. Bluford Wilson, ex-Solicitor of the Treasury and ex-prosecutor of the Whiskey Ring, to the Logan forces is to be accounted for on these grounds. It is generally believed that Logan is the safer man of the two—that he would not, for instance, endanger the peace of the country by a meddlesome and irritating foreign policy. His "war record" is so good that he is under no necessity of going to war to make it better. His peace record is marred only by such incidents as the "back-pay grab" and the Arrears of Pensions Bill, a too hasty mastery of political economy, and too little mastery of the parts of speech. His errors of grammar have helped to make him a great favorite with the "boys," who like to see a man dash ahead in spite of all obstacles which the mother tongue can put in his way. As a member of the House he was a leader at a time when Thaddeus Stevens, Winter Davis, Garfield, Butler, Schenck, and Blaine were there. His force was much like the exuberant energy of a wild horse. What he lacked in the way of acquirements he made up by explosive earnestness. Few members could command a larger following than Logan when he was in a fit. His translation to the Senate was a damage to him. The Senate is not a good theatre for the display of emotion. It sobered Logan, but it also suppressed him. It brought his defects into relief and gave no scope for his steam-power. He is not qualified to take high rank as a debater, but as a headstrong fighter and neck-or-nothing partisan he has few superiors. Although an adept in the arts of political finesse, there is nothing sinister in him. His patriotism cannot be called in question, but it is largely of the Young America sort, and Young America seems now to be going out of fashion.

In addition to the votes of Illinois, General Logan will probably pick up delegates here and there in places where the soldiers are organized politically. The Grand Army of the Republic is supposed to be devoted to his interests. This is a secret society. It has commanders, and drills, and posts, and encampments, and other fanfaronade. It is an organization whose strength has never been tested. We suspect that it does not amount to much as a political force. We fancy that Johnny O'Brien or John F. Smyth could give it odds in this State and come out winner. Nevertheless, what votes it has to give are properly bestowed on General Logan. He has carried the flag in peace as well as in war. He has got more money out of the Treasury for soldiers and claim agents than all other politicians combined.

THE NEW GERMAN PARLIAMENT.

THE Lasker trouble with Prince Bismarck gives increased interest to the composition of the new Reichstag, to which he refused to transmit the American resolution of sympathy. It is reported to contain 51 out-and-out Conservatives—or old Tories, as they would be called in England—(we have nothing corresponding to them here, having had no middle ages in this country); 24 Imperialists or Liberal Conservatives; 106 of the Centre, mostly Ultramontane; 18 Poles; 44 National Liberals; 106 German Liberals, made up of a coalition of the Secessionists and Progressists; 9 Democrats; 13 Socialists; 15 Alsatians; and 18 "Savages," or free-lances, attached to no group in particular.

The most important of all these groups, and the only really new one, is that which has taken the name of "German Liberals," created by a fusion between the Secessionists and Progressists. The Secessionists were that portion of the old National Liberal party which seceded from it under the lead of Lasker, Bamberger, and Stauffenberg, when it undertook to follow Benningsen in sacrificing its principles and independence by going over to Bismarck's majority. The Progressists have long been the most active and aggressive section of the Liberals, and their leader, Richter, has been one of the most formidable of Bismarck's opponents and critics in debate.

The programme which the new party has published indicates a distinct and probably formidable revival of parliamentary politics in Germany, which so many feared had disappeared for long years when the National Liberal party broke up in the last Reichstag. It calls for the establishment of an effective constitutional régime, guaranteed by Ministerial responsibility and complete parliamentary control. With a view to establishing and maintaining such a régime, the German Liberals will support annual appropriations for the revenue, and not, as Bismarck would wish, triennial or quadrennial; freedom of speech; universal, direct, and secret suffrage; the exemption of members of Parliament from accountability to anybody but the House itself for words spoken in debate; liberty of the press, of meeting, of association, and of conscience; and the subjection of all religious corporations to the common law. They also will oppose Bismarck's state socialistic schemes, and labor for economic and social reforms through individual initiative, and they ask for a reduction in the term of military service, and for complete parliamentary control of the peace footing of the army.

The new party is supposed to muster about 110 votes, and will be led by Richter, perhaps now the ablest German debater. It is still far from having a majority; for this about 193 votes would be necessary. But it is tolerably certain of recruits from the Democrats, Socialists, and Alsatians, from all of whom it differs mainly in professing loyalty to the Emperor and to the existing form of government. In the meantime, it is much stronger than any other group or section, and will hold the balance of power in any difference between the Ministry and any other. The official and conservative view of the coalition is that both of the elements which compose it were distinctly hostile to the reigning dynasty before it took place, and are so still, and that their present professions of loyalty are simply a hypocritical concession to the well-known monarchical feeling of the great body of the people. The principal change they propose would involve, it is said, the suppression of the Federal Council, and their clamor for liberty of the press and of meeting is, in view of the fact that this exists already, the merest cant. That the party will accomplish much, either in bringing about legislation or in changing administrative customs in Bismarck's lifetime, is not likely. He could no more adapt himself to real parliamentary institutions than the late Emperor Nicholas, who confessed frankly that any change in his system of government would kill him. There is no power in the state capable of compelling him to submit to anything of the kind, or of driving him permanently from office. The existing régime will, doubtless, therefore last his time; and it is all the more likely to do so because everybody knows it will not survive him. Nobody but him could keep it going, and he could hardly do it if he had not a sovereign in full accord with him.

The function of the new party during his life-time will, therefore, be mainly the preparation of public opinion for maintenance of real parliamentary government after his death, and in doing such work it is no small assistance to an opposition to have a minister as powerful and as imperious as he is, to be resisted and criticised. The present political régime in Germany has been often compared to that which existed in England under the Tudors and the first two Stuarts. But the value to Englishmen of the Tudor and Stuart resistance to parliamentary government, in clarifying their political ideas, provoking discussion, and teaching them the power of patience and self-restraint, was simply incalculable. In the same way there can be little doubt that parliamentary institutions in Germany are finding in their chief antagonist their greatest helper.

THE OPPOSITION TO THE PARLIAMENTARY FRANCHISE BILL.

LONDON, March 20.

ALTHOUGH, during the three weeks that have passed since the new Franchise Bill was brought in, public attention has been chiefly fixed on the Red Sea coast, and but little has been said about the bill, there can be no doubt that the debates on it will be the chief pitched battle of the session. Notice has been given of several amendments to the second reading, the most important of which, as coming from a leader of the Opposition, is that of Lord John Manners. He asks the House of Commons to "decline to proceed with a bill adding two million persons to

the electors of the United Kingdom, until it has before it the whole scheme of the Government for the amendment of the representation of the people." This is an assertion of the view which the Opposition have frequently hinted at, that the question of extending the franchise cannot be separated from that of the redistribution of seats. The Tory party cannot directly resist the extension of the suffrage in counties, because they are the county party, and do not like to seem distrustful of their own laborers, and because it was they who so largely extended the borough franchise in 1867. But they have grave misgivings as to the effect of the measure, and would gladly see it shelved. This movement on the flank is therefore more convenient than an attack in front would be, and they hope to receive the support of a certain number of cautious Liberals who entertain similar misgivings. The nature of these misgivings, so far as they affect England, I will now consider.

The two million persons whom the bill proposes to invest with the Parliamentary franchise fall into two classes—firstly, workingmen engaged in manufacturing or mining in the industrial counties, together with those workingmen who are substantially townspeople, but live outside the Parliamentary boundaries of London and a few others of the largest towns; and, secondly, agricultural laborers in the rural districts. The first class are substantially the same as the town workingmen who have enjoyed the franchise since 1867. As these have acquitted themselves creditably, returning members no worse than the old £10 householders used to return, it is hard to say why they should not be admitted to the franchise. So far as they differ, they differ a little for the better, for they are not thrown together in such vast masses, and mostly live under slightly more favorable conditions of decency and comfort. The agricultural laborers are almost an unknown quantity. Nobody can tell whether they will think and vote for themselves, or merely follow the lead of the landowners and farmers who employ them. Probably they will follow in most cases; but here and there, where trades unions have accustomed them to joint action and given them a taste of independence, they may assert themselves. There are already some few places where they do vote—places which are called boroughs, but are really agricultural districts; and in these places they vote with as much sense and self-reliance as the factory hands or the small shopkeepers. As a class, they are no doubt ignorant, despite the improvements in popular education of the last thirteen years; and they have but little knowledge of public affairs, meeting one another and talking about things less than townspeople do, and reading newspapers much less. If one were in the mood for discussing seriously whether they are fully fitted for such a function as the Parliamentary franchise, there might be much to say against their claims. But this is not the mood of either political party at the present moment. The idea has gone about that they must have the franchise, and no one who should argue against it would be listened to.

What, then, is the source of the misgivings referred to? It is this: The addition of these 2,000,000 of new voters will place the county seats in the hands of the working class, the class which has admittedly the least education and the smallest stake in the country. The borough seats are already in the hands of this class. Therefore, it is argued, you are now putting the whole Constitution at the mercy of one class. Supreme in the towns, they will now be supreme in the rural districts also. Hitherto the restricted county franchise has enabled rank and wealth to hold their own, because county members have usually been the leading representatives of the land-owning class. Now, however, there is no security that such a state of things will continue. If any question arises which unites the whole working classes of the kingdom, a question in which the interests of the poor are opposed to those of the rich, the poor will command all the constituencies alike, and be able to overbear the upper classes altogether. It is, moreover, a danger in a country like ours, where the House of Commons is omnipotent, being unrestrained by any written constitution, that a temporary impulse should be too strong, and should put one party or the other in a majority so large as to carry it quickly over all obstacles. Hitherto the dissimilarity of different constituencies, and the fact that in the rural ones the influences of property predominated, have kept up a sort of balance between parties. Now, however, when the county elections are to be decided by large numbers of poor voters belonging to the same class as those who control the towns, what is to prevent all the constituencies from being swept away at once by the same storm of feeling? The defeated party will be left in a minority so small as to be practically powerless.

Those who argue thus do not suggest that the county franchise ought not to be extended. That contention has been dropped, because it is supposed, or admitted, that the artificial distinction between county voters and town voters cannot be maintained. What they demand is that some precautions should be taken, in the redistribution of seats which must follow the extension of the franchise, against this evil of overwhelming majorities. Suppose, they say, a general election held when some question is exciting the working classes. Under the new system a majority is obtained by one party in three-fourths of the constituencies. In many of these constituencies the majority may be a small one. Perhaps it is so small that you have, out of 4,000,000 of persons voting, 2,200,000 on one side and 1,800,000 on the other. The majority of voters is only 400,000. Yet the majority obtained by the victorious party in the House of Commons is three to one, and the wretched minority is obliged to submit to whatever the majority, so large that it can refuse even to listen, may dictate. These are dangers to which every representative system is open. They have been kept off in England hitherto by the varied character of our constituencies, in which there have been small boroughs as well as big ones, and county seats which the territorial magnate could and did call his own. But if you cut the county up into what are practically equal electoral districts, all showing a large predominance of working-class voters, you expose us to them in the most serious form.

The Tory party naturally believes itself specially exposed to such dangers, because its strongholds have been in the counties and the small boroughs. It is therefore very sensitive on the subject of redistribution. No doubt most of the seats taken away from the small boroughs will have to go to the counties, because the latter will receive a vast access of voters. But these new county voters may not, it is surmised, prove as loyal to the territorial aristocracy as the present voters, who are largely farmers and shopkeepers, have done. Hence the anxiety to know what scheme of redistribution the Government will propose. If it should prove a sweeping one, there will be all the more reason for endeavoring, by postponing the Franchise Bill, to postpone redistribution also. Now, the fears of the Tory aristocracy are, as usually happens, shared by the Whig aristocracy. They extend, also, to a section of the Liberal party which is composed partly of rich men who dislike all change, partly of doctrinaire politicians who live in the fear of what they call the "tyranny of the majority." These groups are casting about for some means of preventing the extension of the franchise from too completely democratizing the country. A society has been formed, called the Proportional Representation Society, which has been joined by about one hundred Tory and eighty Liberal members of the House, in the hope of discovering a scheme whereby the strength of a political party in Parliament shall represent, not the number of constituencies in which it has triumphed, but the total number of its adherents in the country; or, in other words, whereby a minority which has been defeated in a great many localities, but is in the aggregate considerable, because defeated in those localities by few votes, shall have a number of members in Parliament proportioned to the total vote it cast in the country. No satisfactory scheme for this purpose has yet been worked out; for the method now applied to some large towns and a few counties, of allowing the voter to vote for fewer candidates than there are seats to be filled—say for two persons when there are three seats vacant—has not won public favor by our fifteen years' experience of it. It does not seem probable that these Liberal proportionalists will go so far as to vote against the Government. They may confine themselves to trying to extort concessions from it, while seeking to persuade the country by their speeches. But the question of redistribution so much dwarfs in men's minds the question of the franchise, on which they have primarily to vote, that the coming debates are likely to turn mainly upon it. Meanwhile the Government is weakened by other causes, and the Opposition thereby emboldened to lay a foundation, by vigorous efforts against the Franchise Bill in the Commons, for its rejection by the House of Lords. Y.

FLAUBERT'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH MME. SAND.

PARIS, March 13, 1884.

IT was, I believe, Mr. Henry James who once called our modern school of novelists the grandsons of Balzac. There is much truth in the expression. The great unit has been divided into many fractions. Flaubert, Daudet, Zola, may all be called grandsons of Balzac: if he had not existed, one feels that they would not have existed. They all investigate the world which, in some senses, he has opened for them; they are all incomplete and fragmentary, essentially one-sided, while Balzac is "ondoyant et divers," as Montaigne said—capable of any sort of adaptation, full of sympathy for all the manifestations of human activity. Has it never struck you that, while the grandsons of Balzac chiefly devote themselves to the analysis of evil passions, Balzac alone has understood that virtue also can be born and develop itself with all the character of a passion; that it lives not only at the dictation of duty and of religion, but can be the fruit of instinct, and follow its blind course toward the sublimity of sacrifice? The successors of Balzac can show us the slaves of vice, such as Mme. Bovary, or Nana, or the Kings in Exile; Balzac can show us conjugal love, maternal love, friendship, self-sacrifice in a dramatic form, as passions, as instinctive forces. In his 'Cousin Pons,' in the 'Parents Pauvres,' in so many other wonderful works, if some are, so to speak, chosen for evil, some also are chosen for good, and the dramatic effect is produced by the natural play of opposite passions, equally strong, equally irresistible. When we read the modern novels, we are constantly struck by the absence of the virtu-

ous element, considered as antagonistic to vice; its absence produces a sensation of monotony which amounts to dulness. The naturalistic school is not in reality true to nature: it paints the dirty pavement; it forgets that there is a sky above. The contrasts of Balzac are unconscious; they are not prepared by any literary or philosophical theory; they are the contrasts of life itself, which is never one-sided and has no sameness.

Gustave Flaubert was one of the grandsons of Balzac. He was born on the 12th of December, 1821, at Rouen. His father was an honest and successful doctor, and was director of the Hôtel-Dieu of that town. His mother was the daughter of a country doctor. Nothing in the atmosphere of Normandy, or in his domestic life, prepared him for literature; he was, however, prevented from choosing any active career by an infirmity which, curiously enough, remained unknown till very recently. M. Maxime DuCamp, one of Flaubert's friends, has revealed to the public, in his Literary Notes, that Flaubert was subject at times to epileptic fits. Living, as he did in his youth, in fear of an attack of his malady, he filled his hours of leisure with literary work. His début was his great triumph: it was 'Madame Bovary.' The novel appeared in numbers in a review called the *Revue de Paris*, which was one of the numerous short-lived and unsuccessful rivals of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. This *Revue de Paris* had for its editor M. Laurent Pichat, and Maxime DuCamp was one of its influential writers. M. Guy de Maupassant, who belongs to the more modern naturalist school, has lately told the secret history of 'Madame Bovary.' He has published a letter, in which M. Maxime DuCamp told his friend Flaubert that he must submit his novel to mutilation. "You make your début by a work *embrouillée*, in which the style is not enough to produce interest. Be brave, shut your eyes during the operation, and believe, if not in our talent, at least in our experience in this sort of thing, and in our affection for you." The work was to be done "by a practised and clever person." It was necessary, according to Maxime DuCamp, to cut out all the scene of the wedding, to suppress, or at least to abridge considerably, the scene of the "comices." Flaubert, when he received the letter of DuCamp, wrote on the back "Gigantic!" And all the public, which has been taught that 'Madame Bovary' is a *chef d'œuvre*, is ready to endorse this sentiment, and to say in turn "Gigantic."

The press has been very hard on M. DuCamp; I confess that I feel more discontented with him for his revelation of the hidden infirmity of his friend Flaubert than for his confidential literary advice. The naturalists have invented a new religion; must we admire everything in their work? Will it be a crime of "lèse-majesté" to suggest the slightest change in a manuscript of Monsieur de Goncourt, or even of Zola? I can hardly believe so. I think that some changes of 'Nana,' some mutilations made with a very bold and unmerciful hand, might have been very useful to the author. They might have left a powerful work, an awful lesson, which any man or any woman of a certain age might have read; while, as it is, 'Nana' is a book that cannot be mentioned or discussed in any decent society: a work which must be kept under lock and key, and which belongs to the "enfer" of any library.

I remember the impression which 'Madame Bovary' made on me at the moment of its appearance. It was not pleasant; it gave me a painful sensation. I was almost ashamed of feeling interested in it; still, I was interested. I admired the clear, cool exactness of the description of Norman scenery, the analysis of mean, prosaic, humble vice; but I could feel no interest in Mme. Bovary, though she struggled against the provincial stupidity. She seemed to me as vulgar as the people who surrounded her; her conception of love, of happiness, was mean. "Still," M. Guy de Maupassant tells us, and it is partly true, "the apparition of 'Madame Bovary' was a revolution in our letters."

Flaubert was a discontented mind, without any degree of creative genius or imagination. His horizon of thought was immense, it was boundless; but he had not the faculty of condensing his ideas. We may be sure that Mme. Bovary once existed: Flaubert did not create her, he copied her with the exactness of a photographer. All his other works are a complete failure. 'Salammbô' is no longer read: it is a futile epic attempt, a series of long descriptions, which pretend to be what they cannot be, minutely exact. His philosophical work, the 'Éducation Sentimentale,' is unreadable; his 'Bouvard et Pécuchet' was a fatiguing encycl pædia "de omne re scibili." The curious notes given by M. de Maupassant concerning the numerous works on which the mind of Flaubert was engaged, show a sort of unbounded and sterile ambition; but we find nowhere in them the trace of a type, the lineaments of life. The mind of this father of naturalism was always lost in abstractions; he had a great respect for art, and respected nothing but art, but he was not an artist. He had, I repeat, no creative power. 'Madame Bovary' is the only work of his which survives, and there is no invention in it. Flaubert had too much intelligence not to understand the great defect of his own nature; he was discontented with himself, he felt his own sterility, he kept amassing materials for books which he could not write. He consoled himself with the spectacle of the imbecility of mankind, and delighted in the endless manifestations of this stupidity. He was kind, adored by his personal friends, but he lived too much out of the world. The applause of his *familiers* was too loud, and deceived him. He belonged to a little school of mutual admiration, which professed to ignore the great affairs of the world, and despised politics. He lived much alone, and spent the greater part of his life on his little estate of Croisset, near Rouen. He saw the ships going up and down the river, the spires of the old capital of Normandy, the banks of the Seine.

M. de Maupassant, who belonged to Flaubert's *cénacle*, publishes his letters to Mme. Sand, and these letters deserve to be read. Flaubert shows more of himself in them than in his last compendious works. The correspondence begins in 1866 and continues till 1876. It is extremely free in its tone; it is clear that Flaubert spoke to Mme. Sand as he would have done to himself. He liked her as if she had been a man, and treated her as such. His devotion to her was absolute: she became, so to speak, his confessor. He did not take an attitude before her, he showed his own self. The letters, on account of this extreme sincerity, are very interesting. They are very painful also. Flaubert had a sort of nervous sensibility which was hardly to be expected in such a strong-built, gigantic man; he cried easily, he had fits of despondency and of melancholy, which became more and more prolonged. He had conceived for his own time, for the higher as well as for the lower classes of French society, a sort of insurmountable antipathy which at times became repulsion and horror. The political ideal of our time was a mere absurdity in his eyes, and he was confirmed in his contempt by the events of the last years of the Empire, by the commotion of 1870, by the Paris Commune.

"I believe," he writes in 1871, "that we shall appear extremely absurd to posterity. The words republic, monarchy, will make posterity laugh, just as we laugh at the words realism and nominalism. . . . A modern republic and a constitutional monarchy are identical. . . . As for the good people, 'gratuitous and obligatory' instruction will be the end of it. When everybody is able to read the *Petit Journal* and the *Figaro*, everybody will read no more, since now the bourgeois, the wealthy gentlemen read nothing else. The press is a school of stupefaction, since it dispenses people from thinking. . . . As for universal suffrage, it is the curse of mankind: as it is constituted, one element predominates to the detriment of all the others. Numbers triumph over mind, instruction, race, and even money; money is better than number."

He often recurs to this subject. The greatest need, in his eyes, is not the instruction of the poor, it is the instruction of the rich, and of the bourgeois, "who know nothing, absolutely nothing." Is it worth while to raise the unfortunate workingman, the innocent peasant, to the level of idiocy of the bourgeois, of Prudhomme? "The three degrees of instruction," he says after the war of 1870, "have testified of themselves in one year: (1) Superior instruction has given victory to Germany. (2) Secondary, middle-class instruction has given us the men of the 4th of September. (3) Primary education has given us the Commune. The Commune had for its Minister of Public Instruction the great Vallès, who professed to despise Homer. . . . In three years all Frenchmen will be able to read. Shall we be more advanced? Imagine, on the contrary, that in each village there was a man well versed in finance and political economy, and that this one man was respected; things would change." With such ideas, it is not to be wondered at if Flaubert was fond of Renan; his mind, like Renan's, was aristocratic. He believed in no political creed, in no vague declaration of rights; he believed in science. "Philosophy," he says, "will always be the privilege of aristocrats. In vain do you feed the human cattle, and give hay to its belly, and gild its stable: it will always be brutish." He thinks at times that politics is a thing of the past: "In the eighteenth century the capital affair was diplomacy. The 'secret of the Cabinets' did really exist. This order of things seems to have said its last word in 1815. Since then we have done little else but dispute on the exterior form which must be given to the fantastic and odious being called the State." In his horror of parliamentary government, Flaubert spoke sometimes with envy of the government of the mandarins; and, curiously enough, you will find somewhere in Renan a defence of this same government, which, he says, has kept China from falling to pieces for four thousand years.

Universal suffrage seemed to Flaubert even more stupid than divine right. "The people is an eternal minor, and will always be so, since, in the hierarchy of social elements, it represents numbers, the unlimited. What is it to me that many peasants should know how to read, and should listen no longer to their curé? It is of infinite importance to me that many men like Renan and Littré should live and be listened to. Our salvation can only be in a legitimate aristocracy." The war of 1870 was a terrible blow to Flaubert: it disturbed not only his life but his mind. The Prussians occupied his little house at Croisset; he kept repeating in his letters: "Je meurs de chagrin." The Commune did not surprise him, it justified his worst fears and his misanthropy. "I am not," he says, "like the bourgeois; after the invasion, I find that there is no further misfortune. The war with Prussia made on me the effect of a great disturbance of nature; the insurrection of Paris is, in my eyes, a very clear and almost simple thing."

Paris had always seemed to him to be mad. "All in it was false—false realism, false army, false credit, and even false *catins*. They called themselves marchionesses, and the great ladies called themselves familiarly 'cochonnettes.' The prostitutes who remained in the tradition of Sophie Arnould, like Lagier, seemed horrible. But you have seen the respects of —— for the Païva. And this falseness extended to every judgment. An actress was vaunted, not as an actress, but as the mother of a family. People would have it that art should be moral, philosophy clear, vice decent, and science popular." This passage would probably have delighted Carlyle.

The last years of Flaubert were filled with physical sufferings, an invincible melancholy—what he calls the sentiment of the universal uselessness of things—perpetual and almost painful doubts as to his own work, as to the books which he wrote, and which bear the mark of a morbid state of mind. The letters to Mme. Sand explain Flaubert much better than he has ever been explained before by his admirers. He was capable of greater things than would appear from his works. There was in him a certain want of proportion, of weight; he had no measure. He was extreme in his dislikes as well as in his affections; his sincerity was always placed like a screen between himself and the world. On the whole, he had not much in common with the present school of realists and naturalists. As the author of 'Madame Bovary' he may be called the father of naturalism; but he was also the last of the Romantics.

Correspondence.

"MARGERY'S LOVERS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I agree with you that the dispute about the originality of "Margery's Lovers" is "curious"; and as you have given a summary of the case as it is known in England, I beg that you will kindly print the letter which I have addressed to Mr. Moy Thomas, of the London *Daily News*, with such comment as the letter and the appended correspondence may seem to you to demand.—Yours truly,

Brander Matthews.

121 East Eighteenth St., N. Y., March 27, 1884.

"Moy Thomas, Esq., *Daily News*, London, Eng.

"Dear Sir: When the critics do agree about the stage, their unanimity is wonderful, as I have occasion to know, in spite of the three thousand miles I thoughtfully put between us several months before 'Margery's Lovers' was produced. When the merit of my play is discussed, I am willing to sit 'all silent and all damned'; but when its originality is questioned, I ask a hearing. A despatch in the New York papers of February 26th first told me that I was accused of 'gross literary theft,' in that my play, 'Margery's Lovers,' was a copy of the MS. of 'Hearts,' a play by Mr. H. P. Stephens. I had, perforce, to await the details of the accusation before I could meet them specifically; but I published a formal denial at once. A second despatch in the papers of March 2d gave you as a possible arbitrator, and I telegraphed you immediately: 'Deny Stephens's charge plagiarism emphatically. Shall prove "Margery's Lovers" written '78.'

"To-day I have received the paper containing Mr. Stephens's correspondence with Mr. Cecil, Mr. Clayton, and Mr. B. C. Stephenson; and I write now to deny Mr. Stephens's accusation absolutely and emphatically. I have never seen Mr. Stephens's play; I know nothing about it; I never heard of it before, and I was quite unaware of its existence. If a denial can be framed more sweeping than this, I am ready to subscribe to it.

"'Margery's Lovers' is an entirely original play—except in so far as it may be indebted to the Grog Davis, of Lever's 'Davenport Dunn,' for a few stray hints of the character of Margery's father, and except also that the device of the marked cards was suggested to me by a chance newspaper paragraph. This indebtedness once confessed, my play is wholly my own. It is original in its construction, its situations, its characters, and its dialogue. It was written in the last months of 1878. Since then it has not been altered by me, except by condensation and cutting. In January, 1879, it was read by Mr. Lester Wallack, and later in the year by Mr. A. M. Palmer and Mr. Augustin Daly. Mr. Wallack is in Florida and Mr. Palmer is in Europe; I append a letter from Mr. Daly, and another from Mr. H. C. Bunner.

"It seems to me that this shifts the burden of proof upon Mr. Stephens's shoulders. I should like to know when his play was written? If his play in any way resembles mine, I should like him to explain the similarity. He declares that there is only one MS. of 'Hearts'; unfortunately there are several MSS. of 'Margery's Lovers'—and one of these was lost, strayed, or stolen, in England, late in the summer of 1881. I append a note from Mr. Charles Coghlan, showing that he read my play in June, 1881, that he sent it to Mr. Edgar Bruce in August, 1881, and that neither he nor I have ever seen that MS. since.

"It is needless to dwell on the difficulty of meeting an outrageous accusation like this when I am three thousand miles away, and when four weeks must elapse between the charge and the answer. I expect to be in London in June, but I hope to receive before then an apology from Mr. Stephens, and a formal withdrawal of his wanton accusation. Until I do receive these, I shall not rest satisfied.—Your obedient servant,

"Brander Matthews.

"New York, March 7, 1884."

THE COLONIZATION OF THE CONGO VALLEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is to be hoped that no other civilized nation will follow the example of Great Britain in recognizing the claims of Portugal to any portion of the Congo Valley. I can imagine no greater misfortune for that fertile region than to become a Portuguese colony. It had better, almost, remain unexplored and unopened forever. Having had the bad luck to reside for some time in a Portuguese colony, I speak from experience, and I say without hesitation that the very worst system emanating from any European government (excluding Turkey) is the Portuguese colonial system.

The Island of Madeira is one of the loveliest and most fertile spots in the world. The prodigality of Nature seems to have been exhaustless in showering upon that lovely isle every treasure of climate, scenery, and produce-bearing soil. Day after day, from January to December, the sun shines there in all his splendor, tempered to a grateful warmth by the cooling breezes of the surrounding Atlantic. Almost to the height of Mt. Washington towers the grand Pico Ruivo, from whose base sweeps away many a forest-clad valley and tinkling cascade. Roses and geraniums, heliotropes and violets, grow in wild profusion along the roadsides. Grapes and coffee, sugar and nectarines, oranges and wheat, strawberries and custard-apples are but a tithe of the products which this goodly land offers to the most careless cultivator. Surely this was meant for the garden of the world! Here indeed should we find the "arva, arva beata!"

For more than 450 years this island has been a Portuguese colony. To-day, its inhabitants are among the poorest, the most ignorant, and the most profoundly wretched in the world. Aye, the most profoundly wretched! for they live without hope. They know that so long as Portugal remains a power in Europe their lot can never be bettered. It could not be made worse. The treatment of Madeira by Portugal is a specimen of how the Congo colony would fare should it ever come under the rule of that rotten oligarchy at Lisbon.

Let us see what Portugal does for one of her oldest colonies—the one which should be the brightest jewel in her crown. I think I may safely say she does nothing but rob her. The Civil Governor of Madeira is appointed from Lisbon; so is the Military Governor; so is the director of the Custom-house. And what these three officials cannot squeeze out of the island is not worth squeezing. The squeezing is principally done by means of that extortionate engine with which, alas! we are only too familiar in the States—a custom-house, and the usual attachment of weighers, gaugers, inspectors, laborers, appraisers, deputy-collectors, examiners, chief collector, and percentage to the bosses. I was about to say the Portuguese tariff was worse than ours; but that would be impossible. It is very similar to it. It is so constructed that the rich man pays comparatively nothing for his luxuries, while the poor man pays enormously for all the common necessaries of life. It is estimated that by means of the Custom-house and other methods there was taken from Madeira, in 1882, more than $200,000, after paying the expenses of administering the island—and this from a population of 130,000.

What the American laborer considers the necessaries of life, and what he is well enough off to get in spite of the tariff—these the Madeira laborer simply does without. His wages (a day-laborer) are 33 cents a day. His clothes—the meanest and cheapest cotton stuff, of which the tariff shuts out all but that manufactured in Portugal—are generally rags, and often little more than *nil*. His house is a hovel unfit for a dog. He has absolutely no furniture. His wife works in the fields, and before she is thirty is an old woman, worn out with manual labor and insufficient nourishment. His children are stunted, wretched, and diseased. The Government prevents him from emigrating when a young man by demanding six years' army service, or a $300 bond for his return. He probably never had 300 cents at one time in his life. His diet is corn meal and sweet potatoes, varied with a morsel of fish, upon which, by the way, the Government levies a heavy tax. Last year the destitution in Madeira was so great that the authorities, to save the people from actual starvation, were obliged to remit for a few months the import duty on corn, whereupon the price fell at once 40 per cent. But it was of little use. The people used to tell me they had no money to buy it, even when free of duty.

Madeira is most advantageously situated for coaling steamers from Europe to West African ports, the Cape of Good Hope, and South America. The harbor, however, needs a breakwater to render it safe from southerly winds which blow with much violence in the winter time. The Government will do nothing toward building the breakwater, but does its best to drive away shipping by heavy tonnage dues and fees.

This, sir, is a true picture of a Portuguese colony after more than four hundred and fifty years of "government." There is no reason to believe the Portuguese would do better on the Congo. The colonies they already have on the west coast are said to be disgracefully misgoverned. Supposing them to have "police boats" (I think that is the word) and a Custom-house at the mouth of the Congo, how much American commerce would find its way up there? I am no admirer of this Administration, yet I cannot but commend to our merchants the position President Arthur took upon the Congo question in his message. If we intend to maintain that position, we must have a navy, the money for which is, unfortunately, little likely to be forthcoming in the present position of parties in this year, when we are cursed with a Presidential election.

L. Du Pont Syle,

Late United States Consul in Madeira.

1614 Summer Street,
Philadelphia, March 29.

PROFESSOR ZELLER ON CLASSICAL DISCIPLINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Votaries of the college fetish, if there still are any among the readers of the *Nation*, will find some comfort for their superstition in an article by Professor Zeller in the March number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*. The essay is entitled: "Ueber die Bedeutung der Sprache und des Sprachunterrichts für das geistige Leben." After remarking upon the close connection between language and thought, and deducing from this the peculiar disciplinary value of linguistic study, the essayist comes to a matter which is just now disturbing the German no less than the American mind—the question, namely, of the absolute and the relative educational worth of the Latin and Greek languages. Zeller evidently has faith in the traditional education, and he scores his first point against an "eminent man of science" who had described that education as still occupying the "mediæval standpoint." (And, by the way, have not we too heard something of "mediævalism" in education?) The Berlin philosopher's comment upon this is, that during the Middle Ages there was no classical philology. Classical studies were born of humanism, which was a reaction *against* mediævalism; and it was precisely these studies which gave the "mortal thrust" to the mediæval type of culture.

The essay then considers the idea of substituting German and French for Greek and Latin in the higher education, and finds the proposed substitution not advisable: because, first, if any living languages are to do the educational work that has historically been done by the Latin and Greek, then modern language and literature must be studied with the same thoroughness that has long been brought to bear upon the ancient. But, our history being what it is, real thoroughness in modern philology will be forever impossible without some knowledge of Greek and Latin.

Secondly—and here Zeller finds the really decisive ground for the superior educational value of the ancient languages—the classics actually do more than living languages ever can do for mental culture. The boy who is learning Greek or Latin never has any definite goal of perfection in his imagination. He does not think of any end to his arduous journey. So he is content to be accurate and scholarly with regard to the day's pensum. Thoroughness concerning the matter in hand becomes his ideal, since his mind is not distracted by doubts as to whether this or that point is not after all unimportant in relation to some ulterior aim. In the study of a living language, on the other hand, the pupil usually has before his mind a somewhat definite ideal of perfection—namely, to speak or to read (often with a particular purpose in view) the language he is studying. He learns to make scholarship subordinate to this practical end. His ideal is not to be thorough, but to get along; and since he is not concerned to understand, but only to be able to imitate any linguistic usage, he is likely to miss that severe logical gymnastic which is offered by the study of the classics.

Is not Professor Zeller's argument in the main sound? The hardest task in teaching is to break the conceit and the mental flippancy which come of a little knowledge or of a preconceived notion that the thing to be learned is "easy." This notion prevails and must continue to prevail in regard to the German and French languages. There are always persons in the community who "speak" these languages; there are other persons who are ready to impart a handsome knowledge of them in little or no time. There is, in short, a preconception, impossible to get rid of, that German and French are light accomplishments, not to be made much of in the acquisition. No such preconception exists in regard to the classics, which have for ages been looked on as a treasure difficult of access. It seems to me probable that if we were to venture upon the general experiment of trying to make German and French do the work of Greek and Latin, there would result in the course of a few generations a distinct weakening of mental grip in the most highly educated class. The only question is, whether such a disaster would be counterbalanced by compensating advantages. Zeller thinks it would not, and that is also the opinion of

Yours respectfully,
Teacher of German.

Ann Arbor, March 22, 1884.

Notes.

A. C. Armstrong & Son announce for early publication a 'Complete System of Theology,' by the late Dr. Henry B. Smith, edited by Professor Karr, of the Hartford Theological Seminary, a former pupil of that eminent scholar.

A volume of lectures by Dr. R. S. Storrs, on 'The Divine Origin of Christianity, as Indicated by its Historical Effects,' is in the press of A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

T. Whittaker will publish in one volume a new and cheaper edition of Lacordaire's 'Conferences,' and the 'Prophecies of Isaiah,' by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne.

Ginn, Heath & Co. have in press a 'First Book in Geology,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler, of Harvard; a 'Hebrew Lessons: a Grammar and Reader for Beginners,' by H. G. Mitchell, Ph.D., of Boston University; a 'Handbook of Latin Writing,' by Henry Preble and Charles P. Parker; a 'Vocabulary to Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War,' by J. B. Greenough; a 'Method of English Composition,' by Prof. T. Whiting Bancroft, of Brown University; 'Essentials of Spanish Grammar,' by Prof. W. I. Knapp, of Yale, and 'Practical Method for Learning Spanish,' by Gen. A. Ybarra; the following volumes, additional to the "Pedagogical Library": (II.) 'Methods of Teaching Ancient Languages and Literature,' (III.) 'Methods of Teaching Natural Science,' (IV.) 'Methods of Teaching Reading, English Literature, and Language'; the following, additional to the "Library of Anglo-Saxon Poetry": 'The Riddles of Cynewulf and the Battle of Maldon'; and Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' annotated, in the series of "Classics for Children."

'Sappho,' Alphonse Daudet's new novel; 'The Clew of the Maze: Modern Scepticism and How to Meet It,' by the Rev. C. H. Spurgeon; and the 'Memoirs of David Brainerd,' edited by the Rev. J. M. Sherwood, are on the list of Funk & Wagnalls.

Mr. S. R. Koehler's valuable 'United States Art Directory and Year-Book' is, we are glad to hear, about to appear again, and with many improvements. A novel feature will be a large number of illustrations, most of them full-page. Cassell & Co. will be, as heretofore, the publishers.

The Women's Christian Temperance Union is undertaking the preparation of "scientific temperance" text-books, for use in schools where the study of physiology and hygiene prevails or (as in Vermont, New Hampshire, New York, and Michigan) is made obligatory.

An English translation of Cornelis Vosmaer's 'Amazone,' from the third Dutch edition, will be published by T. Fisher Unwin, London, with the frontispiece designed by Mr. Alma-Tadema.

Captain Marryat is perhaps to have a new run in this country. The Harpers have added 'The Pirate, and Three Cutters' to their Franklin Square Library.

Outing for April contains an illustrated article by "Karl Kron," concerning a recent bicycle trip in Nova Scotia, in which this indefatigable rider (and chronicler) added several hundred miles more to his already long tally. In fact, he is now prepared to receive subscriptions (in addition to the 1,000 secured without public announcement) for a work, 'Ten Thousand Miles on a Bicycle,' to be published in August. Much of the contents will consist of the writer's contributions to "wheeling" and other periodicals during past years, but much also will be new, and the whole will have the merit of being a practical route-book for the wheelman. To this end it will be elaborately indexed—not only for places, but for objects of curiosity. The information as to transportation, etc., will be of the same useful nature; and by a wide distribution of the book it is hoped to make it so accessible that it need not be literally a *vade-mecum*. The price of this unique publication will be $1.00. Mr. Kron's address is University Building, Washington Square, N. Y. City.

Jules Moinaux's 'Les Deux Sourds' forms No. 9 of W. R. Jenkins's 'Théâtre Contemporain.'

'The Hygeian Home Cook Book,' by R. T. Trall, M.D., and 'Health in the Household,' by Susanna W. Dodds, M.D. (Fowler & Wells), will interest not alone those who subscribe to the special theories propounded in them. The sound of body as well as the invalid ought to know how many palatable dishes can be provided without meat, sugar, spices, or salt, and without the accompaniment of either tea or coffee. Marion Harland does not expect her little book, 'Cookery for Beginners' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.), to do away with personal instruction. Indeed, she frequently counsels seeking help from "an experienced friend." Her advice is good for much beyond meats and breads. What dreadful things the world would have been spared in ceramics and crewels if young-ladyhood generally had understood her maxim, "Never undertake cake unless you are willing to give to the business the amount of time and labor needed to make it *well*." 'Household Conveniences' (Orange Judd Company) contains a great number of devices for simplifying the work of a family, or for making the home more comfortable and more attractive. The book is sure to be useful, and it will be most welcome where there is more time and more power of contrivance than money.

The seventh volume of the revised edition of Mr. Gardiner's history has just been received, its issue having been somewhat delayed. It embraces the important period from the Petition of Rights to the first issue of writs for Ship-money (1629–1635); that is, the period during which the King's scheme of personal government was set on foot. The hero of these years is Eliot, for the closing of his Parliamentary career, his imprisonment, and his death are here narrated. Laud, too, now looms into prominence, and becomes the most active agent of the King's policy. Wentworth, however, is still in the background; for he, "though long admitted into the King's service," we read (p. 134), "had only recently acquired even a very slight hold upon the King's favor." The contemporary events in Germany and in America receive a due share of attention, and their relation to English affairs is made clear.

Mr. W. M. Griswold's monthly *Monograph* (New York: J. W. Christopher), having reached and passed its fiftieth number, has just been indexed for Nos. 1–50. Biography enters largely into this useful popular series.

Mr. Edward Roth, No. 1135 Pine Street, Philadelphia, sends us Part 4 of Volume I., of his la-

borious and generous Index to Littell's *Living Age*. The department is still Biography, and now extends as far as Marie-Thérèse.

Mr. Furnivall and his new Shakspere Society have shown what personal controversies can grow out of a peaceful literary pursuit. The same study in this country has not been without its occasional acerbities, but the recent outbreak of long-smothered hostility between two neighboring commentators in Cambridgeport, Mass., has happily few paralliels, if any. The Rev. H. N. Hudson and Mr. W. J. Rolfe have, in their rival editions, for some time paid each other critical attentions which the elder and reverend Shakspere scholar could at last endure no longer. He charges Mr. Rolfe with forever naming him in his notes only to belabor him; while Mr. Rolfe complains that Mr. Hudson has girded at him the more insultingly because by anonymous reference, as, "Some one has noted," "Whoever talks in this way," etc. Mr. Hudson is further wroth with Mr. Rolfe for undertaking an expurgated Shakspere, and for pretending to be critical while making slips himself. A pamphlet from the former and a rejoinder from the latter in the *Literary World* of March 22, are the latest exhibitions of this broil, in which the pamphleteer has hard work to restrain an unbecoming temper.

The proceedings at the fiftieth anniversary of the organization of the American Anti-Slavery Society, in Philadelphia, on December 4, 1883, have been printed in a modest pamphlet, without indication of the publisher or price.

The National Education Association will meet at Madison, Wisconsin, in the State Capitol, on July 15-18, 1884. National Illiteracy is the first subject set down for discussion.

It is seldom that we receive from the South notices of the formation of library associations, and we therefore stop to acknowledge the Preamble and Constitution of the Enfield (N. C.) Library Association, of which Mr. L. E. Whitaker is Secretary. Donations of books, magazines, or papers would, we understand, be very acceptable to this praiseworthy organization.

In a season of earthquakes, eruptions, cyclones, and other physical eccentricities, it seems less odd to read "Vol. 2, No. 1" on the title-page of the *International Standard*, "a magazine devoted to the preservation and perfection of the Anglo-Saxon Weights and Measures, and the discussion and dissemination of the wisdom contained in the Great Pyramid" (Boston and Cleveland). Meantime, Dr. Barnard continues his fatal examination of Professor Piazzi Smyth's lunacy on this subject in the March number of the *School of Mines Quarterly*.

Prof. M. W. Harrington, director of the Observatory of Michigan University at Ann Arbor, proposes to publish a monthly *American Meteorological Journal* of from 24 to 32 pages, octavo, according to the support given to it. A painful interest just now attaches to the subject, and the number of students and observers (of the winds particularly) cannot be too many. Professor Harrington is competent to give his magazine a high scientific tone and value. Its publishers will be W. H. Burr & Co., 100 Griswold Street, Detroit.

The *Art Amateur* has an article, with many charming decorative designs, on an artist with a new name, M. Habert-Dys; some notes and illustrations of the Castellani sale at Rome, now going on; and some sensible remarks, full of information, as to spurious furniture—a subject of some importance to New Yorkers, as much of this ware comes here. Two remarkable *cassetoni*, or painted bridal caskets, made by a well-known living workman at Perugia, were lately sold in New York as genuine antique furniture, and created great enthusiasm.

The *Portfolio* has a full-page etching of "A Foot-Bridge over the Wily"—a characteristic English landscape, not above mediocrity as etching or subject—and some more of Mr. Pennell's picturesque bits of Venice, of which "The Three Bridges" is unusually good. Of the photo-etching of Tinworth's "Crucifixion," we can only say that with an excellent reproduction we find nothing to justify the celebrity to which this artist in terracotta has attained. Sculpture is an art in which mere facility in designing of groups in relief can hardly justify the reputation accorded to Tinworth without a much greater refinement and dramatic power than he has shown. Work in relief or the round is so easily appreciated in its most elementary conditions that the entire public puts itself on the jury for judging it, and this jury has placed Tinworth. The relief has some excellent commonplace incidents, but the central figure, the Christ, has too much of the caricature in it to save the dignity of the *ensemble*. An excellent article by Walter Armstrong, "On the Authorship of Some Italian Pictures," opens a series, and George Radford discourses in the timid way English art writers (except Mr. Hamerton) generally have when they dare to question Mr. Ruskin's views, on the scene of some of Turner's work, Wharfedale.

A crayon portrait of Alphonse Karr, anno 1838, by Célestin Nanteuil, will be found in the March number of *Le Livre*, and we do not know that there is anything else which calls for special notice.

From correspondence published in the Boston *Advertiser* it appears that the Boston Society of Architects has contributed $500 toward defraying the cost of publishing the results of the Assos expedition, and engages to pay a further sum of $500, if necessary, to the Archæological Institute of America. President Norton announces that the report will be at least a year in forthcoming.

In last week's *Science* appeared a very lucid account of the whereabouts and prospects of the Greely expedition, combined with some criticism of the search programme, and accompanied by a large map of the Arctic region under discussion. It will be valuable for reference hereafter.

— We deeply regret to record the death, on March 31, of Mr. Frederick Leypoldt, the well-known editor of the *Publishers' Weekly*, in the forty-ninth year of his age. He was a native of Stuttgart, but came to this country before attaining his majority, and at once entered the book business, passing from a subordinate employment in New York to an independent circulating library and importing and publishing house in Philadelphia, which he transferred to this city in 1865, and in January, 1866, associated with himself Mr. Henry Holt. Out of their *American and European Literary Bulletin* grew the *Publishers' Weekly*, to which, after March, 1871, when Mr. Leypoldt finally withdrew from publishing, he devoted himself, making it the principal organ of the book trade of this country, the fountain of accurate trade bibliography, and the most useful publication (literary criticism apart) for author, publisher, and book-buyer ever established on this side of the water. To Mr. Leypoldt's fertility of invention, ardent persistency, and unmercenary self-sacrifice, we owe among other periodicals the *Literary News*, the *Library Journal*, the *Index Medicus*, various guides to books and to reading, the 'Publishers' Trade List Annual' (a congeries of publishers' catalogues, with educational and other bibliographical lists for the year, compiled from those given monthly in the *Publishers' Weekly*), and the monumental 'American Catalogue' of all works in print in this country down to July 1, 1876. This enumeration gives but a faint idea of Mr. Leypoldt's incessant activity, even when we remember the part played by his able co-laborers. Some memorial of this excellent man might well be expected from authors, in acknowledgment of his intelligent efforts on behalf of international copyright; and from publishers, for his happy influence in promoting harmony and raising the tone of the trade.

—Mr. Oliver T. Morton has an article in the April *Atlantic* on "Presidential Nominations." He objects, to the present system of nominating conventions, that it produces, not real leaders, but accidental candidates. He proposes to make the convention a more popular body than it now is by the following device: First, the candidates for President and Vice-President are to be balloted for by Congressional district conventions, on the "proportional" plan, one delegate representing every fifty votes cast at the last Presidential election. Second, all the district conventions are to meet on the same day, and cast one ballot for President and one for Vice-President. Third, a national convention is to be held two weeks later, and to this body each district convention is to send one delegate for every hundred delegates of which it is composed. Fourth, in "this national body the party platform shall be adopted, and all the votes given for all the candidates in the Congressional district conventions shall be counted. If any one candidate shall have received a majority of all votes cast, he shall be declared the nominee of the party; but if no one candidate shall have received a majority of such votes, the national convention shall proceed to choose a candidate from the five names which have received the five highest number of votes. In case of a tie, a sixth candidate shall not be excluded. The method of procedure shall be the same for Vice-President." This plan would give a national convention of between 900 and 1,000 delegates instead of 820 as at present, and they would, in theory at least, reflect the drift of opinion in the party better than a body of delegates elected in the present way. But the convention would, if increased in numbers, be a still more unwieldy body than at present, and more subject to waves of excitement and enthusiastic diversions of sentiment in favor of "dark horses"; for the probability of any one candidate receiving a majority of all votes cast in the local conventions seems small.

—An illustrated article on "Workingmen's Homes," in *Harper's* for April, by R. R. Bowker, gives an interesting account of Miss Octavia Hill's work in redeeming some of the London poor from misery and filth. The story is one of the most encouraging and hopeful episodes in the history of modern philanthropy. It is well known that dwellings for workingmen can be provided so as to give them a clean, comfortable home at a very moderate price, and yet return a fair income on the capital invested. But the process of providing these does little or nothing to improve the condition of the inhabitants of the rookeries which make up so large a part of the slums of a great city. If one of these is pulled down and an improved tenement-house put up on its site, the old tenants do not go into the new building at all, but wander off to other filthy and degraded places of abode. What Miss Hill undertook was to elevate and improve this wretched class in the very rookeries in which they dwelt—to force them to become clean, orderly, and thrifty. She accordingly took three of the worst courts in London, the inhabitants of which were only one remove above vagrants and paupers. The houses were vile; the stairways caked with inches of

dirt; the dust-bins crammed with rotting refuse of food, which also was spilled over the passages; water dripped through the roofs, and drove in through the windows; the plaster and woodwork were broken; and, finally, the place from cellar to roof was alive with wretched, filthy human beings. On this unpromising material Miss Hill went to work, and she went to work on principles the exact opposite of those which fashionable charity generally inculcates. The first thing she did was to collect the rent. The rent of places of this sort is always in arrears, and is collected with great difficulty. But Miss Hill first constituted herself the landlord of these unfortunate people by the purchase of the houses, and then went to work to purify and improve the place through the purification and improvement of the lives of the inhabitants. Those who paid their rent regularly were treated with kindness, and given work to do in the care of the buildings, etc.; those who earned no money, and were eating the bread of idleness, she turned into the street. To make a long story short, the experiment paid for itself, and Miss Hill was enabled to pull down the old rookeries and put up the new St. Christopher's building instead, which now "profitably houses as many happy people who pay no more than in the old slums." The great question which is suggested by a story like this is: Can this system be taught? The enthusiasm of humanity, of philanthropy, or charity, or whatever we choose to call it, produces only a certain number of Octavia Hills, exactly as religion can produce only a certain number of Luthers or Savonarolas; but if philanthropy is to accomplish much in the permanent amelioration of human misery and want, it ought to be able to produce workers and missionaries in this field, exactly as it does in others. Anybody could be taught to do work like Miss Hill's, given only a sufficient amount of intelligence and disinterestedness to start with, and she seems to have been able to use very inferior persons to help her. At any rate, such cases ought to do something to show how wicked it is for the rich to waste money on the lowest class of the poor, as they so often do, without exacting in return for it some effort for self-improvement.

—The *Century* for April contains, in its "Topics of the Time," a thoughtful and seasonable article on the future of the Metropolitan Museum. It takes the ground that the business of an art museum is to provide art education—which seems like forcing an open door. In any business association, the *Century* argues, the first object is to secure the superintendents "who know best, and in a strictly professional and practical way, what the museum should be, what the objects to be accomplished are, what classes of exhibits are of the first importance, how they can be procured, what they should cost, and especially what relative importance should be given to the departments of which a museum must be made up. In a word, every man of business is aware that the first essential in any enterprise is a person who actually knows how to do the thing, and that for practical purposes amateur knowledge is worse than no knowledge." One of the commonest delusions on the subject of art is that *de gustibus non est disputandum;* or, rather, the delusion is in mistaking ignorant preferences for *tastes.* There must be education to form taste; and if educated and well-formed tastes differ, there can be no disputation as to their respective merits, but they can be weighed and estimated by a more educated taste alone. If the dictum has any meaning at all, it is that questions of taste cannot be settled by argument; and to interpret it as holding that there is no higher law of taste to which individual preferences may be referred for judgment, is to suppose what the experience of every day of our lives proves untenable. And in art, as the last study to which the progress of civilization leads us, the power of judgment arrives latest. To quote again the *Century:*

"There is no greater or more common fallacy than the idea that this knowledge is of easy attainment. Every one who goes to an art gallery feels the right to pronounce as to the value of the works before him, when, in fact, in nine cases out of ten, his judgment shows nothing at all except his own stage of culture. . . . In fact, the commonest error among the uneducated in art is that the difference in pictures is in the degree of skill with which nature is photographed; while the real value, the new aspect of the world, or of nature, or of thought which they unfold, is unsuspected and invisible to the untaught eye."

The obvious drift of the article is to recommend the putting a competent person in charge of the museum, and the classification and intelligent arrangement of the objects in it. Moreover, "if, in this sifting process, however, a part of the collection should be either set aside as *artistically* so much encumbrance," or sold to or exchanged with other museums, we should not be surprised." As the Metropolitan Museum is practically a private institution, the article of the *Century* may be recommended especially to the owners; but unless they choose to interest themselves in the question of education in art, there is no means of compelling them to do what common-sense as well as the *Century* recommends.

— A glance is all we can give to a number of medical and physiological works which have accumulated on our table. 'The Relations of Micro-Organisms to Disease' (Chicago: W.T. Keener) is a reprint of Dr. Belfield's Cartwright lectures, delivered a year ago to physicians in this city. It clearly explains what is known and thought in the best medical circles about bacteria. Dr. Gradle's 'Bacteria and the Germ Theory of Disease' (same publisher) covers similar ground, but is not as attractive reading. Tracy's 'Hand-Book of Sanitary Information' and Teale's 'Dangers to Health,' both published by the Appletons, and the latter an illustrated work with a maximum of pictures and a minimum of text, are unrivalled as intelligible and trustworthy guides on sanitary affairs of daily interest. 'Health at Home' (Appletons), good in tendency, is commonplace, and is unnecessary for those whose sanitary knowledge goes beyond primers. 'The Air we Breathe and Ventilation' (John Wiley's Sons) leaves the impression that the commercial bearing of ventilating apparatus, several types of which are described, is as well studied in it as are their scientific features. Mr. Gerhard's 'Drainage and Sewerage of Dwellings' (W. T. Comstock) goes over the ground indicated by the title with what seem needless detail and repetition for ordinary readers. It will attract chiefly architects and building inspectors. Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Fat and Blood,' in its third and revised edition (Lippincott), while written for physicians, may be read with advantage by all intelligent persons who are interested in serious invalids of the so-called nervous class. 'The Home Physician' (Putnams) would condense the medical sciences into an hour's reading, for the benefit of those who can reach no doctor. It is better to trust in Providence than to increase that class who have fools for patients. With simple but attractive language, Mr. William Blaikie has set forth, in a series of illustrated lessons, an excellent system for symmetrical physical development under the title of 'Sound Bodies for Our Boys and Girls' (Harpers). Followed out, as it easily may be without trouble and at no expense, it will be worth more than a thousand homilies in the preservation of physical and moral rectitude. In 'Cremation' (Lippincott) Mr. R. E. Williams cursorily describes burial customs, and then, as against inhumation, makes an excellent argument for the disposal of the dead, by incineration, on æsthetic, economical, and sanitary grounds.

—The complete, revised, and enlarged edition of Herder, noticed in the *Nation* (vol. xxvi., p. 360), is still appearing. Bernhard Suphan is devoting to it the most laborious and painstaking scholarship, and in every volume bringing out from Herder's manuscripts new and interesting matter. The edition will be, for many reasons, such a monument to editorship as hardly any other modern author has made possible. In one of the late volumes (vol. xviii.) is published the first form of Herder's translation and discussion of the rules composed by Franklin, in 1728, for the conduct of the meetings of the Junto. These rules or questions—"Fragen," as Herder calls them (they are put by Franklin as questions to be addressed to the members at the meetings)—appear also with comments in the third section of the first collection of the 'Letters for the Advancement of Humanity.' Franklin's name is the one, the primary example, with which these letters, the first collection of which was published at Riga in 1793, open. Other great men whose ideas are discussed in the series are Frederick the Great, Luther, Leibnitz, and Lessing. Much interest for Americans attaches to the discussion as previously published, especially from the prominence of the treatment of Franklin; but the older form now first made public, not merely in vol. xviii., but also published separately (Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung), and dedicated by Suphan, with a prefatory address, to a distinguished friend, is even more interesting. The manuscript is in Caroline's handwriting. As Herder enjoyed the manual labor of writing, and, though receiving in his authorship help of various sorts from his wife, did not, except for private letters, employ her as an amanuensis, this paper was probably dictated at Aix-la-Chapelle, where he went with Caroline in the summer of 1792, to get the benefit of the baths, and where he was precluded by his condition from writing himself.

—The discussion is in the form of an address. For what was it intended? Hayne has suggested, and another critic has more strongly asserted, that it was intended for a meeting of the "Freitagsgesellschaft," a club founded at Weimar in July, 1791, of which Goethe, Wieland, Herder, Knebel, Bertuch, and other literary men were members. This club met at first once a month, but there is a letter from Goethe to Wilhelm von Humboldt, written in December, 1795, in which it is spoken of as convening every week. There is, to be sure, no evidence, as there is in regard to two other of Herder's papers, that the address was read to the club. This translation makes it plain that Herder had a good deal of interest in American affairs, and contrasted, not always with satisfaction, limitations in Europe with the plastic conditions here. Naturally enough, with all these years of labor on Herder, Suphan becomes more and more fascinated by his great subject and all that pertains to it. His delight in the contemplation of Herder and Franklin as having mental affinities (*Gesinnungsgenossen*) is not without reason, and even his belief that the two men had resembling features has some foundation. The likeness is largely in the forehead and upper part of the head, but is probably more marked in the engravings than it would have been in life. Franklin's eyes, even in the engraving from the

Duplessis portrait, seem more practical, quicker, and shrewder. Franklin was the embodiment of that popular force which Herder always believed in. Herder's remarks on Franklin are as discerning as Laboulaye's, and in some sentences quite similar. The achievements of Franklin seem much greater than those of Herder; but the latter (to use the words of evolution) was a sort of "cosmic nebula," and though his personality and work fail to make the distinct impression belonging to a more defined and special career, they are yet full of the "potency" of much that is now influential and commanding. This brochure of Suphan's enforces anew this old claim of Herder's admirers.

THOMAS HUTCHINSON.

The Diary and Letters of Thomas Hutchinson. Compiled by Peter Orlando Hutchinson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884. Pp. 594.

We have taken the liberty to abbreviate the portentous title-page of this book, which, though it bears an American imprint, is really printed and probably published in London. It is adorned with photographic portraits of Governor Hutchinson and his brother-in-law, Andrew Oliver, and a reproduction of a page of his manuscript. It is neatly printed, and at the first glance promises more in the way of instruction or amusement than it fulfils. The disappointment is not so much the fault of the author as of the editor, whose preliminary flourishes and parade of style lead the reader to turn over page after page to discover the wonderful state secrets which are to be revealed. What may lie perdu in the remainder of the manuscripts is known only to that editor, and we may therefore yet be put to shame for our expression of incredulity; but, chancing that, we will frankly say that a volume of half the size would have been more welcome and far less tedious. Few Americans of the Revolutionary period have had a more lasting renown than Thomas Hutchinson, and few have been more leniently judged on a second hearing. Abused for his virtues, condemned in his absence, feared, hated, and maligned to a degree which now seems absurd, the lapse of a century has left his fellow Bostonians ready to see and acknowledge the really attractive side of his character. The publication of these extracts from his papers will add little to the history of events, but it will greatly contribute to the reëstablishment of the writer.

Governor Hutchinson, as is well known, was born in 1711, and was descended from William Hutchinson, an early settler in Boston, whose wife, Anne, filled a larger place in our annals than he did. The family prospered here, and by the third generation was clearly established in the ranks of the local gentry. Thomas Hutchinson, the father of the Governor, died in 1739, a member of the Council, leaving an estate far beyond that of most of his contemporaries, the fruit of a widely extended commerce. His son was sent to Harvard at the age of twelve, and was duly graduated, though, as he writes, he "after four years was little better qualified for the degree of Batchelor of Arts, which he received in 1727, than when he first entered." After this "he went into his father's countinghouse and became a merchant apprentice from seventeen years to twenty-one." In 1734 he was married to Margaret Sanford, a young lady who had not completed her seventeenth year. In 1737 he was chosen selectman and representative. By setting himself against the popular craze for paper money, he lost a reëlection, but soon regained his place and served in 1740. In 1741 he visited England, and on his return again represented Boston from 1742 to 1749, being Speaker for three years. In 1749 he was chosen to the Council, in 1752 he succeeded his uncle as Judge of Probate for Suffolk, and in 1758 he was made Lieutenant-Governor under Pownall. In 1760 he was also created Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, of which he writes (p. 66): "This employment engaged his attention, and he applied his intervals to reading the law; and though it was an eyesore to some of the Bar to have a person at the head of the law who had not been bred to it, he had reason to think the lawyers in general at no time desired his removal." On this point he cites also (p. 195) a conversation with Governor Bernard in England in 1774: "Sir Francis mentioned among other things that he apologized to Lord Mansfield for appointing me Chief Justice, not having been bred to the law; adding that he had no cause to repent it. Lord Chief Justice Wilmot being by, broke out with an oath, 'By ——, he did not make a worse Chief Justice for that!'"

When Governor Bernard went home in August, 1769, Hutchinson became acting Governor, and in March, 1771, he received his full commission. In 1774, he solicited and obtained a leave of absence to visit England, but as the Lieutenant Governor, Andrew Oliver, had recently died, the King appointed General Gage to be Governor "during his Majesty's pleasure." It seems to be indisputable that Hutchinson was not superseded nor dismissed, but that it was fully expected that he would return and resume his office. He was accompanied by his son, Elisha, and his daughter, Margaret, and, after a voyage of thirty days, reached London on June 30. The main portion of this book is given to Hutchinson's diary and letters after his arrival in England. The reader may therefore dismiss all hopes of any new revelation in regard to the events which preceded the Revolution. Hutchinson, a voluminous writer, and a zealous collector, experienced the unkindest blows of fate. In 1765 a rascally mob in Boston sacked his house and threw his papers into the street, only a portion being recovered. When he started for England, he had left behind at Milton all his books and papers, and in April, 1775, these fell into the possession of the American troops. Hence his descendants will not be able to produce any inedited documents of an earlier date, unless in the form of memoranda of his own recollections. The documents still extant in England are described as seven volumes of Diary and three Letter Books, with a Diary of his son-in-law, Peter Oliver, jr., some almanacs and other miscellaneous books. The present instalment comprises the Diary from June, 1774, to the close of 1775, being the first and smaller three books. There are left in manuscript four books reaching to May, 1780.

The merits of the collection are greatly lessened by the senile affectations of the editor, whose rambling and often impertinent notes are so intermixed with the text, in a type scarcely distinguishable from it, as continually to prevent a proper understanding of the subject. Even when necessary documents, copies of letters and the like, are given, they are thrust into the page instead of appearing as foot-notes. But, so far as can be clearly seen, it appears that in the first 150 pages will be found a manly and interesting autobiography of Hutchinson, prepared, indeed, in England, but covering his life up to the time of his departure from his native land. This document is well worth preservation, and, if printed continuously, would add to the author's reputation. The next important piece is a careful record of an interview which he had with King George, the day after his arrival in London. This paper, however, has already been printed in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society for October, 1877 (pp. 326-334), and is therefore familiar to students.

The diary for the next eighteen months gives us a very complete view of Hutchinson's life in England, but it presents few quotable passages. It is an admirable means of studying the man, but in truth he soon ceased to be an important factor in the affairs of state, and his revelations are few and unimportant. We can, however, reconstruct for ourselves the picture of this staid provincial gentleman of sixty-three, thoroughly imbued with Puritanic feeling, albeit a loyalist so unflinching as to be ready to sacrifice fortune and home to his principles. He lands, perhaps with a little pleasant flutter of anticipation that his cause is that of a King who will appreciate the sufferings he has borne. He is courteously received by that King; he is offered a baronetcy; he accepts such a continuance of his salary as enables him to maintain a modest hospitality. He meets the influential Ministers of the Crown; he is welcomed to the tables of the highest nobility; he is consulted, in a measure, about American affairs. As soon as the novelty of his position has worn off he begins to work, and, however strangely it may disappoint our preconceived ideas, he works conscientiously, for a people who have nothing but execrations for him. He is strong in the belief that the colonies must succumb if an appeal be made to arms, and yet he counsels conciliation and forbearance to those who have the control of England's armies. His constant platform is that the right of Parliament to rule America is incontestable, and his only hope is to bring back the people to an acknowledgment of that cardinal truth, never questioned, as he says, until within a dozen years.

In August, 1774, Hutchinson records a long conversation with Lord Mansfield, who "allowed the Lords of Council had their pens prepared to sign a warrant for apprehending persons in Boston, but did not allow they desisted because another measure was thought more expedient, but because the Attorney and Sollicitor-General were in doubt whether the evidence was sufficient to convict them; but he said things would never be right until some of them were brought over." In the same month he writes concerning Boston: "Providence, I hope, will avert its total ruin, and I should have thought it the happiest event of my life if I might have been the instrument." During the remainder of the year there seems to have been little appreciation of the importance of the crisis by the highest officials of the Government. Lord North is frequently cited; but, though he seems to be fully convinced that the holding a Congress is an act of treason, he is ready to consider a plan which would turn the colonies into a confederacy. He is even ready to give an interview to Josiah Quincy, though Hutchinson, when his opinion was asked, gave this character to the patriot: "I informed him [North] he [Quincy] was a lawyer, as inflamatory in Town Meetings, etc., as almost any of the party; that I fancied his errand here was to inflame the people by his newspaper pieces and in every other way possible, and to give information to those at Boston of the same spirit and party, what was doing here, and whether they were in danger." On December 29, 1774, Hutchinson notes: "Even the political Barometer, the Stocks, neither rise nor fall." "Whether it be owing to the nature of the English Constitution, or some other cause, there is a strange inaction, considering the critical state of affairs." So, again, under date of May 6, 1775: "Dined with Mr. Gibbon, etc. . . . It seemed generally agreed that the American affairs made not the least disturbance in any part of the Kingdom."

On the 29th of May, 1775, news was received of the battle of Lexington, by a vessel sent expressly by the Provincial Congress. "Lord

Dartmouth was much struck by it." "He read me a card from Lord North, which says the beginning of action in America was rather inauspicious, but hopes the account in the *Mass. Gazette* was exaggerated. There appeared a degree of that apathy which I think Lord N. has a great deal of." "I called upon General Harvey, where I found Grant and Dalrymple. Harvey swore and reproached them—chiefly Dalrymple, because he wanted more forces—with this expression: 'How often have I heard you American Colonels boast that with four battalions you would march through America; and now you think Gage, with 3,000 men and 40 pieces of cannon, mayn't venture out of Boston!'" It was not until June 10 that Government received its despatches, and these confirmed the first reports. On the 12th, Hutchinson waited upon Lord Dartmouth, who "was for putting the most favorable construction upon it. I mentioned a Proclamation, with a general pardon to all who should return to their allegiance. Lord D said he was for having it done long ago, but thought there should be some exceptions. Lord North has not been in town since the news."

On the 25th of July news of the battle of Bunker Hill arrived, but it is noticeable that from this time on Hutchinson seems to have little intercourse with the Ministers. His diary, indeed, records the rumors of the day, and his letters show his estimate of the position; but he has become absorbed in the current of English life, and America recedes from his view. The probable evacuation of Boston is evident, and his letters to his family contain his directions for the safety of their persons and effects. Leaving this part of the record, we may point out a few allusions to other and less engrossing matters. Hutchinson was naturally interested in the controversy as to the mode in which were obtained the letters sent by him to Thomas Whately, which had been published in Boston. It was well known that Franklin was the intermediary, but the link from Whately was missing. Rumor had charged John Temple with abstracting the letters, and the adoption of this report by John Whately, the brother and executor of Thomas, had led to a harmless duel between him and Temple. Hutchinson seems at first to have believed in the truth of the story, but finally to have credited Temple's innocence and to have become quite friendly to him. Historians now seem to agree that the letters were given by Thomas Whately to the Hon. George Grenville, at whose death they fell into the hands of Earl Temple, who gave them to the Hon. Mr. Fitzherbert, and he in turn to Dr. Franklin.

Hutchinson once refers to his former visit to England (on p. 376) as follows: "We dined in the city with Charlton Palmer. His sister, who I remember a gay girl in 1741, is now a cheerful, chatty old maid." On p. 529 there is an interesting story about Boston:

"Colonel James tells an odd story of the intention of the officers the 5 March, that 300 were in the Meeting to hear Dr. Warren's Oration: that if he had said anything against the King, etc., an officer was prepared, who stood near, with an egg to have thrown in his face, and that was to have been a signal to draw swords, and they would have massacred Hancock, Adams, and hundreds more; and he added he wished they had. I am glad they did not: for I think it would have been an everlasting disgrace to attack a body of people without arms to defend themselves."

"He says one officer cried 'Fy! fy!' and Adams immediately asked who dared say so? And then said to the officer he should mark him. The officer answered, 'And I will mark you. I live at such a place, and shall be ready to meet you.' Adams said he would go to his General. The officer said his General had nothing to do with it, the affair was between them two, etc."

Again (pp. 441–444) there is a very interesting memorial concerning Fort Hill, Boston. Though not giving many new facts, it is a clear statement of the history of that lot of land, showing that it was part of the original property of the town, reserved for the site of a fort.

On p 349 is mention of a trip to Bath and thence to Warmister:

"I found here a gentleman by the name of Middlecot, whose grandfather went over to England near eighty years ago to take possession of an estate which the grandson now lives upon. It's a good house he lives in, with elegant garden: small. The grandfather was uncle to Middlecot Cooke, and Mrs. Bouchier was his sister, to whom I was a pall-holder about ten years ago or more in Boston. I remember my father's telling me of his being at this house, and Mrs. Alden, who went to England with a sister of Governor Belcher, lived here for some time, and also Dr. Cooke and son, etc."

Hutchinson here confirms the truth of the Payne MS., edited by Mr. Whitmore for the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1875. That document states that Tobias Payne married Sarah, daughter of John Winslow and widow of Capt. Miles Standish. She married thirdly Richard Middlecott, and had three daughters and one son by him. The son, Edward, went to England, where he bought his father's life interest in an entailed estate at Warmister of £300 per annum, and had an only child Edward. This last was evidently the father of the gentleman whom Hutchinson met.

At Aylesbury Hutchinson writes (p. 249): "I could not help being sensibly affected at seeing the boys of the Free School with their master in a particular part of the church, as it brought to my mind that Colo Foster, my mother's father, was of Aylesbury, and I suppose of the same school (he being a very good grammar scholar), and I doubt not a little more than an hundred years since sat in the same place." On p. 196:

"Dined with my two sons at Lord Chancellor's. Talking of longævity, Lord Chancellor said that his father's (Lord Bathurst's) grandfather was born in the reign of Henry the Eighth, which must be about two hundred and thirty years ago; and a house which he built in Queen Elizabeth's reign is now standing. Lord Bathurst is living in enjoyment of health of body and mind, above ninety. This is more extraordinary than the instance of Gov. Dudley of N. Eng., who was a Capt. of horse under H. the 4 of France in the 16th century, and two of his granddaughters are now living."

Speaking (p. 145) of events at Boston at the close of 1773, and the grant of a salary from the Crown to the judges, he writes: "There was a gallery at a corner of the Assembly Room, where Otis, Adams, Hawley, and the rest of the Cabal used to crowd their Mohawks and Hawcubites, to echo the oppositional vociferations to the rabble without doors." This is evidence on a point which a visitor to the Old State House in Boston might hardly believe, looking at the scanty height of the Representatives' Hall.

Of his own feelings, a few indications are given. October 26, 1774, he writes: "Taking up a volume of the Biographical Dictionary, this passage in the life of Mr. Maclaurin came home to me: 'Here I live as happily as a man can do who is ignorant of the state of his family and who sees the ruin of his country.'" On the blank leaves of the third volume of his diary he quotes, "*Gubernatorum vituperatio populo placet*" (p. 401). When he learned that his letter-books at Milton had been found and used by the colonists, he wrote to Sewall (p. 500):

"At any other time, the ravages made upon my house, and the seizure of my private as well as publick letters and other papers, would have been very sensibly felt: but the publick calamities lay so heavy upon my spirits before, that this present misfortune made no addition worth mentioning. I cannot recollect a correspondence of seven years. I am sure I never wrote anything I did not believe to be true. I am sure I never wrote anything which I thought would hurt the real interest of my country or be injurious to individuals."

Later on he writes (p. 557): "My family is well. My property which was at Milton sold at *vendue*. Washington, it is said, rides in my coach at Cambridge. The farm, people were doubtful about purchasing, and therefore it is leased out." Certainly Hutchinson must have been very patient or very reticent, since even in his writings no word of anger for his losses can be found. It may be here remarked that he seems to have been singularly self-contained and unimpassioned. On p. 574 he records of Garrick as *Archer*, in the "Beaux' Stratagem," "Either he is too old for such a character, or I am too old to see the excellencies which draw such crowds after him." On p. 243 we find an opinion recorded in 1767, as follows: "Pleasure should always give way to business, and the picture of a horse race is every whit as agreeable as the original." On p. 475 it is recorded: "To avoid being singular, I went in the afternoon at 6 to see the Regatta, from Lord Loudon's, Privy Gardens; tarried till 8, and had patience no longer."

With these citations we may take our leave of the Governor, though there are many lesser touches which bring into view the same curious character. One can almost affirm that he was a loyalist by stress of reason rather than by conviction or sympathy. His soul yearned for his native land, his best wishes were for his countrymen, he felt himself an alien in the England which swallowed him. But the conviction of the absolute correctness of his position in regard to the logical supremacy of Parliament paralyzed every movement of his heart or of his intellect. We cannot dismiss the book, however, without reverting to the eccentricities of the editor. He is too indifferent to seek to learn the distinction between Samuel Quincy and Josiah Quincy, between Joseph Green and Gardiner Greene, between Colonel Watson and Richard Clarke, as his bewildering notes show. But he takes every opportunity to show his spite against the colonists and their descendants, and to air a Toryism which must be exceptionally absurd even in England. He is especially spiteful and ridiculous in his references to the copy of the record of the interview between the King and Governor Hutchinson, which was obtained by Mr. Everett thirty-five years ago. It was an exact copy, conceded doubtless as an act of courtesy to our representative at the Court of St. James

Mr. P. O. Hutchinson gives a woodcut of his family arms. It is an indisputable but mortifying fact that these arms do not belong to the Governor's family. His emigrant ancestor, William Hutchinson, was born at Alford, and was son of John H., who was the youngest son of John Hutchinson, Mayor of Lincoln. Here the pedigree stops absolutely. There were four brothers in that generation, Rev. Christopher, Thomas, William (also Mayor of Lincoln), and John. Their parentage is unknown, and the late Colonel Chester, who made extended search into all the families of the name, wrote that in 1634 the grandson of William (the above-named Mayor), claimed the arms of the Hutchinsons of Yorkshire. On his paper are endorsed the words, "Respited for proof." "The requisite proof was evidently never furnished, nor have the arms ever since been granted or confirmed to any member of the family in this line. . . . The fact that it could not then be accomplished and has not since been done, is fatal to the claims of the descendants of the two Mayors of Lincoln, including Governor Hutchinson himself."

LEONARDO DA VINCI.—II.

The Literary Works of Leonardo da Vinci. Compiled and Edited from the Original Manuscripts by Jean Paul Richter, Ph.Dr., &c. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

To leave the painter and turn to the sculptor, architect, thinker, philosopher, and physicist, is to close the first and open the second of these volumes. It is impossible in our space even to indicate the variety of themes on which Leonardo throws out his suggestions, schemes, and observations—sometimes *disjecta membra*, as if he had been in a disputation, and, ruminating thereafter, shot back some shaft of thought. He gives directions for founding, for all kinds of engineer work and constructions, and those who will profit by them may follow him closely. In physics there are inevitably many vain speculations, in accordance with the tendencies of the time. The nature of the soul, its origin, etc., call out reflections subtle, indeed, but necessarily as futile as some to-day. At the end of his hints on medicine, he says:

"If you wish to keep well, keep to this rule—Eat not without desire (*appetito*); chew well; and, so far as nothing prevents (*e per quel che niente ritiene*), let it be well cooked and in a simple manner. Who takes medicine is ill-advised (*mal s'informa*). I teach you to preserve health; in which thing you will succeed better in proportion as you abstain from medicines, because their composition pertains to alchemy."

A prayer is: "Thou, O God! sellest us all goods at the price of labor." Another: "Oh, admirable justice of thine, Prime Mover! thou hast not wished that there should lack to any force the order and quality of its inevitable results (*necessari effetti*)." A bit of satire on Petrarch runs: "If Petrarch loved so much the laurel, it was because it goes well with sausages and tunny. I cannot put any value on their nonsense." Here is a bit of philosophy, on dogs, which may be humorous:

"This animal hates the poor because they eat poor food, and loves the rich because they eat good food, and especially flesh. . . . Now, dogs have so subtle sense of smell . . . that if they know the dog by means of this smell to be well fed they respect him, because they judge that he has a rich and powerful master; and if they do not smell such odor with its virtue, they judge the dog to be of little account, and to have a poor and melancholy master, and therefore they bite him as they would have done his master."

The claim of the discovery of the circulation of the blood, made for Leonardo, is not better sustained than that made for Swedenborg: he was evidently very near the truth, but does not declare the secret of the motion of the blood.

"Death in old men," he says, "when not from fever, is caused by the veins which go from the spleen to the valve of the liver, and which increase so much in tissue that they close and no longer give passage to the blood that nourishes them. The continual current which the blood makes in the veins is the cause that such veins swell, and get indurated, and forbid the passage of the blood. . . . The waters return with constant motion from the lowest depths of the sea to the highest summits of the mountains, not following the law of heavy things, and in this matter do as does the blood of animals, which always moves from the sea of the heart and rushes to the top of their heads, and which there bursts the veins, as we see (when) a vein (is) broken in the nose that all the blood from below raises itself to the height of the broken vein. When the water comes out of the broken vein of the earth, it follows the nature of other substances heavier than the air, whence it always seeks low places. . . . That the blood which returns when the heart reopens is not that which closes the doors of the heart."

Of this we can only say that it does not seem to attempt to explain the motion of the blood by springs of water, but the reverse. Nor in the claim to have discovered the attraction of gravitation does the case seem clearer. Da Vinci has been considering, apparently, the question of a falling weight, and asks:

"Why does not the weight, O, remain in its position? Because it has no resistance. And whither does it move? It moves toward the centre. And why not in any other direction? Because the weight which is not resisted (supported) will fall to the depths by the shortest line, and the lowest place is the centre of the world. And how does the weight know thus to find it with such quickness? Because it does not go like a senseless thing, first meandering by various lines."

In the suggestions on the moon are several which seem to be of the nature of problems proposed to himself, and not yet satisfactorily solved:

"Nothing that is less heavy remains under what is more heavy; if the moon has position in the midst of its own elements or not; if she has not a particular position in the midst of her own elements like the earth, why does she not fall to the centre of our elements? And if the moon is not in the centre of our elements, and does not fall, she is lighter than another element. And if the moon is lighter than another element, why is she solid and not transparent?"

It is clear from the complexity of these hints that the problem of gravitation was very far from solved by Leonardo in the sense that Newton solved it. He has a hint, apropos of observations of the magnifying of the moon at the horizon by refraction, which points very near to the telescope: "Fa occhiale da vedere la luna grande"—make eye-glasses to see the moon magnified. In the chapters on water-courses he uses the blood again as an illustration. "I say that as the natural warmth keeps the blood in the veins at the highest part of the man, and when the man is dead the blood cooled falls to the lower places, and when the sun heats the man's head it increases and so much blood comes up that often it produces headache"—so, he continues, the water rises by the veins in the earth to the tops of the mountains. One of his sketches prefigures a life-preserver, another a naval ram, others flying-machines; and there are chapters of machines proposed or invented. Far from the least remarkable thing in his record is the sudden dash he seems to make at a physical law, then leaving it without any further study, as if a flash of inspiration had shown him his way and then had abandoned him.

The translation into English is inexcusably bad, and makes a most regrettable blemish in a work of such surpassing general merit. The sense is often quite lost in the English version. In § 715, "Questo si potrebbe fare, fatto il fornello ferma [*sic*] e pillata [*sic*]," is translated: "This may be done when the furnace is made strong and *bruised*." Now "pillato" in the given version is, as we see by a note, written *pilata* in the original—*i. e.*, supported by piles (*pila*)—and the translator, a little further on, § 739, renders "il fornello de' essere infra pilastri ben fondati," "the furnace should be in the midst of piles well driven in." The figures illustrating the two sections show that they relate to the same point. In § 860 we find "e perchè lo sa così tal peso trovarlo con tanta brevità? Perchè non va come insensibile, prima vagando per diverse linee"—*i. e.*, because it does not go like a senseless (obeying no impulse) thing, wandering about by different lines (of motion). This the translator renders, "because it is not independent, and does not move about in various directions." § 1147: "Ogni nostra cognitione principia da sentimenti"—*i. e.*, all our knowledge begins in sensations; which the translator renders, "all our knowledge has its origin in our preceptions" (*sic*). "O ritrovato nelle storie delle Spagnioli, come nelle guerre da loro avute colle Inglese *fu* Archimede Siracusano, il quale in quel tempo dimorava in compagnia di Ecliderides, re de' Circodastri; etc.," is translated, "I have found in a history of the Spaniards that in their war with the English Archimedes of Syracuse, who at that time was living at the court of Ecliderides, King of the Circodastri. Etc." § 613, "acquavite" is translated aquafortis. There is a pervading negligence as to faithful translation of the peculiarities of expression of the original, not to speak of careless proof-reading, curiously out of keeping with the minute attention given to the Italian text; but as the original and translation are given in parallel columns, the reader who understands Italian can correct the English. He who does not will not always be able to understand the latter, which, even when strictly grammatical, is incomprehensible without comparison with the original.

RECENT NOVELS.

The New Abelard. By Robert Buchanan. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Miz-Maze, or the Winkworth Puzzle. A Story in Letters. By Nine Authors. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

Only an Incident. By Grace Denio Litchfield. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Susan Drummond. By Mrs. J. H. Riddell. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Real Queen. By R. E. Francillon. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Loyal Ronins. Translated from the Japanese by Edward Greey and S. Saito. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Treasure Island. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Vestigia. By George Fleming. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Newport. By George Parsons Lathrop. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Her Washington Season. By Jeanie Gould Lincoln. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The Pagans. By Arlo Bates. Henry Holt & Co.

Prusias: A Romance of Ancient Rome, by Ernst Eckstein. From the German, by Clara Bell. William S. Gottsberger.

The Wizard's Son. By Mrs. Oliphant. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Hester: A Story of Contemporary Life. By Mrs. Oliphant. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Old Lady Mary: A Story of the Seen and the Unseen. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

In 'The New Abelard,' sustained, serious idea and absorbing story are cleverly combined. There is no discoverable reason for the mysterious introduction of Ambrose Bradley and Alma Craik in Mossleigh Abbey, by the light of the May moon, to the music of the sounding sea. But the scene is romantic and impassioned; the reader plunges into the thick of complications and learns incidentally that the owls of the region are rather queer, for they "*moaned* from the ivied walls." The construction of at least two-thirds of the book is excellent. The life and love of the New Abelard and Héloïse illustrate admirably the vagrant tendency of modern religious thought, and the objective interest and the subjective are inseparable. But the "monster spiritualism," which in the later chapters besets the path of Abelard, is a puny, a tawdry antagonist to rank with the "monsters agnosticism and materialism." The episode is, too, unnecessary and disfiguring, and the chosen variety of American medium has already had a long run in English novels, where alone he comes in contact with decent society. The last chapter, at

Oberammergau, is theatrical, presenting those mechanically deliberate effects with which Mr. Buchanan mars his work. There is, on the other hand, an impetuosity about him which often prevents his executing carefully what he has conceived vigorously. In the development of the apostate, Bradley (Abelard), the vital need of a practical, orthodox Christianity in crises of temptation and trouble is not established, and though in dealing with dogma the author wholly escapes dogmatism, Bradley's career was meant to prove, in his own last words, that "Man cannot live by the shadowy gods of men, by the poetic spectre of a divine ideal."

The great sin of Bradley's life, his treachery to Alma Craik, is not proved to be the outcome of unconscious drifting from a transcendental creed, through agnosticism, to materialism. Indeed, it cannot be reconciled on any theory with the intellectual keenness, the lofty idealism, the spiritual intensity ascribed to him. It is the act of a man infirm of purpose, stupendously selfish, and with incredibly small vanity. Regarding Bradley impartially, we may be pretty sure that, had he wrapped himself in the Articles and sat forever at the feet of "Darkdale and Dells," he would have deceived and degraded Alma Craik. In any case he would have gratified his selfish passion, and he would not have exposed himself to public criticism by procuring a divorce from his infamous, unacknowledged wife. The drawing of Alma redeems this partial failure. In her purity and passion, in the abandon of her sacrifice, Héloïse lives again, fashioned by a poet. The poetic quality of Mr. Buchanan's novels is always noticeable. In this one he shows as well a quick, if not profound, perception of the world's drift, nice discrimination of character, and the conversational readiness of a man who, talking frivolously or earnestly, talks well.

'The Miz-Maze' is so transparent and guileless a story that there must be humor lurking in the title. The nine authors probably enjoy the joke, but it is too subtle and delicate for the uninitiated to take readily. The authors must have been aware of the ridiculous inadequacy of the reason given for plunging even that wonderfully-used person, an English baronet, into eighteen years of profound silence concerning the existence of his eldest daughter. They can hardly have overlooked the facts that in the forty-third letter the trivial cause of Sir Walter Winkworth's long absence from his estate is fully explained, and that the remaining one hundred and nineteen are devoted to matters as little mysterious as is the blowing of soap-bubbles. Beyond the inscrutable humor of the title, there is nothing remarkable in the story. Any writer of mediocre ability might have produced a more readable novel in letters, and it is to be doubted whether one man or woman could have been so uniformly feeble, so monotonously prosaic. The letters of Aunt Dora smack of Miss Yonge, and to her is probably due the credit of the helplessly-stupid hero, Miles Winkworth. Beyond this, conjecture is all at sea, and one closes the book, dissenting from the motto on the title-page, "Many hands make light work." 'The Miz-Maze' proves that many hands make *heavy* work.

'Only an Incident' has the virtue of modesty which its title implies. The author is quite at home among the favored people of Joppa, and touches their blind self-sufficiency with a vivacity which is in no way allied to spitefulness. This thorough familiarity with the manners and habits of a small community may perhaps account for an unconscious use in narrative of colloquialisms which are often vulgar and not infrequently ungrammatical. Out of her own sympathy with the unfortunate little heroine, the author has exaggerated her virtues; she has converted a possible tenderness for sweet and helpful activity into contempt for excessive amiability. In Miss Geraldine Vernor she has attempted a character beyond her power of delineation, betraying inexperience and a somewhat immature perception. A radiantly beautiful girl with a virile intellect may have her little defects, but the wild contradictions of ill-bred cruelty to young brothers and sensitive regard for the comfort of a beetle, of cold, hard selfishness and impulsive heroism, make actual monstrosity. Denham Halloway is another false ideal. It is a matter of history that well-meaning young rectors have loved several women for their several virtues. Still, we doubt if the man who almost loved Phebe Lane could fall a victim to Geraldine, even if he had much fuller opportunity than the reader for discovering that she only "beguiled the thing she was by seeming otherwise."

In 'Susan Drummond,' as in most of Mrs. Riddell's work, the tantalizing impression that it ought to have been better detracts from enjoyment of much that is really good. Here an inspiring motive is more than usually conspicuous by its absence. The plot is absolutely unconsidered, and there is no evidence that the author ever heard of a theory of artistic and satisfying construction. In the first half, she backs and bolts and ambles at will, as if she took a vicious pleasure in bewildering the reader. She rouses no interest in the story beyond a mild wonder whether the canny banker and ex-cavalryman, Gayre, is to have all the running with Susan Drummond. In the last half, the introduction of Susan's lover, Dane, and of his unjust imprisonment for forgery, is an arbitrary interjection of an exciting element for the benefit of the sensation-loving public. It is in her keen comprehension of a large variety of character, in her delicate distinction between what may be told and what must be insinuated, in her facile and apt expression, that Mrs. Riddell shows her mettle. Though she is none too fond of her women, both the acrid Miss Chelston and the excellently clean and healthy Susan are solid figures, standing firmly on their feet. In the boldly contrasted Gayre and Sir Geoffrey Chelston there is striking power, in Sir Geoffrey an infectious enthusiasm. His life outrages decency. He is of that irreclaimable herd of black-sheep who attribute all their misfortunes to heaven. But by suppressing the detail of his vices, by endowing him with a comical audacity and racy vocabulary, the author has forced an acceptance of his own verdict on himself, that he "was a good deal better than some, and not half as bad as most." One can hardly leave this novel without comment on a social condition which English story-tellers seem to vie with each other in thrusting upon public notice. If they are to be believed, the English are something lower than a "nation of shop-keepers": they are a nation of money-grabbers. They not only barter traditions for wealth, but their gentlemen haggle like fishwives for small change.

'A Real Queen' is an English girl, carried out to sea in a boat by an escaped convict, and picked up by a Spanish trader bound for the South Sea. She is wrecked and cast ashore on the Island of Apahu, where the natives hail her as a queen sent by the gods. After ten years she comes home and helps to unravel a plot in which figure prominently a trap-door, a secreted will, a pair of rare villains, and the ex-convict, now a sort of bonanza king from Nevada. It is plain enough that before an author attempts such an extravagant story he should be sure of his power to produce fairy-tale illusion. If Mr. Francillon could have made us believe in Apahu as we believe in that island in Oceanus, unseen and untrodden by mortals, whereon grew the golden apples of Hera, the fact that the "most learned geographers had never heard of it" would not trouble us at all. If by his picture of that ideal kingdom where there was an "atmosphere of heavenly fragrant balm," where "there were no wars, no seditions, no parties, no crimes, not even poverty," he could have made us live for an hour in the Golden Age, we would not be inquisitive about the possession by "heathen savages" of a "complex and ancient system of ethics." But he has lacked the skill to hide absurdities and incongruities. So little real are the queen and her kingdom that neither sympathy nor regret is excited when Great Britain annexes Apahu and we take leave of the gentle Apahuans, "all as drunk as if they had been civilized all their lives."

In its new dress, the Japanese romance of 'The Loyal Ronins' looks less like a dinner-plate and more like a book. The day of flamboyant covers, let us hope, is nearly over; and since less is put on the outside of this standard work, let us further hope that the contents will be more appreciated. The story of the loyal-hearted league of Samurai, or gentlemen, who avenged the death of their master, is one of undying interest to the Japanese, and is perhaps for us the very best mirror of the mind of feudal Japan. Though called a romance, it is in reality a leaf of true history, only slightly colored by the novelist's art. The historic details, and the genuine relics still preserved in the temple in Tokio, not far from the cemetery in which the Ronins are buried, are well described by Mitford in his 'Tales of Old Japan.' The writer once paid a visit of investigation to that part of Tokio in which the culminating act of the story took place, and which now bears socially the same contrast to its former condition as the Pearl or Dey Street of to-day and of a century ago. Though every relic of the past in the form of house or building of any sort had long since disappeared, and lumber-yards stood on the site of old baronial mansions, the streets and alleys still bore the historic names so familiar in the story. The translation of Messrs. Greey and Saito, though far from literal, preserves most of the really characteristic color idiom and phrase of the original, and, being condensed, is much more readable on that account. Besides the honor of further re-translation of his version into German, Italian, French, Swedish, and Spanish, Mr. Greey has been honored with the thanks of the Mikado, and Mr. Saito has been appointed to a secretaryship in the Foreign Office in Tokio, after assisting our Minister, General Foote, during his first experiences in Séoul, Corea. The publishers have wisely retained all the original native illustrations, and reset the text on white paper having the same liberal margins as in the first edition.

Enveloped in a quaint binding, emphasized with cuts of ships of two centuries ago and symbols of the navigation of the past, Mr. Stevenson's 'Treasure Island' is a nautical sketch, yet it is not. It tells of pirates of renown, of buried money on an island beyond the seas; but gives us no description of storms or shipwrecks. Herein we have to thank the author, for one storm at sea is very like another, every manner of shipwreck has been described over and over again, and the often repeated technical resources of the sailor in moments of peril have a monotony with which we are glad on this occasion to dispense. The feminine element is entirely wanting. Notwithstanding this disregard of the conventional rules which ordinarily govern the construction of the nautical yarn, Mr. Steven-

son has written a book which has not a single dull or uninteresting line from the commencement of the opening chapter to the end of the last. The "Treasure Island" is near Savannah. The date of the story is toward the end of the seventeenth or the first part of the eighteenth century. Flint, a noted pirate, buries the money in a spot unknown to his crew. He dies, and the chart he has made of the exact locality falls into the hands of Billy Bones, his first mate. The circumstances under which it passes from his possession into that of Jim Hawkins, the son of a tavern-keeper, and subsequently into the care of Dr. Livesay and Squire Trelawney, are graphically described in the opening chapters of the book. Squire Trelawney fits out a schooner for the recovery of the treasure. How he fared we must not relate.

"George Fleming" has again chosen Italy as the scene of a novel, though in exchanging Rome for Leghorn, and in choosing her characters from humble fisher folk, she has placed herself on entirely new ground. Yet to name the characters in 'Vestigia' is to suggest familiar and oft-tried combinations—an old fisherman and his lovely daughter, an ardent young patriot with his foster-brother, handsome, gallant, prevailing ("A Balbi does as he pleases"), and, in the background, a secret society striving to win liberty by the hardest of tyranny. "To stab a King is no more an act of vengeance than the sentence of a judge." But the reader who presupposes therefrom a commonplace novel will find that he has never been so completely and so agreeably surprised. Such a story puts the reviewer to extreme disadvantage. To praise it as it deserves would be treason to his own readers as well as to the author, for due comment upon the plot would betray its secret. Not that the interest, the surpassing charm of the story depends on mystery, or on involved intrigue. It is not the solving of a riddle, but the development of two or three simple, noble motives; and the conclusion, however tragic, throws over the whole previous story a clear white light of truth and purity. The action is much simpler than anything the author has before attempted, and her style has gained correspondingly. Her hand is more sure, and the lines are more distinct. There is only so much of the fair Italian sky and sea as to throw into relief the figures, but so deft, so sympathetic is the choice, the few pages give the sense that all Italy is in the book. Realistic study has led us into such darkened, grimy ways that it is like a ray of returning sunshine to feel again that humble life need not be low life, that laborious days need not always be sordid and base, that hope, and filial love, and unselfish devotion illumine the poorest home.

Since we have barred ourselves from telling the story, some parallels may be pointed out in which it is not so much the likeness that is remarkable as the difference in the likeness. "Yes, Dino, *because* you love me," falls on the ear in the old cadence, "loved I not honor more"; but it is the sweet, full voice of a slender girl with sad eyes. Less obvious, but more curious, is the comparison with Browning's poem, "The Statue and the Bust." There is no resemblance in character, incident, or intention, but the two themes, the two motives are identical—the power, the value of *conduct*, wholly apart from the immediate, tangible result. Browning approaches it from the negative side,

—"the unlit lamp and the ungirt loin"—

George Fleming from the affirmative—"the sense of having lived a faithful life." They who have suffered disappointment in far nobler causes may take heart from the words of Valdez in his high-walled cell:

"When a man has meant anything strongly there is never any real going back again for him. It isn't the failure or the success, it's the purpose, the will that is in him, that makes the difference. . . . To keep faith at any price in any fashion; to do it, even grudgingly, counting the cost, looking back at the world with all its temptations, yet, even then, moving away from them, however slowly—well, even that is enough to give some touch of divine dignity to a life. It is reaching the end without the glow of triumph, but still the end *is* reached. We can't all of us claim the praise as well as the victory, and yet the victory is there."

'Newport' is Mr. Lathrop's best work, and this, without counting for his benefit the advantage the book gains by contrast with the last story having the same scene, 'Aquarelle.' He has made as good a picture of the life there as could be made by one who starts with a distinct *parti pris*. To him the pageant seems hollow, and the best of the participants walking as in a vain show. An opportunity, therefore, is still left to give the whole Newport as it is, not merely as it is colored to one set of eyes. It is a unique opportunity, in this day when every possible field for fiction has been so carefully searched. The world has perhaps never before seen so much money gathered in one place for pure amusement, in the absence of all traditional restraints, with so few recognized claims upon it, and with no original, innate ideals. Of all this, not so much has yet been given as of New York thirty years ago, in the 'Potiphar Papers' and in 'Prue and I.' True, Newport is a subject vastly more complicated, but so much the more is it worth study. Mr. Lathrop has chosen his characters well, selecting them as types without sacrificing individuality. With incidents he is less happy. A tragic catastrophe may come as well one way as another, so that we take no exception on that point; but the whole acquaintance of the hero and heroine is strangely managed. It is in the line of French plots to choose mature personages, to study second or later love, but character and conduct must correspond. Oliphant and Mrs. Gifford are well conceived and well posed for their parts, but they immediately act as absurdly as the youngest of young lovers. The critic who pronounces a thing unreal is always liable to be confronted with actual fact, yet improbable is the gentlest word that can be used of the incident of the letter. That Oliphant should not have destroyed it is as unlikely as that the lady receiving it should then and there have felt an "impulse of revenge," for which afterward a lifetime of repentance seems too short. Aside from one or two infelicities of phrase, there is marked gain in style. Old Thorburn's last appearance is a needless shock, a grotesque effect out of place. But there is almost none of that over-refining which has sometimes become whimsical. If once or twice the fancy for subtlety betrays the writer, as at the end of chapter eighteen, it is really powerful in conceptions so entirely different as the picture of the old schemer waiting in his web, or that of the light on the dead man's face.

Washington, like Newport, presents aspects of society unknown elsewhere, if, indeed, it is not necessary to say life, instead of society in the accepted sense. Newport is, at least, growing toward a permanent, distinctly outlined form of society. On the contrary, in Washington, small as any constant nucleus has ever been, its influence is now slight in the scale as weighed against the very new money and the crowd of mere passers-by who take a month there as a part of the winter's amusement. It is no 'prentice hand that can combine such fluctuating material in a society novel. 'Democracy' was only a sketch, as rough as it was clever. Mrs. Burnett imagined a story of great interest and power, but it depended for its accidents, only, upon Washington. The author of 'Her Washington Season' has been moved by the dark shadows in these pictures to give what, in a confusion of metaphors, she calls "the other side of the mirror," "under the rose." Consequently we are introduced, under Southern auspices, to a sublimated world of secretaries and diplomats, with "the Executive Mansion" (*sic*) always closing the vista. The point of view is that of the more modest newspaper correspondent, and the style a late survival from *Godey's Lady's Book* of forty years ago. The leading incident is the hackneyed one from German fiction, of the separation of husband and wife on the wedding-day. Throughout there is betrayed about an equal ignorance of the ideas of counts and honorables, and of the capacities of $750 a year. It is useless to dispute the established dictum that anybody can write a novel, but at least it takes more than well-intentioned inoffensiveness to write a good one.

The marked advance shown in 'The Pagans' upon any previous book by the writer makes it worthy of a consideration not due to its actual merit. Such plot as it has would involve a serious question of honorable obligation, were it not for the impossibility of the supposed circumstances. Some pleasant local coloring and some gentle sarcasms upon Boston superstitions have gained for the book a momentary fame, but, for ourselves, without meaning to take it too seriously, we find much to disapprove in both subject and treatment. We are shown a little band of artists who have vowed themselves to truth only; but each man is to be his own judge of truth. Christian morality is a failure. The device of the book is: "Bind on thy shoulder the thread of paganism; throw stones at the glass of piety." The men are capable of haranguing, in the presence of a good woman, about "the loftiness of vice" and "the splendid caress of sin," while they ask, "Who now would read a novel about virtuous people?" And he who pronounces "marriage a crime" does not hesitate to say, to the same woman, of his young wife: "Her innocence bores me." No further proof would seem to be needed that the book is bad. On the contrary, it is only illogical and weak. To maintain in theory and by practice the sacred right of suicide is the extent of the protest against established conventions; and the worst sin in the eyes of the Pagans is to marry a daughter of the Philistines and to paint pictures which her kindred will buy. Deeper study of life should have shown the writer that, restraints once broken as by his premises, there is no way onward but downward. It may be better to be false to reality than to be immoral; but why be either? As with 'To Leeward,' why choose subjects where success requires such dangerous representations? "The philosophical novel, . . . the study of scientific atheism, . . . a study of life with God subtracted from it" (as the author called it) has been attempted before, with a success that proved the lasting condemnation of the book. That Mr. Bates has failed is perhaps to his own moral credit, or perhaps to the traditions which he and his would deny if they could. "Where is Puritanism?" triumphantly demands a scoffing Pagan. "In this very book," is the instant answer. Unsuspected by the author, its influence so leavens his own imagination and his consciousness of his readers, that to carry the story to logical conclusions is impossible. Our argument may be more weighty than this special book demands, but 'The Pagans' represents a class that ought not to be encouraged. Not the least of the harm done by doubtful books is so to confuse the moral sense that a novel shall seem good if it only, however falsely, leaves out the bad.

It is difficult to make out upon what theory of novel-writing are produced such stories as

'Prusias,' and, indeed, the majority of the series to which it belongs. Certainly not upon any supposition that pleasure is to be derived from them, for a more hard and brutal story could not be imagined than this and the one preceding. Nor can instruction be really their object, for, though the present book deals with an incident so significant and, in a way, so heroic as the revolt of the gladiators, the writer declares frankly that his hero and principal personages are all fictitious, and that the facts even have been altered to suit his story. The notes are very curious, presuming that a person capable of being interested in so elaborate and artificial a story does not know the a b c of classical allusion. It is a pity that evidently superior ability in translating cannot find more worthy material.

Two tales from Mrs. Oliphant's busy pen fall together upon our table. 'The Wizard's Son' is in her less pleasing manner, the plot being of the mysterious and exciting kind; but she manages her old castle and her enchanter or her ghost better than anybody else now writing can. The reader's approval of the tale will vary in proportion to his willingness to put up with unexplained mysteries, but all will agree in the charm of the young girls. 'Hester' herself is as delightful as any that Mrs. Oliphant has ever drawn, while so different from the others as to strengthen the opinion long prevailing in circles where her books are enjoyed, that she must take each one carefully from life, for how could one imagination supply so many? We by no means intend to suggest a tired pen or an exhausted fancy when we say we wish this particular plot, or rather the principal situation, had been Mrs. Oliphant's subject in earlier, fresher years. It is new and original, turning not at all for its main interest upon wooing or winning, but upon them utual relations of two women—but one is little more than a girl, "fresh, fair, strong, . . . like her namesake in the poem." The other is at the end of a long, well-filled life. "For the rest of her days she meant to keep Sunday resting from her labors." The eager, rash sincerity and unselfishness of the one, in contrast with the distrust and jealousy of the other, afford a study more interesting than most love stories.

The little sketch 'Old Lady Mary' is understood to be also by Mrs. Oliphant, although her name does not appear. It may be called a sequel to 'The Little Pilgrim,' but it is the very reverse of it. It is an extremely well-managed story of a *revenant* (ghost is not at all the word). The picture of soft, gentle age, *la vie cossue*, as the French say, is almost too good, as it for the moment distracts from the special effect intended; but reflection restores the relative value. The pathetic helplessness of the repentant is most touching, and to not a few there will be something painful in its suggestion of possible experience. It was exceptionally fine art that could carry out the idea on the simplest well-known lines of folk-lore, though starting at the opposite extreme of human life.

Fallacies: A View of Logic from the Practical Side. By Alfred Sidgwick. D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

CAN anything be done by systematic precept to cultivate the power of criticising arguments? This is usually supposed to be one of the aims of logical study, but it is also a widespread opinion shared by some high authorities, that the traditional logic, the logic usually taught in colleges and universities, actually accomplishes little or nothing in this direction. Thus the editor of *Mind*, the English quarterly devoted to psychology and philosophy, who is himself Professor of Logic in University College, wrote, a few years ago: "For all that appears, the adherent of the old logic gets little or no benefit from his science the moment an argument becomes truly complex and passes beyond a small number of rigid forms." Mr. Sidgwick is strongly of the same mind. He says (p. 289): "Nothing could well be more confusing than an attempt to apply the cumbrous machinery of the syllogism to arguments met with in real life. And whoever has tampered with his mother-wit by substituting for it a clumsy logic depending on elaborate mnemonics, must no doubt pay the penalty in loss of power, so long as the mischief remains."

In the present volume, the latest addition to the "International Scientific Series," Mr. Sidgwick, who is already known to readers of *Mind* as a writer of originality and power, makes an extremely vigorous attempt to show a more excellent way. Whereas the universal practice of logicians has been to discuss fallacy in a subordinate and half-apologetic fashion, he brings this subject to the front and makes it the *raison d'être* of logic. Viewing logic as "a machine for combating fallacy," he takes the word fallacy in the broadest possible sense, as signifying "any mental confusion whatever" (p. 173). Then, as "any pretended assertion may be, 1, meaningless; 2, mere unsupported assertion; 3, insecurely supported" (p. 24), we get a primary, threefold classification of fallacies, which is further subdivided in the sequel. The whole treatment is a very marked advance upon anything that has been accomplished in the same line, even by Whately, Mill, or Bain.

One signal merit of Mr. Sidgwick's discussion is his firm grasp upon the distinction between discovery and proof. He never allows his readers to forget that his business is solely with the latter. Any one who knows how even Professor Bain has slipped in this respect, will appreciate Mr. Sidgwick's unwavering consistency. But, above all, the book is to be praised for being everywhere thoroughly alive. The author has his eye fixed, not on the artificially simple, often pedantic and frivolous arguments of ordinary logical text-books, but on the actual arguments which do duty in the world. He insists, too, again and again, that the critical habit may easily be pushed to excess. It is only on occasion that we may profitably undertake the exhaustive examination of a piece of reasoning. But such examination must sometimes be made, and we can cordially say that for doing the work well, the thorough assimilation of Mr. Sidgwick's book would be an invaluable preparation.

While the author never loses sight of his immediate practical purpose, he throws incidentally a flood of light on some matters of speculative interest. Thus the well-worn but still puzzling question as to whether the syllogism is a *petitio principii*, and the difficult subject of the mutual relations of deduction, induction, and analogy, receive at his hands a fresh and luminous treatment. Here and there we notice a slight slip or oversight, which will serve to whet the interest of the critical reader. Thus we are told (p. 221): "Any categorical argument may be expressed in hypothetical form, and vice versa." The last part of the statement needs restriction. All depends upon whether the "major premise" is or is not what Goodwin's Greek Grammar calls a general condition, or what Mr. Sidgwick calls an abstract proposition. If it is not, then the transformation is impossible, though some logicians, as Jevons, have attempted the feat and imagined themselves successful.

On one point of more importance we feel compelled to register our dissent. The preface announces that "this book is intended mainly for the general reader. That is to say, it requires no previous technical training, and is written as much as possible from the unprofessional point of view." The fact is, that whoever enters on the book without an understanding of all the ordinary logical phraseology, will find his path a thorny one, and will probably soon abandon it in despair. But teachers of logic, if not utterly incorrigible, will find Mr. Sidgwick a most stimulating guide, and through them it is to be hoped that his lessons may be impressed where most they are needed. Only, if any such instruction is to be effectively given, it must be by means of examples. Any one who should bring together a good number of live arguments of a tolerably homogeneous character, and not too abstruse, arranging them so that they could be conveniently studied in the light of Mr. Sidgwick's 'Fallacies,' would be doing a good service to the cause of education.

The Life and Times of Seargent Smith Prentiss. By Joseph D. Shields. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1884. 8vo, pp. 442.

MR. SHIELDS remarks upon an unreported speech of Prentiss's—"one of the greatest efforts of his life"—at a certain Southwestern river town and county seat: "Alas! there is no spot upon which to erect even the epitaph of *Ilium fuit:* the remorseless maw of the Mississippi has long since swallowed up the site, and even the name of the little village has been erased from the family record of the State of Mississippi." One cannot but feel that Time has, more or less completely, done for this orator's memory what the Father of Waters did for Princeton. The present tribute of an old pupil may symbolize, in its substantial and costly form, a fresh levee raised against the stream of oblivion, which in the end will nevertheless prevail over it. The dam is not altogether new; on the contrary, so much of the material has been derived (with all frankness) from the well-known brotherly 'Memoir' reprinted some five years ago, that only the age of the writer, and his devotion to the friend of his early childhood, can excuse this fresh tax upon the book-buying public. The few additional personal reminiscences and anecdotes are not striking enough to be quoted, and throw no new light on Prentiss's character. Many of the details of his political career in Mississippi possess but little interest for outsiders, and, we fear, at this date, even for Mississippians. Two reports made while he was Chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the House are given, and one, which relates to Indian land titles, shows how completely he was prepared to follow State sovereignty into rebellion. The founding of Vicksburg is described somewhat minutely as an introduction to Prentiss's land speculation, which here receives fuller treatment than at the hands of his brother. The second duel with Foote is also much more particularly recorded, and the same may be said of the circumstances attending the defence of Judge Wilkinson, at Louisville, Ky. To this discreditable service Prentiss is here represented as coming down the river in a state of hilarity which caused the gravest apprehensions on the part of his client. Mr. Shields's view of duelling and of unpunished homicide is noticeably more wholesome than that which prevails among Southerners generally, though he appears to be confused at times by intercepting notions of honor and chivalry. He recalls the wasteful and costly habit among young men of practising pistol-firing "at the word," with "a tape-line, the height of a man, stretched upon an upright pole or tree for the target." Prentiss joined in this, sharing the "idea" of his associates, "to be always ready for the *chances* and changes of this Southern life." We have the correlative of this idea in his settled unwillingness to prosecute a criminal for a capital offence. "He did not like to take 'blood-money'—that

is, to receive pay for helping to have a man hanged." In this, as in so many other ways, he had become as Southern as any native of his adopted section.

Mr. Shields has thought himself fortunate in rescuing from the files of a New Orleans paper what he terms "the last effort of Prentiss's master mind," namely, his professional defence of the Cuban filibuster Lopez. His argument was unsuccessful then, and it is now flimsy enough in the light of the lessons of the *Alabama* case. It might better have slumbered in the journal for which it was reported. We learn some facts, not without interest, concerning Prentiss's descendants (a son perished in the civil war), and the volume is still further distinguished by a portrait of Prentiss, apparently from an oil-painting, though one is at first inclined to infer a daguerreotype. The 'Memoir' was unaccompanied by any.

Flowers and their Pedigrees. By Grant Allen. D. Appleton & Co. 1884. Pp. 246, 12mo.

THIS is one of the popular-science books of a kind now common in England, in which material perhaps first used in popular lectures, and then as magazine articles, is finally collected into a volume, and a part of the impression supplied for the American market. The present volume is easy and interesting reading, is well adapted to excite and in the main to gratify curiosity as to how a daisy came to be what it is and where it is; how a strawberry plant is related very closely to a cinquefoil, and less nearly to a bramble and a rose, and so of other genealogies, some fairly made out and some not so, but none the less confidently asserted. If its teachings are often crude and not altogether safe, still the audience addressed are sure to be charmed and may not be harmed by the doctrine that wheat is a degenerate lily, and that all showy blossoms began by assuming a yellow color, and are on the way to be white, purple, and blue in succession. The sober-minded naturalist who turns over the pages may now and then be made uncomfortable, almost as much by the way in which a true or a reasonable proposition is presented as by the author's habit of passing off unverified hypothesis and guesses as established truths. For, from the strictly scientific point of view, this little book, and other productions of the same facile pen, may be characterized as Darwinism made easy by turning it topsy-turvy. This "high priori" way is as easy as possible when the ideas have been supplied. But Darwin's way of work was the exact opposite of Mr. Allen's. If the latter had taken more to observation under guiding ideas, he might have explained the actual mode in which the pollen of the daisy he describes is placed within reach of visiting insects. And if his genius for speculation were better instructed, we should hardly have been taught that the strawberry originated in Europe from a certain white potentilla, and has been distributed by birds across severing oceans, even the Chilian strawberry "carried over at first, no doubt, by some weather-driven bird to its southern Pacific habitation."

Twelve Months in an English Prison. By Susan Willis Fletcher. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 12mo, pp. 478.

THE heroine of a spiritualistic *cause célèbre*, Mrs. Susan Willis Fletcher, who was lately convicted of obtaining money on false pretences, and imprisoned for a year in England, has written a book about it. It is not very savory reading, though the picture of the Fletcher family is not without a lesson. The victim, a Mrs. Hart Davies, an attractive but weak and dissolute English woman of means, employed Mr. Fletcher as a magnetic physician; and having speedily contracted an intimacy with him which was encouraged by the wife, she soon after left her husband and went to live with the Fletchers, who represented to her that they had communications from her deceased mother (to whom she was devotedly attached) directing her to place her property in the hands of the Fletchers, which she accordingly did.

The whole party then went to America together, and a curious party it was. Mrs. Fletcher had been married at fourteen, divorced, and married again, and gives her family scandals with nauseating fulness. Mrs. Hart Davies had been divorced for adultery, and had now abandoned her second husband. One of her former lovers, a Captain Lindmark, was also of the party, a man who was not above volunteering details of the previous *liaison*, and even giving up the lady's compromising letters. The whole party was evidently an extremely emotional one. They styled themselves a "Social Trinity," in which Mr. Fletcher represented wisdom, Mrs. Fletcher work, and Mrs. Hart Davies love, and love of a very demonstrative kind, with "countless kisses" for the gentleman. After a while Mr. Fletcher is supplemented by a young clergyman, and then by Captain Lindmark, and at last by a Mr. Mack, alias McGeary, who separates her from the Fletchers and brings about the final catastrophe.

Mixed up with these easy attachments and others that are only hinted at, were the usual jealousies of each other and of temporary additions to this elevated circle. Generally the names and details are given with libellous frankness. At last comes the final quarrel, followed by abortive charges of larceny in this country, and the trial and conviction in London on the charge of obtaining money on false pretences. The trial seems to have been a fair enough one. The main thing that Mrs. Fletcher objected to was the exclusion of evidence of other spiritualists as to their belief in spirit communications; but it is difficult to see what bearing it had on the case. It was not expert evidence. The matter was not one of reputation, where common repute is a fact in issue. The jury simply had to decide whether the special representations made by the Fletchers to Mrs. Hart Davies about her mother were fraudulent or not; and the trustworthiness of other communications to other people at other times had no apparent legal bearing. There was no doubt that the representations were made, and the jewels, etc., given to the Fletchers. The Judge told the jury very properly that it would be shocking to suppose that an honest belief in spiritualism was a crime according to the laws of England, and that the only question for them was whether the pretended messages were fraudulent concoctions of the defendants; and it seems pretty plain from the evidence that the jury might have accepted every dogma of spiritualism, and yet have decided that Mrs. Hart Davies was worked upon, through her vicious propensities, to part with her property under fraudulent pretences of messages whose improbability appears very strongly on their face.

The Westminster prison, to which Mrs. Fletcher was sentenced, is described as an unhealthy place, where she suffered from cold, darkness, and hunger; and she gives a shocking description of the systematic means used by abandoned women under sentence there to seduce the young girls to immoral practices on leaving—remarks which no doubt are too often true of our own jails.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ayres, Anne. The Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg. New edition. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Corey, N. C. Not Like Other Girls. A novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Emerson, Ellen Russell. Indian Myths, or Legends, Traditions, and Symbols of the Aborigines of America, compared with those of Other Countries. Illustrated. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Washburn, E. W. The Spanish Masters: an Outline of the History of Painting in Spain. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.00.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1884.

The Week.

THE vote taken in the House on the Trade Dollar Bill is probably the true measure of the present strength of the silver heresy in Congress, and of the attitude of the two parties in reference to it. The clause which required that the amount of silver in the trade dollars should be deducted from the regular coinage of two millions per month, was stricken out, on Mr. Bland's motion, by a vote of 131 to 118. The majority consisted of 112 Democrats and 19 Republicans, the minority of 37 Democrats and 81 Republicans. Three-fourths of the Democrats and one-fifth of the Republicans declared themselves to be still in favor of eighty-five-cent dollars. The division shows very clearly that the bill has no chance in the Senate in its present shape. It proves also that the Democratic party is as vicious and untrustworthy as ever touching questions relating to the currency and finance, and that the Republicans have made wholesome progress in the right direction since the passage of the Silver Bill. The Democratic idea that gold is only good for aristocrats, and that the poor man needs a poor dollar, is still firmly rooted in the councils of the party. This notion pervades the Irish section of the party especially. Gold is associated in their minds with England. With them all gold is British gold, and they fancy that they are showing proper contempt for their enemies in the old world by rejecting the standard of value which prevails there. This is a peculiarly happy Irish conception, and it fits in very well with the notion that a man who works for wages is entitled to have eighty-five cents when he has earned a dollar.

Notwithstanding the adverse majority in the House of Representatives, it is plain that the movement initiated by the New York Chamber of Commerce a few weeks since in favor of a suspension of the silver coinage has had an important effect throughout the country. It has been followed by similar action in St. Louis, Galveston, and many other less important trade centres. It has drawn attention to an evil of the first magnitude, and led to renewed discussion of the silver question in the press. Even the Chicago *Tribune* has been moved to say that we have silver dollars enough for present needs, and that the coinage ought to be suspended until other nations show a disposition to coöperate with us in the interest of bi-metallism. The colloquy between Belford and Kelley while the Trade Dollar Bill was pending, was extremely entertaining. The Colorado statesman planted himself on strictly protectionist grounds, and demanded that the Government should continue to buy silver bullion in order that the producers of the articles might get a good price for it. He taunted Kelley with inconsistency and backsliding, and truckling to foreign influence, because the latter had introduced a bill to suspend the coinage for two years. This was a poor return, in his judgment, for the favors shown to pig iron in the tariff. Mr. Kelley retorted that pig lead was as highly favored as any other pig in the tariff schedule, and that since lead was the residuary product of the silver mines of Colorado, of scarcely less value than the silver itself, no charge of backsliding could rest against him. Another member suggested, in all soberness, that a duty be imposed on foreign silver in order to secure the purchases of the American mint to the home producer. In the discussion of the bill, brief as it was, the opponents of the silver coinage had a very marked advantage. If a general discussion could be brought on, very important results might be anticipated, and the Republican party would certainly be the gainers by it. The timidity of their leaders in the Senate is pitiable in the extreme.

The much-debated Blair bill to "aid in the establishment and temporary support of common schools" has passed the Senate. It proposes to give during the next ten years sums of money, beginning with $7,000,000, and running down to $1,000,000, to the various States and Territories in aid of popular education. The share of each State or Territory is to depend on the proportion borne by those persons over ten years of age within its limits who cannot read and write, to the total number of such persons within the limits of the United States. But no State or Territory is to get any of the money which does not itself expend on education during the first five years a sum equal to one-third of the amount received from the United States, and during the last five years a sum equal to that amount. There seems to be no reason for the bill except the fact that there is in some States much illiteracy with which the local authorities do not try to cope effectually, and that there is in the United States Treasury a good deal of surplus money. That the distribution will cease at the end of ten years, we have no expectation. We are probably witnessing in this bill the beginning of the assumption by the general Government of the whole care of popular education. For nothing is more certain than that the local sense of responsibility about popular education, and willingness to make sacrifices for it, will be steadily weakened in the very States in which it is most necessary they should be strong, from the first day on which the jingle of Federal school money is heard. The experiment is, therefore, a most momentous one. Its educational features are probably far less important than the political ones.

The Conference Committee of Independent Republicans have issued another circular, calling upon all persons who sympathize with the objects aimed at by the organization to send contributions of money to the Treasurer, Mr. Joseph W. Harper, jr., to be used in defraying the necessary expenses of correspondence, publication, and circulation of documents, etc. They say that they propose "to take every proper measure to promote the nomination of a Republican candidate who is a satisfactory exponent of the progressive spirit of the party, and who would command the hearty support of independent voters." Speaking of the reform spirit of the time, the Committee say that it "has constantly proved its sturdy independence at the polls, even to the point of withholding its vote when its vote could not be given without infidelity to political honesty and to Republican principle." This is a frank statement of an undisputed fact, and it has been made many times lately in all quarters where independent sentiment finds expression. We observe that this frequent iteration does not meet the approval of the boomers, and in the *Tribune* of Saturday morning there is a feeling protest against further declarations of this sort. The *Tribune* thinks that hostile remarks about any candidate who has a good many friends will be likely to produce unpleasant feeling, and make party success difficult in November. It believes that when a candidate is supported by a good many sound Republicans who think his nomination desirable, the fact should be noticed with respect. "It is rather a bad habit," says the *Tribune*, "about nomination time, to declare that this or that candidate cannot be elected."

Yet, if we remember rightly, the *Tribune* followed this "bad habit" with commendable vigor four years ago by declaring almost daily, in reference to General Grant's candidacy, that, aside from the third-term objection, it was folly to nominate him, since his election would be difficult if not impossible. Its steady adherence to this view at that time had great influence in defeating Grant's nomination. It took the ground then that it was much better to say, "about nomination time," that a certain candidate could not be elected, than to keep still about it and be forced to make the confession after the blunder of nominating such a candidate had been committed. That was a sound position then and it is equally sound to-day. The third-term contingent, the immortal "306," were a large body of what were called sound Republicans at that time, and they were relying for success on the same specious argument which the *Tribune* makes use of now, that "any man whom the voters of the Republican party, acting with reasonable freedom and through a fairly organized convention, honor sufficiently to select as their candidate, is exceedingly likely to be preferred by the people to the nominee of an effete, incompetent, reactionary, and essentially Bourbon Democracy." The peril of relying upon the effete Bourbon Democracy as a means of forcing the independent voters to support a man whom they do not like, was demonstrated in this State two years ago, and we do not believe the Republican leaders will venture to repeat the experiment this year.

The announcement is made that a conference of Democratic leaders is to be held in Balti-

more the last of this month for the purpose of reconciling the differences of opinion which prevail in the party and prevent harmonious action. There will be a banquet, and all the great men of the party are expected to attend. The plan is not new. It has been tried by the same party before, and with most unsatisfactory results. Somebody always upsets the harmony by telling the truth too frankly. The trouble is, that what the Democratic party needs is not a reconciliation of differences of opinion, but courage. An overwhelming majority of its members believe in their hearts in tariff reform, but only a minority have the courage to avow their belief openly. The rest of them have the curious notion, which no amount of defeat can destroy, that if they keep still on the tariff the people will regain confidence in their general ability to administer the Government. The news was sent all the way from Paris the other day, that Mr. Hendricks was convinced that the way for the party to succeed was to settle its differences on the tariff question. General Gordon spent several hours with Mr. Tilden, and announced to the country as the result of his talk that the Sage made no allusion to the tariff as an issue, but was sure the party could succeed by demanding "reform." A conference of "leaders" who have this kind of advice to offer will be pretty certain to leave the party in the same condition that it was before.

Mr. Dezendorf's testimony before the Sherman Outrage Committee on Monday did not contain anything especially new, but it served to put on record a concise statement of the evils of Mahonism. He said that the Mahone Readjuster Coalition, instead of securing free and fair elections, had the effect of making the elections more unfair; that the coalition existed solely because Mahone was known to have absolute control of all the Federal offices in the State, and that it would have gone to pieces in fifteen minutes if the support of the Administration had been withdrawn; and finally, that if Hancock and English had been elected, the whole Coalition party "would be in the Democratic party to-day—Mahone and all of them." Nobody can successfully dispute the entire accuracy of these statements. Mahone was merely a political speculator, a veritable Johnny or Mike, who went into politics because he saw an opportunity for doing a good stroke of business. He counted upon two elements for success, and he used them both without scruple. The first was the ignorance and blind partisanship of the negro vote, and the second was the unorganized but easily inflamed repudiation sentiment among the less scrupulous portion of the white population. By aid of the National Administration he combined these elements into a party which gained control of the State, stained its record ineffaceably with repudiation enactments, and sent Mahone himself to the United States Senate, where he offered his vote to either party which would give the best terms. That is the truth of Mahonism, and it is a lasting stain upon Northern Republicans that as a party they countenanced and encouraged it.

The riot in Cincinnati has, at all events, had the effect of stimulating the work of reforming the criminal procedure. The monstrous rule which enables the prisoner to exclude from his jury any one who has read about his crime in the newspapers, and has formed an opinion about it, has been abolished. The prisoner's twenty-three peremptory challenges have also been cut down to six, and the State's increased from two to four. In other words, the rights of the community in the prosecution of crime begin to be recognized. A blow should also be struck at technical objections. Most failures of justice occur through these. Judges ought not to be compelled to order new trials on points which the full bench does not consider to have any bearing on the merits of the case.

The rapidity with which "goelism," whether practised by mobs or individuals, affects manners, was curiously illustrated by the performances of a man in Cincinnati on Monday week, who tried in vain to catch a street car after dark. Failing to overtake it or to attract the attention of the conductor, he took out his revolver, and fired two shots at it. He probably reasoned somewhat in this way: "The management of these car companies has long been intolerable. They run too few cars, and their conductors are negligent and insolent. This fellow is not looking out for passengers as he ought to be, or he would have seen me. Complaining of him at the office, even if I knew his number, would do no good, for they are all thieves together. The courts, too, are corrupt and sluggish. I must therefore revoke the powers which I have delegated to the officials of this State and city for my protection, and must stop this car in the natural way in which cars were stopped by primeval man before states were founded." So bang, bang went his pistol. It is a pity, almost, that he should have been arrested before the conductor and the passengers had dissolved *their* connection with the State, and begun to pepper him in self-defence.

The proposal of the Secretary of the Treasury to meet the evil of undervaluation of goods by offering a fourth of the gross proceeds of the duties, fines, and penalties recovered to informers, will meet with the emphatic condemnation of everybody who remembers the working of this system in New York ten years ago, and who cares much either for commercial or official morality. The working of it as revealed by the Congressional investigation, both in the Dodge and other cases, was simply a national disgrace. Informing became a regular trade, and was pursued freely in order to extort money from the victims, either directly or by compelling them to employ certain lawyers, and Government officials met in conclave to divide the spoils wrung in this way from merchants of whose real innocence there was no reasonable doubt. Much of this money, too, undoubtedly went to swell the Republican campaign funds, just as the high salaries of the city officials help now to fill the treasury of the Democratic "halls." The whole system was, in fact, at every stage steeped in fraud and villany, and fostered the worst passions of human nature. A revival of it would be a step backward towards barbarism. The true remedy, the rational and enlightened one, for undervaluation is, as Mr. Hewitt pointed out a day or two ago, the substitution of specific for ad-valorem duties, or the lowering of ad valorem duties so as to make the profit of fraud not worth the risk.

The decline in wheat and in railway rates has not led to any marked increase in the export trade, but has stimulated the interior movement of grain very decidedly. The distribution of flour, wheat, corn, and oats from Chicago to points between that place and the seaboard has been large and continues active. This must lead to a very considerable revival in general trade in the near future, but its effects are not yet apparent. The demand for dry goods is still sluggish and fitful. The iron and coal trades have relapsed into stagnation. The promise of settled spring weather which was given early in the week was later frustrated by snow storms, tornadoes, and bleak winds. The week closes with a listless tone in all departments of trade. Even the shipment of $2,600,000 gold excited no remark, and the rates for money were not affected by it. Business at the Stock Exchange has hinged upon the report of an expected restoration of rates by the Trunk Line Pool. Diligent inquiry has failed to confirm the rumor. It is believed that the Erie Company made some efforts for an advance in rates, and ascertained that the New York Central was willing to coöperate, but that the Pennsylvania declined to accede to the proposal. The conditions which led to the reduction of rates being unchanged, there is obviously no reason for an advance. If the present rates are non-remunerative, any railroad is at liberty to decline the business. But an attempt to establish an advance within a week, or at most a fortnight, of the opening of lake navigation would be attended with almost certain failure.

The Union Club has had another row to deal with, and has suspended a member for five years for telling another he was a "coward and liar," or something of that kind. As usual, his friends are busily fighting against the sentence as too severe, and cite several cases where equally disorderly members got off with less punishment. It appears, from what they say, that one member, who used bad language to another a short time ago, got only three years; while another, who accused a member falsely of cheating at cards, was only sentenced for a similar term. The great Loubat-Turnbull case is still before the courts, and there are said to be several members whose way of life in the club keeps them constantly exposed to judicial pursuit before the Governing Committee. The public rumpus that all these Union Club scandals make, and their lamentably frequent recurrence, suggest the question whether there is not something radically defective in the club discipline. The penalties for drunkenness and disorder and quarrelling can hardly be severe enough, or inflicted frequently enough, or there would be fewer such cases. There must be a considerable number of members

whose walk and conversation make them distinctly unclubbable, and who ought to be watched in a lynx-eyed manner until an opportunity of getting rid of them offers itself. Suspension in such cases is no cure. A man who has to be excluded from a club of gentlemen, even for a week, for ruffianly behavior, surely ought never to have belonged to it, and suspension for three or five years is, accordingly, a little ridiculous. There are no degrees of gentlemanhood. A man is either a gentleman or he is not. If at the age of twenty-five he has not managed to become one, there is no use in giving him more time. It would be funny between individuals to tell a man, "You are such a foul-mouthed ruffian that I really cannot associate with you for one year from this date. Come to me on the first of April next, however, and all will be forgotten."

The *Tribune* on Sunday perpetrated a cruel joke at the expense of Mr. Matthew Arnold and also at the expense of the New York *Times* and the Boston *Advertiser*. It published what purported to be an essay from the pen of "Mr. Arnold" on the subject of Philistinism in Chicago, taken from the *Pall Mall Journal*. The article appeared in the *Tribune* of April 6, under date of London, April 5. It did not purport to have been cabled from London, yet it could not have reached New York in any other way if the date were correct. The essay was a fair caricature of Mr. Matthew Arnold's ideas, but its style was so widely different from his that no one familiar with his writings could have been deceived by it. The Boston *Advertiser* copies the article, prudently changing the *Pall Mall Journal* (there is no such paper) to *Pall Mall Gazette*, and inserting the prænomen "Matthew" after the word "Mr." The *Times* makes "Mr. Arnold's" solicitude for the reputation of "Obermann" in America the subject of burlesque. The *Tribune* has "got a rise" out of the *Times's* funny man, but it may be questioned whether the winnings of the game justify such a breach of good taste.

The conviction of Mr. Edmund Yates, of the London *World*, and his sentence to four months' imprisonment, is an exceedingly disagreeable thing for him, but the wonder is that it has not befallen him long ago, in spite of all precautions. The business of publishing social tittle-tattle in any community in which people are in the habit of resenting scandal in the courts, is always a dangerous one for an editor, for sometimes the most deadly bits of gossip are really the most innocent looking on the surface. What is called "society journalism," too, in England, is really kept going by people in society, who profess to be horrified by it. *Truth* and the *World* are largely supplied with their social gossip by gentlemen and ladies whom nobody suspects of it, and the temptation to them to stab an enemy must sometimes be overwhelming. In fact, the Yates misfortune is interesting mainly as an illustration of how the thing is done. The paragraph for which he is to go to jail was forwarded him by Lady Stradbroke, the young wife of a very old man, and doubtless had malice at the bottom of it, and yet it had every outward mark of authenticity. Moreover, Lady Stradbroke was in the habit of sending in these things and getting paid for them. She experienced the supreme bitterness, it is said, when the libel was first exposed and before its source was known, of hearing her husband say, at his own table, that the author of it ought to be "tarred and feathered." One result of the whole affair will, doubtless, be to take a good deal of the spice out of society journalism. Contributors will be badly scared, and editors made overcautious. There will be fewer paragraphs beginning: "What is this I hear about," etc.

Whatever may be the reasons moving the Government of Great Britain to recognize the sovereignty of Portugal over the mouth of the Congo and the regions adjacent thereto, they are not binding upon other Powers, and the ratification of the treaty seems more likely to bring up an international question than definitively to settle one. The ratification of the treaty by Parliament itself is uncertain, and the arguments brought against it by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce and other commercial bodies in the United Kingdom are of a kind to stir up opposition among all nations having, or expecting to have, commercial interests in the vast country discovered by Stanley and partially explored by DeBrazza. The Manchester protest contends that the declared object of the treaty, "to promote the development of commerce and civilization on the African continent," would be completely frustrated by putting the entrance of the Congo valley under the control of the greedy and unscrupulous cabal which constitutes the court of Lisbon. The proposed treaty is to remain in force ten years, at the end of which time the whole subject of rights, privileges, customs dues, transit dues, and commercial regulations of all kinds will come up for readjustment. But then Portugal will be in possession, and will hold advantages far greater than she now has, and will be in much better position to dictate terms than now. Her claims at the present time are based upon nothing but an alleged discovery made 300 years ago, which was not followed up by settlement and occupation, and which has, therefore, in the eyes of international law, been long since forfeited. This doctrine has been maintained by all English ministers, Whig and Tory, Liberal and Conservative, from 1853 to the present time, or until the pending treaty was concluded. What was good law for Great Britain during a period of thirty years is good law for other countries now. It may be assumed that no country which has any concern in the present or prospective trade of the Congo country will consider itself estopped from taking such measures as its interests demand, in consequence of any private understanding established between England and Portugal. But if Portugal takes possession, with the assent and concurrence of the first naval and commercial Power on the globe, she will probably remain in possession. It will not be worth while for France to dispute her claims; Germany has no interests to look after in that quarter; Belgium and Holland are not strong enough to do more than enter a protest.

The objections made by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce against the treaty are twofold: First, that commerce would be essentially strangled by Portuguese administration, in spite of all guarantees intended to secure its freedom; second, that Portugal has neither the energy, the means, nor the power to control effectively the large delta of the Congo and the native tribes. "Every move a trader makes in Portuguese possessions," says one of the greatest travellers and authorities on western Africa, "is checkmated by the extortionate demands of a host of needy officials, extracting 100 per cent. upon every article in the name of customs dues and fees." "The trade," he continues, "would soon be strangled, and the present lively movement of commerce would come to a dead halt. By her thirteen treaties with native chiefs on the Congo, by the millions of money she has already expended, by the professions she has always declared before the world that she will defend the natives, England is bound to support the natives against the possibility of this evil being established." The Manchester people affirm that this testimony accords with their own experience. It accords precisely with that of our late Consul in the Island of Madeira, Mr. Du Pont Syle, whose letter we published last week.

The confusion in Egypt, which has been seriously increased by the resignation of the one capable and respectable man left among the Egyptian politicians—Nubar Pasha—seems likely to result before long almost inevitably either in the evacuation of the country by the British, or the complete assumption of the government by British functionaries. Probably nothing staves this off now so much as Mr. Gladstone's shrinking—natural enough at his age, and in his present state of health—from new responsibilities. His heart is set on the reform in the franchise now before the House, and this probably accounts for the way in which affairs in Egypt are being allowed to drift. But they cannot drift much longer. The annexation, open or virtual, of Egypt is going to be very serious, from the difficulty of making the natives into soldiers. In India it has always been found possible, except in the case of the Bengalese, to make excellent soldiers out of the conquered population, but the Egyptian fellahs seem to defy all the professors of the military art to convert them into fighting men. They are probably the only genuine friends of peace in the world. Even Quakers fight if pressed too hard, but the fellah will die first.

There is probably too much importance attached to the occasional interruptions of communication with Khartum. The place is a thousand miles from Cairo by the river, and the river is beset by a more or less hostile force. But it must be remembered that this is probably the most irregular force, in the strict sense of the term, in the world. Some days it is probably large; other days it is small. Some days it is close to the river; other days it is away from it. Some days it is disposed to fight; other days it is lazy, or has gone home to attend to its private affairs.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 2, to TUESDAY, April 8, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate on Thursday the debate on the Blair Education Bill (which appropriated $105,000,000 for education within the States) was continued. Senator Pendleton (Dem., O.) opposed it because he could not find in the Constitution any authority for such a bill. At a Republican Senatorial caucus on that day several amendments proposed by the Caucus Committee were approved by the caucus. Chief among them were propositions to reduce the aggregate appropriation to between $70,000,000 and $80,000,000; to make the money available only upon requisitions by the States under certain restrictions as to accountability, and to require its distribution to counties according to population and illiteracy. Senator Bayard (Dem., Del.) spoke on Friday in opposition to the bill.

The Senate, after a long debate and many amendments, finally passed the Education Bill on Monday night. In its final shape it appropriates $77,000,000 to be distributed among the States in proportion to their illiteracy on the basis of the census of 1880, the payments of the money to extend over a series of eight years. The amount to be distributed the first year is $7,000,000; the second, $10,000,000; the third, $15,000,000; the sums then diminishing at the rate of $2,000,000 annually until the eighth year, when all appropriations shall cease.

The House passed the Indian Appropriation Bill on Friday.

By a vote of 119 yeas to 126 nays, the House on Monday refused to suspend the rules and pass the bill of Mr. Converse (Dem., Ohio) to restore the rates of duty on wool provided by the act of 1867. Eighty Republicans and thirty-eight Democrats voted in the affirmative, and twelve Republicans and one hundred and fourteen Democrats in the negative. The protectionist Democrats in the House are very much disappointed, and declare that the hopes of success for their party in Ohio have been destroyed.

The House Committee on Commerce on Monday authorized ex-Governor Long to present to the Committee on Ways and Means the bill allowing the free importation of foreign materials to be manufactured into articles for the construction, equipment, repairs, outfit, or provisions of American vessels employed in the foreign carrying trade. The aim of the bill is to remove the discriminations against the American manufacturers which exist under the law allowing manufactured articles for use in shipbuilding to come in free of duty, by placing raw materials for the same purpose on an equal footing.

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads on Friday, by a vote of 8 to 2, resolved that it is inexpedient for the Government either to construct a postal telegraph or purchase any existing line of telegraph. The Senate Committee, by a vote of 4 to 3, agreed to report a Postal Telegraph Bill.

Governor Murray, of Utah, on Friday replied before the Springer Committee to the charges against him while he was Marshal in Kentucky. He attacked the character of his accusers vigorously, and made a detailed explanation of the charges, all of which, he said, were eight years old.

The Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds will present to the House a resolution which sets forth that whereas it has been specifically charged that the officers of the Government are in complicity with Brooklyn real-estate men in the matter of selecting a site for the Federal Building in Brooklyn, a thorough investigation into the matter is recommended.

Another Democratic House caucus has been called to consider a resolution requiring that the Morrison bill be recommited to the Committee, with instructions to report back, before the 10th of January next, a bill reducing the revenue, by abridgment of both customs and internal taxes, to the actual necessities of the Government.

Arrangements are making for a meeting of the prominent leaders of the Democratic party from all parts of the country at the Mount Vernon Hotel in Baltimore the latter part of this month, for the purpose of bringing about a reconciliation between the divided factions of the party upon a number of important matters concerning the Presidential campaign.

Members of all the political parties in Minnesota met on Wednesday in Minneapolis and organized a "Minnesota State Free Trade League." The constitution declares in favor of absolute free trade, and pledges the members to neither support nor vote for any candidate for Congress or for the Legislature who is not pledged to free trade. The membership includes some of the most prominent party men.

The following is the vote on Wednesday for Governor in Rhode Island: Bourne (Rep.), 15,903; Segar (Dem.), 9,599; scattering, 15.

Municipal elections were held in Ohio towns on Monday. The Republican ticket was elected in Cleveland by about 3,100 majority. The bulk of the German and Bohemian vote was cast for the Republicans. The Republicans are elated over the result, and claim that it assures Ohio for that party in October. In Cincinnati almost the entire Democratic ticket was elected by about 800 majority. There were large Republican gains in German wards. The Municipal Reform ticket received only 800 votes. Reports throughout the State show that the Republicans gained in most of the larger cities. Indiana towns showed decided Republican gains.

In the Senate at Albany, on Monday night, the bill applying the Civil-Service Law to all cities of 20,000 or over was discussed. An amendment exempting firemen from the operation of the bill was passed, 15 to 5; also one giving preference for employment in the civil service to honorably discharged Union soldiers and sailors, and exempting them from civil-service examination. As amended the bill was ordered to a third reading. The Anti-Oleomargarine Bill was passed on Tuesday, 25 to 4.

General Chalmers, of Mississippi, has written a letter advising the Greenbackers and Independents of his State to join the Republican party.

The bill requiring that in New York and Brooklyn all telegraph, telephone, and electric-light wires and cables be laid underground before November, 1885, was passed by the State Senate on Thursday. On Thursday Mr. Robb introduced a bill applying civil-service reform principles to the police of the cities of the State.

All of the Roosevelt city reform bills were ordered to a third reading by the Assembly on Wednesday.

Mr. Howe's bill extending to January 15, 1885, the time when the Prison Commission shall make a report on the prison-labor question, was passed by the Assembly on Thursday.

The N. Y. Superintendent of State Prisons, Mr. Baker, has sent a communication to the Senate with reference to the effect of abolishing contract labor. He takes strong ground against the act already passed, and argues that all other methods of employing prisoners that have been tried have failed to produce satisfactory results.

Cincinnati has regained its accustomed good order. The citizens are making efforts for better local government and administration of justice.

General Aguero and twenty filibusters secretly sailed from Key West for Cuba in the schooner *Shoters* on April 1. The revenue cutter *Dix* started in pursuit, but failed to overtake them.

The schooner *Shoters* arrived at Key West, Fla., from Cuba on Sunday night and was seized by the Collector of the Port. The negro in charge said that he was engaged to pilot the *Shoters* to Cape Florida, and that on rounding Port Taylor Aguero, with a drawn pistol, told him that he must take the party to the Cuban coast. On approaching near to Cardenas, Aguero directed the pilot to land. This was done. The pilot then put to sea, but before getting clear of the land he saw an extensive fire, and thinks the plantation buildings were burned. The negro's story is doubted.

The First National Bank of St. Albans, Vt., suspended on Tuesday. The deposits amount to $215,000, which it is probable will be paid in full. Unfortunate speculations of stockholders are believed to be the cause.

A destructive tornado visited parts of Ohio, Indiana, and North Carolina on April 1 and 2. Oakville, Ind., was entirely destroyed, and five persons were killed.

A combination of nearly all the barbed-wire manufacturers in this country has been formed to control the trade, to maintain remunerative prices, and, by having a common purchasing agent, to keep the prices for raw materials within proper bounds.

The will of Mrs. Anna Ottendorfer, which was filed in this city on Tuesday, disposes of property valued at about $3,000,000. There are a great many large bequests ranging from $5,000 to $25,000 to various charitable organizations of this city. The bulk of her estate is left to her husband and children.

FOREIGN.

The body of the Duke of Albany reached Cherbourg on Wednesday night, and was placed on board the royal yacht *Osborne*, which then sailed for England. It was landed at Portsmouth on Thursday with great ceremony. The body was borne to Windsor Castle from the station on Friday upon a gun carriage drawn by eight horses. A long procession followed. The Dean of Windsor awaited the procession at the entrance to the Memorial Chapel. The Seaforth Highlanders placed the coffin in the middle of the chapel. After a short religious service, the royal personages withdrew. A second funeral service was celebrated later. No one was present save the Queen, the Duchess of Albany, and the Dean of Windsor. The final services took place on Saturday morning at 11:30 o'clock at St. George's Chapel. The Queen and the Princess of Wales went from the castle through the deanery to the chapel. The Prince of Wales, the Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia, and the other royal personages assembled in the Memorial Chapel and marched in procession to St. George's Chapel. The Prince of Wales followed the coffin as chief mourner. The Dean began the services as the coffin entered the door. After several anthems the coffin was lowered into the vault. Throughout the services the Queen wept bitterly.

Mr. Gladstone made a powerful speech in the House of Commons on Monday in support of the Franchise Bill. He said it was a good thing for the state that the largest number of capable citizens should possess the franchise. He defended the extension of the franchise in Ireland as an act of right and justice. The bill passed its second reading by a vote of 390 to 210.

After a thorough discussion on Friday, the Cabinet decided against formally establishing a protectorate over Egypt.

Mr. Gladstone said in the House of Commons on Thursday that Gordon could withdraw from Khartum whenever he wished, but that the time had not yet come to order him to return. In the evening Sir Stafford Northcote moved an adjournment to discuss the Government's Egyptian policy. Mr. Glad-

stone said the object of the Opposition was to consume the time of Parliament and hinder the Franchise Bill. The motion was lost.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* (Liberal) on Friday said: "Egyptian affairs are fast drifting into anarchy, and through anarchy to annexation or war—possibly both. England must undertake the administration of Egypt. This will be a terrific burden, but the country must shoulder it manfully." It then urged the Government to assist General Gordon to establish an independent state at Khartum under his sovereignty. Earl Granville announced in the House of Lords that the Government were not prepared to send a military expedition to Gordon's relief.

Nubar Pasha resigned on Sunday the Presidency of the Council of Egyptian Ministers, owing to discord with the English officials and the unsettled policy of England toward Egypt. The rest of the Ministers threatened to resign. The bureaux are in a state of anarchy.

Nubar Pasha on Monday evening consented to suspend his resignation from the Egyptian Ministry until the English Government gave its decision in regard to the relative powers of the Egyptian Ministers and the English officials. The Khedive is supporting Nubar Pasha's right to the supreme control of the administration, and has urged Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Minister, to assent to the dismissal of Mr. Clifford Lloyd from the post of Under-Secretary of the Interior. It is the opinion of European officials at Cairo that a mixed administration is no longer feasible.

Sir Evelyn Baring has been instructed to try to arrange the differences between Nubar Pasha and Clifford Lloyd. On the other hand, it was reported on Tuesday that Nubar denies that his resignation is due to any such differences. It was also reported on that day that the British Government had urged General Gordon to vacate Khartum.

A Suakim despatch on Wednesday said: "Osman Digna is actively resuming the offensive, now that the British forces have withdrawn. He is attempting to cut off the friendly tribes about Handub and Tamanieb from water. The Sheikh Mahmud Ali is opposing him. It is likely that the difficulty will result in a battle." General Graham doubted the truth of this despatch.

Osman Digna was reported on Monday to be near Tamanieb with 1,000 men and boys who were willing to fight.

The roads beyond Berber are blocked, being occupied by rebels. The tribes between Shendy and Khartum are in open rebellion, and it is feared Berber and Dongola will be invested in a short time. Nothing has been heard from General Gordon for a fortnight.

Major Hunter has returned to Aden, having visited Berbera and Zeila, points in the Somali Territory, on the south shore of the Gulf of Aden. There has been some doubt as to the feeling of the tribes inhabiting that section, but Hunter reports that he found them well disposed towards the Egypt Government, although agitated, as was natural, over the condition of affairs in the Sudan. There will be no danger of trouble, Major Hunter believes, so long as the British gunboat is allowed to remain in that vicinity.

A motion by Mr. Justin McCarthy, that the condition of the Irish magistracy is calculated to destroy confidence in the administration of justice, was defeated in the House of Commons on Friday by a vote of 106 to 59.

The recent sudden removal of the convict Irish Invincibles from Irish to English prisons is attributed to the discovery of a conspiracy to destroy the Mountjoy prison by the use of dynamite. The Invincibles in the prison were engaged in clandestine correspondence with conspirators outside. Letters were found in James Mullet's cell which disclosed the plot. The prison warders were to be bribed with money from O'Donovan Rossa's fund to convey an infernal machine into the prison. The story was denied by a Dublin correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph*.

The police at Queenstown narrowly scrutinize the baggage of American passengers arriving on transatlantic steamers, in order to prevent the introduction of dynamite.

Mr. John Bright's health is improved.

The Secretary of the London Corn Exchange reports enormous stocks of wheat, barley, and maize in the waterside granaries of that city. Of wheat alone there are 454,000 quarters more than last year. Of oats, however, there are 108,000 quarters less.

Cambridge defeated Oxford easily in the annual boat race on the Thames on Monday. The day was unpropitious, and there were few spectators. The total victories now stand, Oxford 22, Cambridge 18; one dead heat in 1877.

Mr. Wilson Barrett, the actor, gave a brilliant supper and reception at the Langham Hotel, in London, on Wednesday evening, in honor of Mr. Lawrence Barrett, the American tragedian.

Mr. Edmund Yates, the editor of the London *World*, has been condemned to four months in prison for libelling the Earl of Lonsdale. The judgment has been respited pending an appeal upon a point of law. The origin of this libel suit was a paragraph in the London *World*, which, though it mentioned no names, unmistakably pointed to Lord Lonsdale as having eloped with a young lady of high social standing. Lord Lonsdale is married.

A fierce fire in Paternoster Row, London, on Wednesday night, endangered many of the publishing houses. The Religious Tract Society's building and the buildings adjacent were burned. The fire raged for four hours. About a dozen houses, mostly bookbinding and publishing establishments, were gutted. The famous old "Dolly's Chop-House" was destroyed. The heavy losses were covered by a large insurance.

The negotiations between England and Spain in regard to the proposed new commercial treaty are ended without agreement.

It was reported from Madrid on Tuesday that Mr. Foster, the United States Minister to Spain, had started for Washington to confer with his Government in regard to a basis for a definitive treaty of commerce between the United States and Spain. The despatch added: "It is absolutely necessary for Spain to improve if possible the material condition of Cuba. A formula may be found based on reciprocity, for the benefit of the Spanish colonies, without prejudice to Spain. The English West Indian colonies run a great risk of being shut out of the American markets."

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Prince Bismarck's organ) on Monday said: "By his physician's advice, Prince Bismarck renounces the control of the affairs of the Prussian Government, but retains the direction of imperial affairs. In this capacity he occupies a personal and untransferable position of confidence toward foreign Powers. Besides, foreign affairs are free from the friction so greatly connected with home matters."

The German Bundesrath has unanimously rejected the proposal that a responsible ministry be instituted for the Empire.

Emmanuel Geibel, the German lyric poet, is dead at the age of sixty.

Professor Virchow, after a minute inquiry, has been able to authenticate only one case of trichinosis in Germany, which was of doubtful origin. No case was traced to the use of American pork.

Gustav Richter, the German painter, is dead, at the age of sixty-one. One of his most admirable works is entitled "Jesus Reviving the Daughter of Jairus," which was painted for the King of Prussia, and appeared at the Paris Salon of 1857.

Ignaz Kuranda, a well-known journalist, died in Vienna on Thursday at the age of seventy-three. For many years he edited the Vienna *Ostdeutsche Post*.

Herr Scheffler, the editor of the Anarchist paper, the *Radical*, who has been under arrest for some time at Pesth, confesses that he was present at the meeting of Anarchists in Vienna when the murders of Detective Bloch and Police Commissary Klubeck were planned.

It is semi-officially asserted in Paris that the French will enter China and collect an indemnity from the Canton native customs.

The French expedition has started for Hunghoa. General de Lisle's column will operate on the left bank of the Black River and General Negrier's column on the right bank. It is reported that Lionvinloc will command the defence of Hunghoa, where there are assembled 3,000 Black Flags and 12,000 Chinese troops. It is believed that Hunghoa will be attacked on April 11.

M. Patenôtre, the new French Minister to China, will start for Anam on April 11 to organize a French protectorate over Anam and Tonquin.

In the Italian Chamber of Deputies, Signor Mancini, Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated on Tuesday that the Government had no intention of modifying the decision of the Court of Cassation requiring the conversion of the real property of the Propaganda into Italian rentes.

Signor Mancini stated in the Chamber on Tuesday that the question of the free importation of works of art into America would soon be satisfactorily settled. He thanked the American Minister and the artists who had so materially furthered the result.

At the Vatican it is absolutely denied that the Pope has written to the Emperor of Austria on the subject of leaving Rome, although it is not improbable that he will eventually do so.

The Irish Bishops will convene in Rome in September. The purposes of the gathering are represented to be similar to those of the Convention of American Bishops in 1883.

The Rumanian Ministry on Tuesday tendered their resignations in consequence of the hostile vote of the Chamber of Deputies on the Premier's proposal to fix a date to commence debate on the revision of the Constitution.

The White Cross steamer *Daniel Steinmann*, from Antwerp, March 20th, for New York, was wrecked on Thursday night, about ten o'clock, during a thick fog and storm, upon shoals off Sambro Island, Nova Scotia. Five of the crew and two passengers managed to reach the island in a boat. The captain and a boy passenger clung to the rigging and were rescued by a boat from the island. The steamer had ninety passengers, five officers, and a crew of thirty-four men. All perished except those mentioned above, making the total loss of life 120. The *Steinmann* was a large new steamship with four masts. The captain's story is that he mistook the Sambro light for Chebucto light. He is severely criticised. Eleven bodies have been recovered. Divers were at work on Monday rescuing the cargo.

The steamer *Newcastle City*, from Halifax for Boston, struck on a shoal on Friday, but managed to get off considerably damaged. On Saturday morning it was necessary to run her ashore at McNab's Island. Steam tugs and schooners removed her cargo on Sunday.

The Police Magistrate at Toronto on Tuesday, in the legislative bribery-conspiracy case, decided that there was sufficient evidence to commit the four defendants, Wilkinson, Meek, Bunting, and Kirkland, to stand trial on the charge of conspiracy. During the reading of the decision Kirkland fainted and was carried from the room.

THE BLAINE BOOM.

A CORRESPONDENT, whose letter we print in another column, desires some explanation of what he considers the slighting or hostile references to Mr. James G. Blaine which so frequently appear in the *Nation*, and which he suspects must be, in some degree at least, the product of private malice. We think he is entitled, as are our readers generally, to some such explanation, and we shall proceed to make it cheerfully, starting, however, with the assertion that no editor or other person connected with the *Nation* in any capacity has, to our knowledge, had any difference, quarrel, or controversy with Mr. Blaine, or has ever received any injury from him whatever, or bears him any personal grudge. Whenever he is discussed in these columns he is discussed either as the holder of a public office, or as a candidate for a public office. Nor do we make any reference to his private affairs except when those affairs have, or appear to have, a direct and important relation to his character and claims as a public man. In fact, all our comments on him and his doings are due to the fact that we consider his reappearance as a candidate for the highest office in the Government, or any other, as an audacious proceeding, which can only be accounted for by supposing him to have an extraordinary and unwarrantable confidence in the popular forgetfulness. It is the duty of all those who do not wish to see the Republican party burdened during the canvass next summer with the hopeless task of whitewashing him, to set forth briefly, now that his boom is becoming so lively, the charges which he will have to answer before he can be elected to the Presidency. It would be lamentable indeed, and certainly disastrous, if the task prescribed for Republican journalists by the Convention should be not the discussion of great questions of public policy, like the tariff, or the civil service, or the railroads, or the currency, but laborious examinations of Mr. James G. Blaine's railroad transactions. We mean, as far as we are concerned, to avoid this, if we can, by taking up his railroad transactions now, before the bustle and excitement of the canvass begin.

The first of the charges is, that, in the spring session of Congress in 1869, a bill was before the House of Representatives which sought to renew a land grant to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad of Arkansas, in which some of Mr. Blaine's friends were interested; that an attempt to defeat it by an amendment was made, and was on the point of being successful, and its promoters were in despair; that at this juncture, Mr. Blaine, being then Speaker of the House, sent a message to General Logan to make the point of order that the amendment was not germane to the purposes of the bill; that this point of order was accordingly raised and promptly sustained by Mr. Blaine as Speaker, and the bill was in this manner saved; that Mr. Blaine wrote at once to the promoters, calling attention to the service he had rendered them, and finally, after some negotiations, secured from them, as a reward for it, his appointment as selling agent of the bonds of the road, on commission, in Maine, and received a number of such bonds as his percentage; that the leading features of this transaction appeared in two letters of his afterward made public, dated respectively June 29 and October 4, 1869.

Second, that he asserted at first on the floor of the House, with the view of covering up this affair, that the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road "derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State," and not from Congress; whereas the evidence subsequently taken by the Congressional Committee disclosed the fact that the road derived the value on which these bonds were based from the act of Congress of which Mr. Blaine secured the passage, in the manner above described in 1869; that he asserted on the floor of the House that the bonds he received "were bought by him at precisely the same rate as others paid," whereas the evidence showed that the bonds came to him as commissions on sales, which he secured the opportunity of making through his aid given to the work in Congress, and that he solicited this agency, basing his request on the aid so given, and that he paid nothing whatever for the bonds, the consideration being his ruling as Speaker and his subsequent efforts to sell them. What he did with these bonds—seventy-five in number—is uncertain; but strong, though not conclusive, evidence was produced going to show that they were taken off his hands at a good price by the Union Pacific Railroad (through the instrumentality of one Caldwell), which then also was in trouble. The investigation on this point was never pushed home, owing to the sudden illness which overtook Mr. Blaine in 1876.

Third, that Mr. Blaine in 1870 made an offer, as appeared by his own letters, to one of his railroad friends, Mr. Warren Fisher, of Boston, to sell him a half of one twenty-fourth interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad, immediately after Jay Cooke's contract "had been perfected, and the additional legislation had been obtained," he having, he said, come into control of this interest "by a strange revolution of circumstances"; that the amount of stock which this would represent, he said, would be $425,000, and the number of acres of land "nearly 275,000." "The chance," he said, "was a very rare one; he couldn't touch it," but he offered it to Mr. Fisher for $25,000; that Mr. Fisher accepted it, and paid the money, but for some unexplained reason the stock was never delivered, and Mr. Blaine subsequently returned the amount. This transaction was a very peculiar one for the following reasons:

It appears from acts of Congress relating to the road, none of which are of older date than July 2, 1864, that the authorized stock was $100,000,000, with a land grant, estimated by the Commissioners of Public Lands at 47,000,000 acres, or 74,423 square miles. The line of the road was 2,000 miles long; and at the time of Blaine's letter to Fisher, it was, he says, being built on bonds at $25,000 a mile, which would have made a bonded debt of $50,000,000. Mr. Blaine, as member of Congress and Speaker of the House, must be taken to have known about the circumstances of the road, and, therefore, there seems no escape from the conclusion that his offer was based on the expectation that he would receive almost as a gift a share in an enterprise dependent for its value on legislation in which he had taken part. Mr. Blaine's defence in the case of this transaction consisted at first of a denial that he had ever had any transaction with the road at all, but he afterwards rested on the fact that he had no pecuniary interest in the transfer, and that it was never actually made; yet, though this might be a defence to suit against him for a conspiracy to defraud purchasers of the stock, it does not affect in any way the nature of the offer. His relations with Warren Fisher were, in 1870, as appeared from the evidence, such that any favor done the latter, or gift presented to him, had a direct pecuniary value.

Fourth, that he obtained certain letters, which there is every reason to believe contained matter gravely compromising him, from a perfectly reputable witness, Mr. Mulligan, who was the proper and lawful custodian of them, after having vainly tried appeals to his pity, by pledging his word of honor to restore them, then broke this pledge, retained them by force, and subsequently read such of them as he pleased to the House in aid of his vindication; that this conduct, if not legally criminal, was such as no man aspiring to be the chief magistrate of a great nation ought to be even suspected of.

Fifth, that both his short service as an executive officer of the Government, and the various efforts he has made during the past eight years to keep the public in mind of him, have been sensational and theatrical, indicating a strong love of notoriety and an absence of the settled convictions, the sober judgment, and the steadiness of character which are needed to make him a safe occupant of any high or responsible administrative office; and that the means by which his booms are started and promoted, of which the manner in which his 'History' has recently been heralded and produced is a good example, bear too close an approach to the advertising devices of a circus or other public show, to make the candidacy of any person resorting to them anything but a humiliation for the party producing him.

Lastly, it seems to us emphatically the duty of the independent voters to repress in some signal way the rapidly growing practice of packing conventions under the personal superintendence of candidates for the Presidency. It is of comparatively recent date. It is only a very years since Mr. Tilden excited the horror of the Republican press by taking charge of his own canvass, and starting a "literary bureau" to supply puffs of himself to the newspapers. Since then it has grown apace, and it now excites no surprise to hear that any candidate is actively engaged in using all his powers of intrigue, chicane, and corruption to secure the election of delegates all over the Union, pledged either openly or secretly to act under his orders at the Convention, and, if casting votes for him will do do no good, to cast them in such a way as to enable him to carry out any bargain or "deal" with any other candidate which it may have pleased him to make. The nominating Convention has already, through its size, as well as for other reasons, lost nearly all semblance of a deliberative body,

but it has not yet become wholly the product of "subsoiling" carried on by the various candidates themselves. In this art of packing conventions Mr. Blaine is now the greatest master in the country. His success would make this art almost the only one which American statesmen would hereafter cultivate, or would apparently need to cultivate. It is high time, therefore, that he and his disciples were made to understand that it is not by such little games that the Presidency is to be won.

ANOTHER "ANTI-MONOPOLY" DECISION.

SINCE the decision in the Granger cases, no more important questions relating to corporate property and charters have been before the Supreme Court of the United States than those involved in the Spring Valley Water Works case, recently decided. The material facts are as follows: The old Constitution of California provided that all laws relating to corporations might be from time to time "altered" or "repealed" (Const. Cal. 1849, Art. iv., Sec. 31). After the adoption of this Constitution various acts were passed by the Legislature authorizing the formation of water companies, and providing that the rates for water should be fixed by the municipal authorities of the cities and towns supplied. Under these laws, however, no supply of water was provided for San Francisco, owing, it may fairly be presumed, to the fact that no one cared to spend money for such an enterprise, if the price of the water was to be fixed by the people who used it. At any rate, in April, 1858, the city of San Francisco being in great need of water, an act was passed authorizing the formation of water companies, which differed from all preceding acts in the circumstance that the rates were to be determined by a board of commissioners, of whom two were to be chosen by the town authorities and two by the company; and, in case of a disagreement among the four, a fifth person was to be selected either by them or by the Sheriff, the object of this machinery being to secure an impartial decision. Shortly after the passage of the act the Spring Valley Water Works Company was formed under it, and has since that time spent a large amount of money in the erection of substantial and extensive works for the supply of San Francisco with water, the value of which depends of course entirely on the rates at which the water is taken. For twenty years these rates were determined by the board selected in the manner we have described. In 1878 a vacancy occurred, by the death of one of the Commissioners, which has never been filled.

In 1879 the State adopted the Sand Lot Constitution, which attracted so much attention at the time as the first confessedly communistic Constitution ever adopted in the United States. Article xiv., Sections 1 and 2, of this body of law is devoted to "Water and Water Rights," and provides that the rates for water used by any city or town shall be fixed from year to year by the municipal authorities. Under this provision the San Francisco Supervisors claimed the right to fix the rates to be charged for water by the Spring Valley Company, and refused to appoint a commissioner to fill the vacancy in the board. The decision of the State Supreme Court was that the new Constitution abrogated the law of 1858, and this decision has now been affirmed at Washington.

The question involved in the suit, it will be seen, turned wholly on the power of the Legislature to alter and amend corporate charters. The Spring Valley Company maintained that it had, under the law of 1858, a right to the maintenance of the Commission for fixing rates. The city claimed the right to substitute for it a commission consisting of its own Supervisors. The fact that the change in the law had been made by a constitutional amendment was of no consequence; it might have been made by the Legislature just as well. Either under the Dartmouth College case the charter was inviolable, or else, under the power to alter and amend, the change was valid.

It was urged in behalf of the company that letting officers elected by the buyers of the water determine the prices which should be paid for it, was a violation of the principle that no man shall be a judge in his own case. The Court says in reply to this, that the Granger cases (Munn *vs.* Illinois, 94 U. S., 113), decided that "it is within the power of the Government to regulate the prices at which water shall be sold by one who enjoys a virtual monopoly of the sales." It was also argued that as the laws before that of 1858 for the formation of water companies, which provided that the rates should be fixed by the town authorities, were not accepted by the Spring Valley Company, and that of 1858, with a provision for a board of arbitrators, was accepted, it is to be inferred that the State contracted with this company not to subject it to such one-sided machinery. But the Court in reply to this lays down the following proposition:

"The Constitution of California adopted in 1849 prohibited one Legislature bargaining away the power of succeeding Legislatures to control the administration of the affairs of a private corporation formed under the laws of the State. Of this legislative disability, the Spring Valley Company had notice when it accepted the privileges of the act of 1858, and it must be presumed to have built its works and expended its moneys in the hope that neither a succeeding Legislature, nor the people in their collective capacity when framing a Constitution, would ever deem it expedient to return to the old mode of fixing rates, rather than on any want of power to do so, if found desirable."

It seems, therefore, to follow from this and the Granger cases that in any State which has the power to alter and amend charters, first, the Dartmouth College case does not apply, for a charter with which one of the parties to it can do what it pleases, cannot be a "contract" in the ordinary sense of the term; and second, that all that capital seeking investment, in such States has to rely upon is not the restraining power of the courts, and the clause of the Constitution relating to the "obligation of contracts," but "a hope" that the Legislature may not change its mind. Can the Supreme Court really wish to have it supposed all over the world that the power to alter and amend charters makes corporate property less secure than individual property, and that every American Legislature reserving the power to alter or amend charters can alter the value of corporate property at discretion?

CLUBS IN COURT.

THE Loubat case, and a number of other recent club disputes which have been made more or less public, have drawn attention to club law and discipline, and promise to have an important influence in the development of club life in New York. Until within a few years club members who for any reason have been expelled from clubs, have generally refrained from taking their cases into court, partly, no doubt, because the nature of club quarrels is generally such that, in the full glare of publicity, they are apt to bring a good deal of ridicule and contempt on those engaged in them; partly because a man is very seldom expelled without good reason, and he, more than any one else, shrinks from inquiry into the facts; and partly also because to a man with whom his fellow-members do not desire to associate, a club is of very little use. All clubs guard themselves against having such members by providing that a few black-balls shall exclude a candidate from admission; and a member expelled for conduct which makes him disliked is obviously a more "unclubbable" man than most candidates who fall short of getting the requisite support for admission. Under ordinary circumstances the position of a club member reinstated by order of court must be anomalous and, in fact, almost absurd. From the way in which club quarrels now get into the newspapers it seems as if this dislike of publicity must be dying out, and as if a feeling were growing up that a court of justice were the proper and legitimate forum for the settlement of all such matters. The matter possesses a good deal of importance in New York, where a lawsuit of this nature may be protracted for years so as to involve both sides in enormous expense.

Most of the little law in existence relating to clubs is English, London being the great modern headquarters of club life, and the English courts have in the last few years had to pass upon several club expulsion cases. In two of these, members were reinstated. Both were decided by the same judge—Sir George Jessel—and explain very clearly the limits within which courts will interfere in matters of this kind.

In Fisher *vs.* Keane (L. R. 11 Ch. D. 353), the plaintiff, while engaged in a game of pool (one of the players being a guest of another member), got into a dispute as to his own sobriety. He was, as a matter of fact, intoxicated, but nevertheless became extremely angry at the fact being urged upon him by the guest, who appears to have been a man of little tact, as a reason for getting through the game quickly. He retorted by calling the guest a liar, on which the game was stopped and his conduct reported. By the rules of the Club, the Governing Committee, when "specially summoned for that purpose," could, by a unanimous vote, expel for conduct "injurious to the character and interests of the Club." The Committee at a meeting not called for the purpose, and by a vote which was not unanimous, expelled the plaintiff, and this too

without any notice to him, and without giving him any opportunity to be heard. Sir George Jessel reinstated him, both because the rules had been violated, and because the "ordinary principles of justice" had been violated in not giving him a hearing.

The case of Labouchere *vs.* the Earl of Wharncliffe was decided on much the same grounds. Mr. Labouchere, the editor of *Truth*, was assaulted by Mr. Levy Lawson, a fellow-member of the Beefsteak Club, just outside the club house. Mr. Levy Lawson then went into the club, followed by Mr. Labouchere, and in the latter's hearing stated that he had just thrashed the editor outside. Mr. Labouchere wrote to the Committee complaining of this, and of Mr. Lawson's having used the club for the purpose of an "ambush," and of another member for having helped his assailant. The Committee thereupon notified Mr. Labouchere that a special meeting would be called to consider the case, and meantime that he must enter into an engagement not to attack any fellow-member in "any publication." The rules of the club provide that for any conduct, in the opinion of the Committee, "injurious to the welfare and interests of the club," the Committee may call upon a member to resign, and, if he refuses, they are to call a general meeting, which may expel by the vote of "two-thirds of those present." In this case the Committee decided to call upon both parties to the quarrel to resign. Mr. Lawson did so. Mr. Labouchere refused, for a variety of reasons, among others the rather amusing one that the club was attempting to establish a "press censorship." A meeting of the club was accordingly called, and Mr. Labouchere expelled by a vote of 77 to 38. There were, however, 117 members present. Sir George Jessel reinstated Mr. Labouchere on the ground that the rule requiring a two-thirds vote of those present had been violated, and also that there had been no proper inquiry by the Committee, no preferment of a definite charge, and no notice, no taking of evidence, no hearing, and not even any clear statement of the cause of expulsion.

These cases go no further than deciding that a court of justice will interfere to make a club conform to its own rules, and that it is part of the unwritten law of every club that a member shall not be expelled without a fair hearing of what he may have to say in his defence, and a fair inquiry into the facts by the club tribunal. But this does not mean, as might at first sight be supposed, the sort of hearing that a defendant would have in court. Club committees are not courts, and they do not administer justice, but social discipline, and the object of their existence is not to decide which of two parties to a club quarrel is in the wrong, but to prevent the club from becoming a bear-garden, as any club must become in which members are allowed to quarrel, to get up parties, and to publish "charges" against each other. In every case of conduct supposed to be injurious to the interests of the club, the club itself is the aggrieved party, and at the same time the judge and prosecutor. This has to be so from the nature of the case, unless the members are so fond of litigation that they prefer to have the affairs of the club administered in the judicial way — something which no club rules ever contemplate.

The fact is, that the very worst plight a club can get into is when its discipline has to be overhauled by a judge, and the English judges have shrunk from the task, except in such extreme cases as those we have cited, when it has been forced upon them by the stupidity of the managers themselves. Of the thousand little details of conduct and behavior which may be injurious to the character and interests of a club, nobody but the club can properly judge, and, on the other hand, club privileges which have to be enforced by a sheriff are of no value to any one. Indeed, it may be gravely doubted whether the mere fact of taking his case into court would not in most cases warrant a committee in deeming a club member's conduct prejudicial to the interests of the club, though this precise question has not, we believe, yet arisen.

THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.

On the seventeenth day of April, the University of Edinburgh is to celebrate the three-hundredth anniversary of its foundation. Invitations have been sent to the principal universities and colleges of the world to participate in the festivities, and among the scholars thus assembled there will be several representative Americans. In view of the event, the Principal of the University, Sir Alexander Grant (well known as the editor of the 'Ethics' of Aristotle, and for his services in the promotion of education in India), has prepared a history of the foundation, which has lately been published in two large octavo volumes, with numerous portraits and other illustrations. The record may appear to be a thrice-told tale. Crawford, who died in 1662, left behind him manuscript annals which were printed in 1808. Dalzel, another professor, who died in 1805, likewise left incomplete materials for a history which were edited and published in 1862. Alexander Bower published two volumes in 1817 and a third in 1830, which brought the story down to the date of his publication. But all these essays were very defective; only in the work of Sir Alexander Grant have we a satisfactory narrative of the growth of the University. Notwithstanding the author's apology for "the pressure" under which he prepared this "birthday offering," his work is admirably comprehensive and instructive. For reasons which we shall presently point out, it is of special interest to Americans.

In order to set forth the distinctive character of the University of Edinburgh, the historian first gives an account of the three Universities, St. Andrews, Aberdeen, and Glasgow, previously established in Scotland, all in the fifteenth century, upon an ecclesiastical basis which even the Reformation could not obliterate. Quoting Bulæus, who said, in his 'History of the University of Paris,' that "a University without privileges is like a body without a soul," Grant shows that "founding an University" in those days was "something more than merely establishing a school with various branches of teaching: it was, in truth, setting up a little state within the state." The taking of a degree was "not a mere distinction to be obtained by a youth; it was a license to teach, not to be lightly conceded, but only awarded after full scrutiny, conducted in the most solemn way, by the highest authorities." With the reformation of the Church came neglect of University forms, and, as many have thought, decadence of University spirit. Universities, as distinct from colleges, had no life. Therefore, as in St. Andrews, Aberdeen, and Glasgow the colleges had taken the place of universities, the University of Edinburgh was founded in the form of a college. In a paper of Queen Mary's, dated in 1563, Grant found a phrase—"our college and university"—which he mentions as perhaps the first instance on record of a college being identified with an university.

Some obscurity rests over the earliest history of the Edinburgh foundation, but a positive date is reached, April 14, 1582, when King James VI. signed a charter giving power to the Town Council of Edinburgh to provide for higher education, in humanity and the tongues, in philosophy, theology, medicine, law, and other liberal sciences. Thus, says Grant, "the municipal authorities and clergy of Edinburgh were entrusted forever with the absolute control of higher education within the burgh." For this novel arrangement there was one precedent, the Academy of Geneva, a modern and Protestant foundation, where from 1569 to 1574 Andrew Melville, the illustrious Scotch reformer and scholar, had been for several years a professor of humanity. On the 16th of October, 1583, the Magistrates of Edinburgh appointed a committee to devise the order of teaching to be kept in the college now erected. Wisely, as three centuries have proved, a course of strictly university study was adopted. The curriculum was divided into four sessions, in the third of which students were called determinands or bachelors; in the fourth, magistrands, because they were about to be made magistri, or masters of arts. The prescribed course differed from the mediæval degree system, says Grant, first, by making Greek an indispensable part of university study; second, by the spirit of humanism which it exhibited, great attention being paid to purity of style in Latin and Greek; and third, by its modernizing tendency, shown in the admission of the Dialectics of Ramus, the Rhetoric of Talæus, Hunter's Cosmography and Descriptive Anatomy. Instruction began in the winter of 1583–84.

We have already intimated that there are several reasons why this history is of peculiar interest to Americans. It is a limited history, having a formal and definite opening three centuries ago, not lost in mysterious mediæval conventual life, like that of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Paris, and of other institutions on the Continent. Moreover, it is the life of a Protestant University. The other three foundations of Scotland were established by papal bulls, and were based on the theory that they were parts of a great commonwealth of scholars, in which the Pope of Rome was the governor and head; but Edinburgh has no such Roman Catholic background for its annals. Again, it is emphatically a civil foundation, deriving its authority nominally from the Crown, and, in fact, maintained by the financial and official support of the Town Council. Once more, it is, like Harvard and Yale, an example of a college grown into a university. Often, in its nomenclature, the words college and university have been used indiscriminately, and its own alumni, like many American graduates, have confounded the two designations as if they did not know any difference of function. Besides all this, Americans for more than a hundred years have turned to Edinburgh for inspiration and instruction in science, in philosophy, in literature, in theology, and, most of all, perhaps, in medicine. Almost all the earliest professors of medicine in this country (as Dr. N. S. Davis has pointed out) were graduates of Edinburgh, and their Scotch alma mater was the model on which they formed the new medical institutions of this country. Four professors in the earliest of these colleges, at Philadelphia—Drs.

Morgan, Shippen, Kuhn, and Rush—had all been graduated doctors of medicine at Edinburgh prior to 1768. Doctors Bard and Mott, and we think Doctor Hosack, of the College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York, were likewise Edinburgh students. At the instance of Benjamin Franklin, the honorary degree of doctor in divinity was bestowed on Ezra Stiles, as far back as 1765, while he was a pastor at Newport, several years before he became President of Yale College. The like honor was subsequently given to Rev. Samuel Cooper (1767), Rev. John Lathrop (1785), and Rev. Chandler Robbins (1792). Early in this century, Benjamin Silliman went to Edinburgh to fit himself for a professorship of natural science, and there attended the lectures of Hope, Gregory, Murray, and Barclay. Two young graduates of Harvard, Rev. John Codman and Dr. John Gorham, were there his companions, and he mentions in his diary that about thirty of his countrymen, chiefly Southerners, were also attending lectures. At a later day, John P. Norton, the first American professor of agricultural chemistry, prepared himself in Edinburgh for scientific work. The philosophical writings of Dugald Stewart, Thomas Reid, and Sir William Hamilton long held their ascendancy in American colleges.

From its foundation onward, Edinburgh has been growing in honor and usefulness. Long ago it was called the Modern Athens. Stuart, the author of the 'Antiquities of Greece,' is said to have suggested this epithet because of the resemblance in the aspects of the two cities, and perhaps this circumstance has had its influence upon the architecture of Edinburgh. But certainly the spirit of Athens does not require for its embodiment an acropolis or a temple. Leyden is flat, and its buildings are tame, but its University is a worthy peer of its Edinburgh contemporary. We must look beyond the natural or the structural advantages of a city if we would determine the conditions of academic success. It would be an interesting inquiry what then made the youngest university of Scotland surpass its elders—what secured its position.

In addition to the work of Sir Alexander Grant, there are many volumes which throw light upon the character of the University. Among those which we recall with most pleasure is the Life of Edward Forbes, the naturalist, in which there are charming pictures of academic life. An institution which can claim Goldsmith, Walter Scott, Carlyle, and Darwin among its alumni, and can say that Niebuhr came from Germany to spend a year within its walls, is of no mean repute. It is pleasant to notice that in its three-hundredth year the number of students is greater than ever before, having reached an aggregate of 3,341, more than half of whom are in the medical department. Nearly one-third are in the department of arts, while the rest are jurists and theologians.

BISMARCK'S MEASURES BEFORE THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, March 24.

SINCE March 6 the Reichstag has been in session again. A few days after its constitution Bismarck returned to town, and took an active part in the proceedings. He has spoken on several occasions with an irritation which affords no good prospect for the peaceful settlement of affairs. The Chancellor looks much better than before, has grown thinner, and lost, as he says, a roebuck's weight, and seems to be more nervous than ever. His addresses are rather garrulous, going over old stories and old charges again and again, and treating his political opponents with a bitterness and disdain as if they were his personal enemies. Contrary to his former custom, Bismarck punctually made his first appearance at the session of March 13, and delivered a long speech, in which he tried to justify his course in relation to the Lasker resolutions passed by your House of Representatives. When he rose, not twenty members were in their seats; but he nevertheless went on, and soon a very attentive audience had gathered before him. In the beginning he made a kind of apology to your Congress, and gave a retrospective review of the old friendly relations existing between the United States and Prussia. He then called the resolutions an act of respect and good-will to the German Empire, which methodical opposition at home had tried to utilize for party purposes against his own person. I need not remark that the Chancellor's supposition that German members of the Reichstag were the originators of the American resolutions is wholly unfounded. "He who praises Lasker vilifies me and the Imperial (*i. e.*, Bismarckian) policy," is the gist of his whole reasoning. His organs, let loose like hounds eager for prey, echo these charges in all modulations, and call the suspected deputies who signed the harmless address of thanks to the House of Representatives and Mr. Schurz (Messrs. v. Forckenbeck, Bamberger, Kapp, Rickert, Bunsen, and Schrader) traitors to their country and paid tools of a foreign Government. At the same time the Chancellor begged the House to avoid all personal attacks, and to transact all business in a gentlemanly manner. As in his speeches, so in his writings. The other day he sent an answer to some 169 working and "practical" men at Margrabowa (a little town in western Prussia, as important, for instance, as Buncombe), who had declared themselves in favor of his policy, asserting that the German originators of the American resolutions had usuriously availed themselves of the death of Lasker to attack the Imperial policy by suggesting them. You, who know the facility with which such resolutions are introduced and carried in your legislative bodies, are a much better judge of this frivolous insinuation than I am. Too much, however, has already been said about this Lasker affair, and it is to be hoped that the tact manifested at Washington in burying it decently will have made an end of all further animosities and troubles.

Last week the Reichstag discussed and referred to special committees two important bills. The one was the law of insurance against accident to the workingmen of the different trades, and the other the further prolongation of the exceptional law against the Social Democrats. In former sessions the first has twice been rejected on account of its imperfections. It has a rather sentimental motive, as, in the words of Bismarck himself, the Administration does not want to profit by accidents and calamities. In its present shape the bill is rather worse than better, as the Chancellor's most highly trained coöperator has withdrawn, for the reason that the plan, if carried out, would lead to bankruptcy and ruin. Two young *Streber* (strivers) have taken up this job, and, in a few days, presented a new scheme, for which the younger of them was, of course, promoted at once. To benefit those who *must* insure themselves in institutions to be created by the Government, the bill proposes to do away with all private insurance companies, thus jeopardizing several hundreds of millions invested by the working classes and leading to the ruin of thousands. The bill in itself is of little consequence. It proposes to saddle the employers of our manufacturing establishments and trades with five millions of marks, in favor of their employees when injured in the performance of their duties. There is no dispute about the burden itself, or its bearers, but more about the ways and means—how it is to be borne. This *how* has occupied the legislative power for years, and has led to the most passionate debates. The representatives of individualism try to attain the end in the same way in which all other similar schemes are realized under our present political and social organization. They further propose to fix by law the duty of employers to make whole their employees who have been injured in their service, and to treat this duty like any other civil obligation. Instead of this, which meets with no objection, we are confronted with a socialistic measure of the greatest consequence, which is intended by Bismarck to be a masterpiece of modern state socialism. An Imperial Insurance Board is to be created with almost unlimited powers, with branch offices acting under the central establishment, and the whole manufacturing interest is pressed into the scheme. The workingmen themselves, in whose interest it is pretended that the contest is carried on, are utterly indifferent to the proposed plans, a fact which proves that the real object of the measure lies in another field. Bismarck tries to make political capital by socialistic experiments; but he finds no credence among the men whom he wishes to benefit.

What are we coming to if a highly respectable business like insurance is accused of being immoral? Is it disgraceful if a business flourishes? Is it a shame that important services rendered to the public yield some profit? Does the farmer who raises corn or wheat do it for God's sake? For appeasing the hunger of poor people, is he not entitled to at least his own living and some gain besides? Is it really revolting that the baker who bakes bread looks to his own profit also? The more general and urgent a want is, the providing for which is the basis of a man's business, the lower he stands, according to Bismarck's appreciation, in the ethical scale. To the farmer and baker succeed the weaver and tailor, the tanner and shoemaker, the architect and the house-owner. Next come physicians, who are so impudent as to make a living by curing their suffering brethren; and teachers, who make the ignorance of the child the basis of operations for their pay. If, however, it should happen that at the top of this Bismarckian ladder of morality stood a queer fellow who devoted his time and money to the manufacture of things which were of no use to any one, who therefore worked for no human need—him the new sentimental economy would feel bound to proclaim the most virtuous. You see we are approaching more and more the apostolic age—we are growing more angelic every day; and it will not be long before all business will be conducted on strictly evangelical principles.

In the opinion of the Reichstag's tribunes, three things are necessary to a general discussion in grand style, viz.: a three-days' debate; one, if not two, speeches from Bismarck; and speechifying full of personal repartee and animosities, with but few or no real facts. At the discussion of the further extension of the anti-Socialistic exceptional law, none of these three characteristics were wanting. The debate occupied some twelve hours. Bismarck spoke at some length, but very irrelevantly; and his man Friday, Minister Puttkamer, confined himself to reading commonplace extracts from Socialistic pamphlets and manifestoes, beginning with Fourier and ending with Lassalle and Bebel, in order to prove the dangers threatening us from Socialistic propaganda. The measures, however, thus far taken have rather strengthened than weakened that sect. Bismarck likes, and has always liked, to have several strings to his

bow. In the present emergency it is much easier to have more arbitrary weapons, and to use them when he sees fit. Last fall, at the elections for the Berlin city representation, the exceptional law was set aside, and the Social Democrats, together with the anti-Semitic followers of Stoecker, were let loose on the "bourgeoisie." It was, of course, an innocent aristocratic sport!

The debate itself brought no new arguments. The real interest lay elsewhere. Bismarck had threatened to dissolve the Reichstag if it should dare to give a majority against the bill. He wanted to have the vote taken at once; but, instead of complying with his wish, the Reichstag referred the bill to a committee, which will require at least a month or more before it will be able to report. The Conservatives and National Liberals are in favor of Bismarck's plan; the Liberals are against it, and the Centre still stands uncommitted. The fate of the bill therefore depends on the vote of the Catholics. They want to make a bargain with the Chancellor. If he reinstates the Archbishop of Cologne—Ledochowsky of Posen is out of the question—or makes some other compromise satisfactory to them, they will of course vote for his pet measure. For the present they, as little as the other parties, are prepared for the new elections, and for this reason all the opponents of the bill have preferred to preserve the present Reichstag until after the holidays. In the meantime, something favorable may turn up for the Centre. If so, they will of course come to terms with Bismarck and save the bill; if not, the latter will be defeated and the Reichstag dissolved.

Another important political event of this month is the formation of the new Liberal party, composed of the former Liberal Union (so-called Secessionists) and of the late Party of Progress. Out of 397 members of the Reichstag it numbers just 100, and has all the elements of power and efficiency. This is a practical step in the right direction toward reconciling old minor differences and marching in one line against the united attacks of the Conservatives. The new party calls itself the German Liberal party. Its platform, embodying the just demands of the middle classes, can and will be endorsed by any liberal man. Thus far the National Liberals, who have dwindled down to forty members, have held aloof from their former brethren. In my opinion, they will be swept away by the next elections, and the larger part of them, led by political affinities, will go over to the Conservatives, while the smaller part will amalgamate with the new party. The Conservatives look at the latter with undisguised spite and hatred, for the reason that a united opposition will be a more dangerous foe to them than two or three split factions. The Conservative papers attack the new party with bitter vehemence, and are joined in their Samaritan work of backbiting and slandering by the Liberal milk-and-water organs like the *Kölnische Zeitung*. If the German Liberals had not known what their own interest was, the animosities of their adversaries would have taught them that they were on the right track. Their vote, although not yet decisive, in many cases will hold the balance of power. Besides their 100 members, the Conservatives number 74, the Ultramontanes 97, the National Liberals 40, the Poles, Alsace-Lorrainers, and Social Democrats each 15, the People's Party 10, the Guelphs 10, and the *Wilde* or Savages (belonging to no party) about 20 of the present House. To judge from present appearances, the next elections will turn out in favor of the German Liberal party. † † †

Correspondence.

A BLAINE INQUIRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At least two constant and admiring readers of the *Nation* feel regret at the tone of that journal in its treatment of Mr. Blaine—a tone which it employs toward no other prominent man. This regret is not caused by admiration for the ex-Secretary, nor by sympathy with whatever political aspirations he may cherish, for we have neither to any unusual degree. It arises, however, from the fear that the keenly satirical paragraphs in regard to Mr. Blaine's posing as a Presidential candidate are as much the result of personal feeling on the part of the editor, as of a real desire to expose what he considers the shallow tricks of a chronic Presidential candidate; and if this fear is justified, the regret is also justified, for we are jealous of the good name the *Nation* has gained.

In every mention made by the *Nation* of Mr. Blaine, whether in the discussion of his South American policy, his history, or his letter in favor of distributing the surplus revenue among the States, the same sign of dislike, of unconcealed bitterness, of unwillingness to make any acknowledgment of possible disinterested motives on his part, is plainly discernible.

Now, while there is honest difference of opinion in regard to Mr. Blaine's rank as a statesman, and while it may be honestly believed that he is planning to capture the Republican nomination for President, is it fair to presume that he is less patriotic, and that he carries into his actions and methods less disinterestedness, than do other public men? Why single him out as a person whose every action and utterance that happens to be told in print is to be twisted into evidence of his ambition and only another move in his campaign for the Presidency?

Cannot the several gentlemen who are mentioned as possible candidates for the Presidency be treated in the same way with equal justice? Cannot they all be accused of instigating the many newspaper articles that advocate their claims, and who can disprove such statements? What proof has the *Nation* that Mr. Blaine is acting before the American people, and is more designing than President Arthur, Secretary Lincoln, and others? If such proof is at hand, I submit that the paragraphs about Mr. Blaine could be strengthened by spreading the facts among the biting sentences. Now, however much these sentences may be admired as specimens of sarcasm, they are hardly convincing except to the prejudiced mind.

H. M. Holmes.

Lansing, Mich., March 25,

CONSTITUTIONALITY OF LEGISLATION: THE PRECISE QUESTION FOR A COURT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a common opinion that courts should declare laws unconstitutional when they think them so, assuming, of course, that the question is properly before them. In a sense this is sound; but in the sense in which it is generally held it is not. It is quite uniformly laid down that courts should not declare laws unconstitutional unless it is a very plain case, and it is put as strongly as this, viz., that the matter must be plain beyond a reasonable doubt. Thus, in the Sinking Fund Cases, 99 U. S., at p. 718, Waite, C. J., says:

"This declaration should never be made except in a clear case. Every possible presumption is in favor of the validity of a statute, and this continues until the contrary is shown beyond a rational doubt. One branch of the Government cannot encroach on the domain of another without danger. The safety of our institutions depends in no small degree on a strict observance of this salutary rule."

Here we have a strong statement of the doctrine, and also the reason of it—the judiciary must not, even negatively, assume the legislative function. A like statement may be found readily elsewhere, *e. g.*, in Wellington *et al.* Petitioners, 16 Pick., at p. 95 (Shaw, C. J.); and in People *vs.* Supervisors of Orange, 17 N. Y., at p. 241 (Harris, J.). In each of these cases the judge named is giving the opinion of the court. It is laid down by C. J. Cooley in this same form, in his 'Constitutional Limitations,' * 182, * 183, as the established doctrine; and, among various citations in support of it, he gives the striking language of Washington, J., in Ogden *vs.* Saunders, 12 Wheaton, at p. 270. Having just said that the question was "involved in difficulty and doubt," Washington, J., goes on:

"But if I could rest my opinion in favor of the constitutionality of the law on which the question arises on no other ground than this doubt, so felt and acknowledged, that alone would, in my estimation, be a satisfactory vindication of it. It is but a decent respect due to the wisdom, the integrity, and the patriotism of the legislative body by which any law is passed, to presume in favor of its validity until its violation of the Constitution is proved beyond all reasonable doubt."

Taking it so, and taking the reasons to be such, what is the precise function of the judiciary in this class of constitutional questions? *It is not that of declaring the true construction of the Constitution, but that of deciding whether another department has acted unreasonably.* If the conclusions of the judiciary and of the Legislature differ as to what the Constitution permits, it is to be accepted that the judiciary are, for most purposes, to pass finally upon the matter. But to pass upon it how? To pass upon what? This is the question.

The office of the judiciary here is not that which, in some of our States, they exercise when they answer questions put to them by other departments of the Government: then, of course, they give their own opinion. Nor is it that which they perform in passing on such questions as were canvassed in the Dred Scott case, or such as might arise now under the Thirteenth Amendment—questions of personal right under the Constitution, irrespective of any legislation. Here also there is a simple duty of declaring the Court's own judgment upon the meaning of the Constitution. But in determining the constitutionality of legislative action, a court is called upon to consider what, under the Constitution, is the admissible view, rather than what is the right view of legislative power. The question before it is this: Has the legislative department kept within a reasonable interpretation of its power? Can their action reasonably be thought constitutional? Does the question of its conformity to the Constitution fairly admit of two opinions? If it does admit of two opinions, then the Legislature is not to be deprived of its choice between them; for this choice is a part of that mass of legislative functions which belong to it and not to the court.

Now, the common form in which courts put the question to themselves, viz.: Is the law constitutional? is a dangerous one. It is right if rightly understood, and if it be kept in mind that a Legislature, in construing the Constitution for purposes of legislation, may adopt any construction which is reasonable, and may reject the one which the court, in reviewing their action, may consider the sound one. A majority of the court belong, perhaps, to the strict school of construction, and a majority of the Legislature to the liberal school; but it is not a judicial question whether the strict or the liberal theory be the sounder,

The difficulty with this form of question—viz.: Is the act constitutional?—is that it steadily tempts the court into stating its own opinion on questions that may be purely legislative or political, instead of fixing its attention upon the precise judicial function, that, namely, of determining whether the Legislature has transgressed the limits of reasonable interpretation. One may see, I think, an illustration of the danger of this form of question in the language of Bradley, J., in the Civil Rights Cases, 109 U.S., at pp. 9 and 10:

"Are these sections constitutional? . . . Has Congress constitutional power to make such a law? . . . We have carefully considered those arguments, . . . and have felt in all its force the weight of authority which always invests a law that Congress deems itself competent to pass. *But the responsibility of an independent judgment is now thrown upon this Court;* and we are bound to exercise it according to the best lights we have."

The words that I have underscored (occurring in a very able and sound judgment) seem, as I venture to think, to point to an erroneous view of the court's functions. We are not without analogies to help us in stating the right question, for the situation is not in all respects a new one. It is much the same situation as that in which a court finds itself when it revises the action of a jury or of a lower court in deciding questions of fact. Nothing is better settled than the rule in such cases; and yet, it may be remarked, here, also, courts occasionally err from inadvertence to the precise question. What is that question? Lord Blackburn touched it neatly last year in the House of Lords in the case of The Capital and Counties Bank *vs.* Henty, 7 App. Cases, at p. 776. He was laying down a doctrine in libel, that although the jury may find the defendant chargeable, yet the court, on a motion in arrest of judgment, may still hold the writing not to be a libel; since Fox's Act the jury must, indeed, have a chance at the question, but Fox's Act, he says, did not deprive the defendant of his old right to have the court pass on it also; *the defendant* has now a double protection. And Lord Blackburn goes on:

"Now it seems to me that when the court come to decide whether a particular set of words published under particular circumstances are or are not libellous, they have to decide a very different question from that which they have to decide when determining whether another tribunal, whether a jury or another set of judges, might, not unreasonably, hold such words to be libellous."

This passage illustrates perfectly the difference between a case where the court has to exercise an "independent judgment," and a case where it merely passes on the reasonableness of the exercise of judgment by another body. The doctrine in this application of it is familiar in our own courts, and authorities need not be quoted. I observe so neat a statement of it in the latest stage of the famous case of Belt *vs.* Lawes, in England, that I will quote a few words from the judgment of the Master of the Rolls. Belt, it may be remembered, recovered last year £5,000. On a motion for a new trial, on the ground that the damages were excessive, they were reduced to £500. Both parties appealed, and lately (London *Times*, March 18, 1884, p. 3) the Court of Appeal has unanimously refused to disturb the original verdict. The language of Sir William Brett, to which I allude, is this:

"The ultimate question for decision here is whether the original verdict can, according to the rule, be impeached. It can only be so if . . . the Court is enabled judicially to say that the evidence is so clear to the contrary of the verdict that reasonable men could not fairly find as the jury have done. . . . It has been said, indeed, that the difference between the rule and the question whether the judges would have decided the same way as the jury, is evanescent, and that the solution of both depends on the opinion of the judges. The last part of the observation is true, but the mode in which the subject is approached makes the greatest difference. To ask, 'Should we have found the same verdict?' is surely not the same thing as to ask whether there is room for a reasonable difference of opinion. The ultimate question being thus defined, the next inquiry is," etc.

In the class of constitutional questions, then, to which I am specially referring, it would seem that the function of the court is not that of fixing the construction of the Constitution which it believes to be the sound one, but that of determining whether another body, charged with an independent function which incidentally requires it to put a construction upon the Constitution, has discharged its office or exercised its judgment in an unreasonable manner. If this be so, it is much to be desired that it should be more distinctly recognized than is common by putting the question to be considered in a precise form. For it seems plain that our constitutional system, in its actual development, has tended to bereave our legislatures of their feeling of responsibility and their sense of honor, and also to lead the community off into mistaken views as to the office of the judiciary. It is a common saying in our legislative bodies when any constitutional point is raised, "Oh, the courts will set that right," and it has been said, I believe often, that the weakest objection that you can raise to a proposed measure in a legislative discussion is the constitutional objection. Certainly the courts have often assumed a tone that tended to encourage these views. But recent decisions may help to show how great, under our system also, is legislative power, and how limited is judicial control. Since this is really so, it is a matter to be steadily and heavily emphasized by the courts, and no less to be considered by legislatures and those who choose them.

JAMES B. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 3, 1884.

THE SALE OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you have the kindness to give me what information you can in reference to the method of the distribution of Government publications? Do the Washington bookstores have a monopoly of sale of certain or many of them? Are they bought by these dealers or are they stolen? If neither, what is the mysterious *tertium quid?* I have been endeavoring for a long time to secure a copy of certain reports of the Census Bureau, but so often as I appeal to my representing Masters Bountiful at Washington I soon receive a priced circular of Government publications by mail. Must we pay for these things twice, and if so, why not to the Public Treasury direct?—I am, sir, etc.,

GEO. M. GOULD.

COLUMBUS, O., March 26, 1884.

[We fear our correspondent will have to resort to one of the booksellers whom he mentions. Many protests have been made against the system of distributing "documents," but no considerable reform has been effected. Documents are of two classes, first, those printed by order of the House or Senate, and, second, those issued by the public offices, such as the Consular reports of the State Department, the "Circulars" of the Bureau of Education, the numerous and very expensive reports of the Geological Survey, etc. A certain number of all documents are, by law, delivered to the Smithsonian Institution to be used in "International Exchanges," *i. e.*, for distribution to foreign governments, as is also a supply of the first-named ("Congressional") publications to the Interior Department for distribution among home libraries. Of the bureau publications, some are sent out gratis, at the discretion of the head of the office, others being sold at cost price. The Washington booksellers referred to by our correspondent are, in the present chaotic condition of affairs, of great service to the public, both directly and indirectly, as, except through their agency, many of the older publications could not be got at all. We have heard of a bureau which printed a valuable and expensive work, of which the greater part of the edition was distributed to Congressmen, being able to get copies of its own report only by buying from the second-hand dealers copies which had passed directly to them through the hands of Congressmen. Many young men who serve Congressmen as secretaries are said to be recompensed for their services wholly or chiefly by the gift of documents.—ED. NATION.]

AMERICA AND VESPUCIUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your No. 977, of March 20, you give a note claiming a German origin for the name *America*, and say the word itself is "radically German." There is not a single example in book or manuscript of the word *Americus* previous to the double mistake of Hylacomylus. *Americ* or *Amerrique* is an indigenous name in the New World, used, and in use even now, by the Indians of the Mosquito coast, to designate the country between the coast and the Lake of Nicaragua, and more especially the range of mountains, containing gold mines, between Libertad and Juigalpa, province of Chontales. By a double mistake of the German, Martin Hylacomylus Waltzemüller, a teacher of mathematics at the Gymnasium Vosagense, in the small town of St.-Dié (Lorraine), the popular name of *Americ*, which was spoken of without a specific locality as a country of the New World, very rich in gold, was given by him to Vespucci as the discoverer or inventor of the New World. In doing this, he first confused Vespucci and Colombo, and then changed the Christian name of Vespucci, which was *Alberico* in Italian, and *Albericus* in Latin, into *Americus* and *Amerigen*.

As the name *Americ* was well known among seamen, it was used without any knowledge of the mistake and of Hylacomylus's small and very rare book, 'Cosmographia,' the book and man being equally unknown to both Cristoforo Colombo and Alberico Vespucci.—Very respectfully,

JULES MARCOU,

42 GARDEN ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 27, 1884.

[The theory of the native origin of the name *America* is not so definitely established as Mr. Marcou would seem to imply. The "double error" of Waldseemüller is not proved. It is true that Vespucius is called *Albericus* in the early Latin translations of his 'Voyages,' but these translations were for the most part made from versions of an original the language and authorship of which are alike unknown. That they represent the only correct form of the name is improbable in view of the evidence in favor of *Amerigo*, which was the name of Vespucius's paternal grandfather, the name by which he was known to Columbus and the Spanish sailors, and that which he himself signed, using the spelling *Amerrigo*. The Venetian Ambassador at the court of Spain, reporting a personal interview with the navigator in 1505, calls him *Almerico*. The

use of the form *Americus* was a correction rather than a blunder on the part of the German geographer. There is nothing to justify the assumption that Vespucius, who lived until 1512 or 1516, never saw Waldseemüller's issue of his "voyages," especially as a book which appeared in three editions between May and September, 1507, could hardly have been excessively rare then, whatever it may be now.

Mr. Marcou asserts that the name *Americ* was in common use among sailors at the beginning of the sixteenth century. We should be pleased to be referred to any instances of such use of the word. If it were so widely known as to have penetrated to St.-Dié, it is surely strange that it did not appear on the earliest mariner's charts. The truth is, that the "native origin" theory rests only upon the present local usage of the word *Americ* in Nicaragua. This is its solitary fact; all else is ingenious—fatally ingenious—speculation.—Ed. Nation.]

THE GERMAN SPELLING REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a member of the "Ferein für fereinfachte deutsche Rechtschreibung," whose publications you were kind enough to take notice of in No. 977 of the *Nation*, I beg leave to say some words in explanation. As you have correctly stated the aims of our Society, I need not dwell on them here; but as to the points urged by you, viz., whether the pronunciation of "und" be really "unt," etc., I think there can hardly be any doubt. Indeed, you will find no word in the German language (at least I am not able to recall a single example to the contrary, except in dialects), which, ending with *d*, is not pronounced as though it were spelled with *t:* for instance, *Kind, Hand, Hund* are pronounced *kint, hant, hunt;* but as soon as *es, e, er*, etc., is affixed, the *d* is pronounced as in English. Thus we say, "der Hun*t*, des Hun*d*es; "das Ban*t*, des Ban*d*es," etc. Now, since we have as our fundamental rule, "Write as you correctly speak," there is no reason why we should continue to write "Han*d*," when we say "Han*t*." And this is by no means something extraordinary; even in the English language you have many examples of the same kind, *e. g.*, thie*f*—thieves, hal*f*—halves, etc. Nobody would ever think of writing "thieve" because the plural is "thieves"; indeed, it would seem absurd.

As to the words "Han*t*lung" and "hö*k*ster," quoted by you, I must say that the former is a misprint in the *Kalender*, as is obvious, since "Handlung" is derived not from "hant," but from "handeln," and originally was spelled "Handelung." "Hökster" is the pronunciation of "höchster," prevalent in Southern Germany, but, of course, is not in its place in a classical poem. In the word "setzen" the first *e* is short, and therefore the *t* is needed to close the syllable; *sezen* would undoubtedly be read *se-zen*—a word totally unknown in German.

You are certainly right in your criticism of words like "Kromwel," "Moro," etc., appearing in the historical tables of the *Kalender;* but these and other points will be remedied in next year's issue. Indeed, the orthography of proper names cannot well be changed without impairing their intelligibility; but, on the other hand, great care has been taken by the Society to establish the true pronunciation of oft-used words taken from foreign languages, and the pages of the *Reform* contain valuable lists of Russian, Spanish, Hungarian, and Chinese names (geographical and historical), which have been of great use to its members.

A spelling reform cannot be introduced without struggles—in fact, attacks of every kind have not been wanting; but still we have had the satisfaction of our principles being adopted (although not therefore enforced) in the official orthography now in use in all German schools. Our demand for "*one* alphabet (the Roman) *only*" has been stubbornly opposed, even by men of undoubted literary renown, on the ground of patriotism, they regarding the German character as a German palladium (although it has long been proved that it originated only in the fact of the first printers imitating the script of the monk-copyists); but the damaging effect of the German letters upon the eye is being more and more widely appreciated, and only recently Professor Virchow took occasion to plead, in the Prussian Diet, for the universal adoption of the Roman alphabet—a demand made by J. Grimm more than half a century ago.

We therefore have good reason to hope for the final success of our movement; but to attain this it is necessary that every one interested in sound spelling, and, besides, in the propagation of our German language, should join our Society, and help, in his own way, to further the cause. I am certain that among the readers of the *Nation* there are a good many who will appreciate the importance of German spelling reform, and would willingly do their share in promoting it. I should be very glad to inform them, on application, of particulars.—Very respectfully, Otto Wollermann.

80 Second Street, Brooklyn, E. D., N. Y., March 31, 1884.

[Mr. Wollermann's assertion that *d* at the end of a syllable is pronounced like *t*, proves only that he considers any deviation from the rule "dialect." Yet we would ask him whether he himself pronounces *rund* like *bunt*, not to speak of *Pfad, Rad, Eid*, etc. And even he, as a presumable North German, will admit that the "fundamental" rule, "Write as you correctly speak," is not always a safe guide. For instance, in Hanover, Hamburg, and other parts of Germany, where the language is supposed to be spoken in its greatest purity, *sp* and *st*, in *Sprache, Stelle*, etc., are pronounced as written, while on no German stage with which we are acquainted—not in the classic Vienna Burg Theatre, which may be said to lay down rules for the pronunciation of the German language, as the Théâtre-Français does for the French, nor in the Berlin Court Theatre, nor in the Hamburg Thalia Theatre—is anything but the "dialect" pronunciation "*Sch*prache," "*Sch*telle," etc., ever heard. As regards *setzen*, we must admit that we were in error. The old rule which considers the *tz* merely an equivalent of *zz*, as applied to the new orthography, renders the *t* a superfluity in *Sitz*, though not in *setzen*.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The following are some of the spring announcements which we take from the *Publishers' Weekly*, the editor remarking of the whole that they show the tendency of the trade to concentrate their business in the latter part of the year, instead of distributing it. *D. Appleton & Co.:* 'The Prose Writings of William Cullen Bryant,' edited by Parke Godwin; 'Louis Pasteur: his Life and Labors,' by his son-in-law; 'Speeches, Arguments and Miscellaneous Papers,' by David Dudley Field; 'Mental Evolution in Animals,' by George J. Romanes; and 'Electricity,' by J. E. Gordon. *Robert Clarke & Co.*, Cincinnati: 'Sorghum: its Culture and Manufacture Economically Considered,' by Prof. Peter Collier; 'Camping and Cruising in Florida,' by Dr. James A. Henshall; and 'The Principles and Practice of Common School Education,' by James Currie. *Geo. H. Ellis*, Boston: Dr. George Grove's essays on 'Beethoven's Nine Symphonies,' with illustrations from the scores. *Estes & Lauriat*, Boston: the complete works of Thomas Carlyle in twenty crown octavo volumes on the finest parchment-linen drawing paper, to be called the "Parchment Edition," and illustrated with original etchings, steel-engravings, etc., and limited to 375 copies; and 'Birds of Haiti and San Domingo,' by Charles B. Cory. *S. C. Griggs & Co.*, Chicago: a new edition of Prof. Wm. Mathews's 'Words, their Use and Abuse'; and 'Geological Excursions; or the Rudiments of Geology for Young Learners,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell. *Harper & Bros.:* 'Marcus Aurelius Antoninus,' by Paul Barron Watson; George Eliot's 'Essays and Leaves from a Note-Book'; a new "Library Edition," in seven volumes, of Coleridge's works, with an introductory essay upon his philosophical and theological opinions, edited by Prof. W. G. T. Shedd, and indexed by Arthur Gilman; 'Manners and Social Customs in America,' a book of etiquette, by Mrs. John Sherwood; and 'The Entailed Hat,' by George Alfred Townsend. *Henry Holt & Co.:* the 'Chanson de Roland,' translated by Prof. Léonce Rabillon, of Johns Hopkins University. *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*, Boston: 'Margaret Fuller Ossoli,' by T. W. Higginson; 'Captains of Industry,' biographical sketches by James Parton; and a translation of the first twelve books of the 'Odyssey,' by Prof. Geo. H. Palmer. *Lee & Shepard*, Boston: 'Whirlwinds, Cyclones, and Tornadoes,' by Wm. M. Davis; 'The Military Reconnoissance of Alaska, in 1883,' under command of Lieutenant Schwatka; 'Wild Woods Life,' by Capt. C. A. J. Farrar; 'Beginnings with the Microscope,' by Dr. Walter P. Manton; and a new and uniform edition of J. T. Trowbridge's novels. *J. B. Lippincott & Co.*, Philadelphia: 'Leibnitz,' by John Theodore Merz; 'Life and Select Literary Remains of Sam Houston, of Texas,' by Wm. Cary Crane; 'Memoir and Correspondence of Eliza P. Gurney,' edited by Richard F. Mott; and 'Home and School Training,' by Mrs. H. E. G. Arey. *D. Lothrop & Co.*, Boston: 'American Explorations in the Ice Zones,' by Prof. J. E. Nourse, U. S. N.; 'Life of Oliver Wendell Holmes,' by E. E. Brown; 'The Great Composers,' by Hezekiah Butterworth; 'The Travelling Law School and Famous Trials,' by Benjamin Vaughan Abbott; and 'Health and Strength Papers for Girls,' by Dr. Mary J. Safford and Mary E. Allen. *Macmillan & Co.:* 'Autobiography of Hector Berlioz'; 'Investigations in Currency and Finance,' by the late W. S. Jevons; 'Selections from Cowper's Letters,' by the Rev. W. Benham; and 'The Boy Emigrants,' a series of letters from Texas, edited by Thomas Hughes. *Thomas Nelson & Sons:* 'Gulliver's Travels,' with introduction and explanatory notes, by Robert Mackenzie. *Phillips & Hunt:* an 'Index to the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, 1818–1881,' by Dr. Elijah H. Pilcher. *G. P. Putnam's Sons:* 'Six Centuries of Work and Wages: the History of English Labor,' by J. E. Thorold Rogers; 'The Woman Question in Europe,' by Theodore Stanton; 'The Franco-American Cookery Book,' by Felix J. Déliée; and a series of 'American Orations, from the Colonial Period to the Present Time,' edited in

three volumes by Prof. Alexander Johnston, of Princeton College. *A. D. F. Randolph & Co.:* Tyndale's 'Five Books of Moses,' a reprint, with collations, from the edition of 1530, edited by J. I. Mombert, D.D.; and 'Echoes from the Oratory: Selections from the Poems of John Henry Newman, D.D.' *Roberts Bros.*, Boston: 'The Making of a Man,' a sequel to 'His Majesty Myself,' by the late Rev. William M. Baker; a new edition of Emerson's 'Life of Margaret Fuller'; and Lord Ronald Gower's 'Reminiscences.' *Charles Scribner's Sons:* a translation of Busch's 'Our Chancellor'; and the 'Life of Frederick Denison Maurice,' by his son. *Scribner & Welford:* 'Chronicles of Newgate,' by Maj. Arthur Griffiths; and the 'Chief Works of Benedict de Spinoza,' translated by R. H. M. Elwes. *E. Steiger & Co.:* 'In der Neuen Heimath,' a collection of historical contributions on German emigrants in all parts of the United States, edited by Anton Eickhoff; and a series of accompanying 'Geschichtsblätter,' edited by Carl Schurz, and beginning with a revised abridged edition of Friedrich Kapp's 'Geschichte der Deutschen im Staate New York,' followed by 'Bilder aus der Deutsch-Pennsylvanischen Geschichte,' by Oswald Seidensticker; a new edition of Gustav Körner's 'Das Deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten'; and 'Geschichte des Deutschen Elements in Staate Maine,' by H. A. Rattermann. *Thomas Whittaker:* Ellice Hopkins's 'Work among Workingmen'; and 'Anna Cavaye, or the Ugly Princess,' by Sarah Doudney. *John Wiley & Sons:* 'Metrology,' by Lieut. C. A. Totten—a defence of the Anglo-Saxon weights and measures, after the example of Prof. Piazzi Smyth; and President Barnard's counter work, 'The Metrological System of the Great Pyramid.'

George A. Leavitt & Co. will sell at auction in May the library of Alexander Farnum, of Providence, one of the notable private collections of that city.

A year and a half ago we reviewed the first volume of the Rev. E. M. Wherry's 'Comprehensive Commentary on the Qurán' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), in the "English and Foreign Philosophical Library." The second volume of this meritorious work has now come to hand, ending with the Surat al Raad.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have put forth a cheap edition, in paper covers, of the 'Speeches, Lectures, and Letters' of the late Wendell Phillips. The plates are those of the Redpath edition of 1863, whose steel-plate portrait is here reproduced by "process." A slight biographical sketch is prefixed. An interval of fourteen years separates the first two addresses of this collection—a fact worth the attention of any biographer.

A new edition of Anna Ayres's 'Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg' bears the imprint of A. D. F. Randolph & Co. It is an interesting narrative of a highly useful and benevolent career, to which fame was brought by a single hymn, "I would not live alway," that was the least among his achievements. As early as 1849, for example, he instituted the "fresh air" mode of charity, which has had such a development of late years. Two portraits accompany the work.

A quaint library for the young, entitled "More for Good than Glitter Series," has been begun by the Esperanza Publishing Co., Lebanon, Pa. No. 1 is the old story in rhyme of "Joe Dobson and his Dame," who exchange duties for one day, to the husband's discomfiture. No. 2 is the rhymed "School of Good Manners." In both these brochures the facsimiles of the original cuts or engravings are the striking feature.

We have received the first number of *Hebraica*, "a monthly journal in the interests of Hebrew study," issued in Chicago by "The American Publication Society of Hebrew." The "managing editor" is William R. Harper, Ph.D., Professor of Hebrew and the Cognate Languages in the Chicago Baptist Union Theological Seminary, and the monthly is to be a companion to the *Old Testament Student*, issued under the same auspices. The new periodical is, we are informed, mainly intended for the benefit of a school for the study of Hebrew by correspondence, organized within three years, and already including over six hundred clergymen and students—which, for three years, is a tremendous success. The members of the school, we are further told, reside "in almost every State in the Union, in Canada, in England, in Scotland, in Ireland, in Turkey, in China, in Japan, in India." Mr. Harper has procured for *Hebraica* the coöperation of two excellent Oriental scholars, Dr. Strack, of the University of Berlin, and Dr. Haupt, formerly of the University of Göttingen, and now Professor of Semitic Languages in Johns Hopkins University. If the journal is to be worthy of such "associate editors," we cannot refrain from suggesting to Mr. Harper that some of its features, which give it the look of an advertising medium in the "interests" of the school described above and of its managers, must be made to disappear, and a generally good revision of its contents secured. The only slip in Hebrew which has struck us is *'ebed* for *'eber*, in Luzzato's sonnet—an old piece, perhaps deservedly reprinted. The number consists of twenty-four 8vo pages, and embraces some original matter of merit, besides some notices copied from books and periodicals.

Mr. W. J. Linton continues his good work of exposing pseudo-Bewicks, in the *Academy* of March 22; his text here being the Charnley edition of Fables (1820), and Pearson's reprint of Saint (1878). His information will be of great value to collectors.

It has already an ancient sound when a son now living tells of his father's bringing to England the first news of the battle of Leipzig. This is what Mr. Edward Solly does in the March *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton). The elder Solly was fifteen days in doing it, and beat the bearer of the original despatches. The story is apropos of "News and Newspapers." A correspondent makes the useful and probable suggestion that Spenser derived the mythology of his 'Faerie Queene,' not from the classics, but from Boccaccio.

The March number of the *Library Journal* contains a portion of the thoughtful and stimulating address of Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, delivered at the opening of the Sage Library at West Bay City, Michigan, in January last. In his interesting historical review of the stages of library formation in this country, he records the universal failure of the costly district-school libraries invented by DeWitt Clinton. He fails, it seems to us, to put his finger on the fundamental error, which was in seeking to elevate the pupils instead of the teachers. Had the same amount of money been expended in books of reference for them, the improved quality of teaching would have made return a hundred fold. This is still a desideratum.

Charing Cross and its changes are pleasantly described in the opening paper of the current *English Illustrated Magazine* (Macmillan), by Austin Dobson. A number of curious old prints and some recent drawings (not so good that photographic representations would not have been preferable) assist in the story.

A paper on "Esoteric Buddhism" seems misplaced in the *Bay State Monthly* for March. Both this number, however, and the current one, are in the main true to the Massachusetts biographic-historical ideal of the editor. The April number prints a facsimile of the recently unearthed oration delivered at Hanover, N. H., by Daniel Webster, on July 4, 1800.

The Education of Women, and Van Buren's Administration are the topics of Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for March.

Dr. Earl Flint contributes to the March number of the *American Antiquarian and Oriental Journal* a particular account of human footprints uncovered by him in a quarry at Managua, in Nicaragua, the overlying rock being seven inches thick. The locality is a lake shore. Two of the prints have been secured for the Peabody Museum at Cambridge.

One does not look for humor, outside of 'Pickwick' or Bret Harte's famous Stanislaus Society, in the proceedings of antiquaries, but last year's report of the Philadelphia Numismatic and Antiquarian Society is well calculated to amuse. A reverend gentleman communicated "a remarkable fact, which he had discovered after long study, viz.: that the Mongolian symbolism of writing was to be found on the rock sculpture of Mexico and Central America." Not content with this, he read an essay on the Dighton rock inscription, hitherto associated with the Northmen, but which he had "translated by means of Chinese radicals" to the following truly elegant effect: "A chain or band of folk from the sunrising (or East), after a long and stormy voyage, found the harbor of a great island. On landing and tying up our boats, we first gave thanks and adoration to God, Shang-Ti, the Supreme Ruler of the universe. We then sacrificed a human head to the moon, burning it and the body on a round sun-altar. . . . Our mouths hankered after something to eat and drink. We found the blue-black maize of our native land and wild fruit. We filled our rice kettles," etc. etc. If this is a sample of what the "Chinese radicals" are capable of, we are confident they might usefully be applied to the glacial scratches.

The latest *China Review* (November-December, 1883), by the way, has some capital specimens of Hakka folk-lore, the original characters being placed beside the translation. "Do not say that because the good is little it is not to be done, or that because the evil is little you may do it." "Men should not be too obstinate; . . . the wicked man will always be outdone by one more wicked; . . . and the longest-toothed wife will find her match with a raw potato." "Though he has never eaten pork, he has seen a pig run."

Prof. George H. Cook's annual report shows that the topographical survey of New Jersey has now been completed for nearly two-fifths of the total area of the State in the most difficult portion, so that more than one-half the labor has been done. Two more of the seventeen sheets of the map are about ready for distribution. Artesian wells sunk at Ocean Grove and Asbury Park have revealed conditions favorable to a perfect water supply of the entire southern coast, which has now become so great a summer resort. The chapter on the Archæan iron-ore-bearing rocks is like a technical lesson, with illustrations, in geological structure. There is an extensive table of dips for these rocks. Copper mining in New Jersey has taken a fresh start under more promising auspices than ever, and the graphite product is now getting to be considerable.

From the State Geologist of Alabama, Mr. Eugene Allen Smith, we have his agricultural report for the year 1881–82, replete with scientific and practical information, including an orderly agricultural description of each of the counties. The discussion of population and cotton production has a general interest. Taken as a whole, the State yields about one bale for every

two inhabitants, and the crop is, of course, mainly produced by the blacks. Where they are most in excess of the whites, the naturally richest lands exist, but also the largest farms and the most exhausting and ruinous system of cultivation; where the races are nearly equal in number, farms are small, and land poorer, but better worked and more fruitful and more varied in crops. The very poorest lands mark a great preponderance of whites. Such is the prevailing system of credits that "the whole cotton crop is usually mortgaged before it is gathered." This volume has been prepared in conjunction with the Census Bureau, and uses the physical maps of the late census.

"The Glacial Boundary in Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky" is the title of a pamphlet just published by the Western Reserve Historical Society, at Cleveland, Ohio. The author, Prof. G. Frederick Wright, of Oberlin, is well known for his enthusiasm on this subject. His conclusions are here mapped and explained, and in the case of Ohio a detailed report of his researches is given. Professor Wright notes the coincidence between the glacial boundary in that State and the southern line of wheat production. We will point out another. In 1880 the centre of population in the United States rested almost exactly upon it, in the little belt which crosses Kentucky.

The fourth annual report of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Japanese Government covers the year July 1, 1878-79, and contains much curious information. The number of medical students in public schools and hospitals was 4,313, but only 2,868 were pursuing a strict course. Licenses were granted to sell nearly 5,000 different kinds of patent medicines; yet this number represents a large falling-off since the year before. As in the case of our "bitters," venders carried on a profitable trade in *sake* without paying the wine-tax, by mixing with ordinary Japanese wine a small quantity of some medicament.

Exceptionally valuable are the contents of the fourth annual report of the Massachusetts Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity for the past year. Elaborate papers on the adulteration of food, and on eyes and industries, have a universal interest; so, indeed, has that on the reformed sewage of Nahant, while the subject of the paper on leprosy is, we are told, of increasing moment on account of foreign immigration. Nor do we remember any such comprehensive statistical summary of the public water-supply of a single State as is given here. The bibliographies of food adulteration and of leprosy deserve to be noted.

The Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic Ocean issued by the Hydrographic Office will hereafter be issued on the first of each month. That for April 1 records very severe weather in March and an unprecedented area of floating ice. The bergs and fields reported are pictured on the map, as also are wrecks of ships encountered. The direction of currents and winds is graphically shown as usual, and notices are printed of the latest tidings as to buoys, shoals, etc.

On April 5 appeared the first number of volume two of *Mélusine*, a review of mythology, popular literature, traditions and usages, founded in 1877, and then suspended at the close of the first volume. Its conductors, MM. H. Gaidoz and E. Rolland, remain the same; the scope of the review will be enlarged so as to stimulate research by editorial suggestion. The publisher is A. F. Staude, 6 rue des Fossés-St.-Bernard, Paris, and the subscription price 22.50 francs to foreigners.

Mr. Christern has received a volume of great value to economists, being the official testimony taken by a committee of inquiry into the condition of French workingmen and industries during 1882 and 1883. This inquiry was ordered by Government from a sense of the disastrous effects of foreign competition and a desire to apply a remedy. Quantin is the Paris publisher.

From the same source come to us the early numbers of the ninth volume of the *Gazette Anecdotique, Littéraire, Artistique, Bibliographique*, edited by G. D'Heylli, and published by Jouaust—a pretty, handy little fortnightly chronicle of the town's doings and sayings ("les mot sde la quinzaine"), with literary varia, such as unpublished letters of Rachel, of Louis Veuillot, of Jules Sandeau, the numbering of the streets of Paris, familiar quotations, etc. The value of this collection will always be enhanced by its readability.

The double number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* of the French School at Athens for January and February contains five plates of Greek leaden *tesseræ*, comprising 225 specimens, many showing obverse and reverse, and forming a most interesting collection of numismatic designs. These were probably the seals of towns or individual merchants, and are mainly of the Macedonian or Roman epochs, though some are early and very fine. The literary contributions comprise a series of inscriptions from Amorgos, by Koumanoudes, the ablest of Greek epigraphists; from Kalymnos by Dubois, of the School; from Maronia, by Reinach; a series of "free papers," inscriptions recording the liberation of slaves, from Chæronea and Orchomenos, by Latichew; and a most important paper on the Romans at Delos by Homolle, one of the students who have been in charge of the work on that island. A contribution by the Director, M. Foucart, concludes the list. To the student of Greek epigraphy the *Bulletin* is the most valuable contemporary publication.

— For the clearer understanding of a subject which never may be altogether freed from obscurity, Mr. Abner C. Goodell, jr.'s, 'Further Notes on the History of Witchcraft in Massachusetts' (Cambridge: John Wilson & Son) should be read in connection with Mr. George H. Moore's 'Notes on the History of Witchcraft in Massachusetts' (Worcester: Charles Hamilton), and the March Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Many able historians and jurists, in reviewing the Salem witch trials of 1692, have condemned the whole proceedings as irregular and illegal. We believe we may say that almost all the "authorities," from Hutchinson down to Palfrey, have denounced the court as a "sham court," and the law upon which the trials were based as a "dead letter." The quoted words, though used by only one writer, seem fitly to express the opinions of many. The court was a "sham court," say these writers, because by a provision of the Province charter the General Court was alone empowered to "erect and constitute judicatories and courts of record or other courts" for the hearing, trying, and determining of "all manner of crimes, offences, . . . actions, matters, causes, and things whatsoever" happening within the Province; and they argue that it was "a gross usurpation of power" for the Governor (Phipps) to institute a court of oyer and terminer for the trial of the accused witches, his privilege being limited to the appointment of the commissioners thereof. Hutchinson (and his view seems to have been unhesitatingly adopted by subsequent historians) says that "at the first trial there was no colony or provincial law against witchcraft," and that the applicability here of any of the witchcraft laws of the mother country may be fairly questioned. The first act of the first Provincial General Court was to revive the whole colonial code of laws (including laws against witchcraft)—an inferential admission that the authority of these laws ceased upon the abrogation of the colonial charter, and consequently that at the time of the first witch trial the witch law was a "dead letter." Mr. Moore and Mr. Goodell have taken a bold stand in opposition to these views, and rarely have we seen so many evidences of careful research brought to bear upon a debatable question of history as are exhibited in their pamphlets. Mr. Moore engages to prove the sufficiency of statute and common law in all the proceedings against the accused witches; while Mr. Goodell declares in favor of the validity of the court, that it was erected in strict conformity to law and precedent and the "express language of the charter." Another important question is brought up for discussion, namely, whether the law of 1711, reversing "the several convictions, judgments, and attainders" against the condemned, was ever duly enacted—Mr. Goodell for the affirmative, Mr. Moore for the negative. Mr. Goodell offers as evidence a copy of the act, purporting to have been printed two years after its enactment, and follows its progress "from the inceptive petition to its final passage," by extracts from the official records. A heliotype copy of the act is inserted in his pamphlet. Mr. Moore maintains that the law was inoperative, not having received the approval of the Governor; that there being but one copy in existence furnishes a presumption against it; and further, that the reversal of attainders was a prerogative belonging to the King and Parliament, "and it is measurably certain that this act never came under the notice of the Privy Council." The law has often been referred to by local historians, some of whom have made verbatim quotations therefrom, and Mr. Moore is the first to pronounce publicly against its genuineness.

—The *Art Union* monthly contains a long and interesting account of the manufacture of and trade in bogus pictures, which will interest collectors even though it do not teach them how to protect themselves. The public must learn that in art matters *expertise* is an affair of education, and the millionaire who ventures to buy on his own account without that education may buy what pleases him, and may be trusted to pay no more than he can afford, but that his purchases will be worth commercially what they cost him is a matter of uncertainty—the reverse is far more likely. But there is no occasion for compassion towards the defrauded: if a man has got what pleases him, and pays what he can spare, he has no ground for complaint. To cultivate his taste to the point that he can purchase wisely is an expensive process, and the ordinary millionaire cannot afford it. It is reserved for men, like Messrs. Walters, Martin Brimmer, Quincy Shaw, etc., with whom art has been a life-long study, to make collections on their merits which will prove permanent, sound investments. There is, however, one consideration which the public has not yet taken in: if a picture is known to be a Corot (to take our illustration from the recent Dumas case), it is worth 12,000 francs, and if it proves to be by Trouillebert it is only worth 400. The difference is the autographic value of the work. An original drawing by Raphael, properly authenticated, will be worth in the market thousands of dollars, where an exact copy by an expert and known draughtsman will be worth the hundredth part of that price, and a good facsimile by photography only a dollar. An original letter of Raphael's will be worth even more in comparison with the copy. Now this enormous difference is due purely to the reverence or regard we entertain for any authentic relic of the great men of the past, and increases as they recede into the region of "has been;" a

certain reverence which surrounds the artist increasing this autographic value of works of art more than is the case with men of most other professions. This is the reason why the authenticity of a work of art becomes an important element in determining its money value; its absolute value is quite indeterminable—has in fact no figure. That Raphael had ever touched a palette or a pencil would make it a relic of great price; that which has not only the touch of his hand but the perfect expression of his mind, is still more exalted by the apotheosis of time. The only alternative for our collectors who will not study art is to buy from the artists while they are living. Those who fear that the removal of the tariff will favor the introduction of "trash" may be consoled by the *Art Union's* revelations of the factories of the worst kind of trash in this city, the turning out of oil pictures at $10 the dozen, *framed*, at wholesale. The Yankee genius is not to be circumvented where money is to be made, and it is certain that we can turn out greater and cheaper trash than has ever been imported.

—The affectionate tribute to the late Mr. Lasker by his friend Rodenberg, in the *Rundschau* for March, is followed in the April *Nord und Süd* by an (artistically) admirable etched portrait, and a sketch, by an anonymous writer, who describes himself as having been Lasker's political and party associate. Lasker's individual career is important enough for the article to be worth reading on his account, but its chief interest is as an illustration of German political ideas. The writer corroborates all that has been said by others respecting Lasker's extraordinary disinterestedness, his absolute negation of self as regards personal reward and political preferment, his entire patriotism. But the curious thing is that, as regards his political action, Lasker is praised not for what he did but for what he abstained from doing; not as an originating and propelling, but as a restraining force. We need hardly remind the reader that in German politics there are three constant elements besides several accidental ones (among which, of course, is Bismarck). These permanent features are the Conservatives, the Liberals, and the Catholics. Aloof from these has always stood Bismarck, surrounded by a small band composed partly of personal disciples, partly of adherents of the head of the Government as such. Though it is doubtless true that he detests parliamentary government, it is undeniable that he has proved himself a consummate parliamentary tactician, for by using each party in turn he has succeeded in carrying out nearly all his plans without adopting the peculiar ideas of any of the factions. Now the party of which Lasker's ability, energy, power of work, and hold on the people, caused by their consciousness of his disinterestedness, made him the leader in fact if not in name, had this and this alone in common with Bismarck—that they wished, above all other things, the establishment and maintenance of German unity. Each secretly regarded the other as a necessary evil in the accomplishment of this purpose, and some Liberals (the Fortschrittspartei, stigmatized in this article as doctrinaires) saw from the beginning that as soon as Bismarck had accomplished his immediate object he would throw over his Liberal allies in favor of a new combination. They, therefore, consistently acted up to their principles, never trusting Bismarck further than they could see him, never surrendering for the sake of half a loaf what they deemed their legitimate, if impracticable, claim upon the whole. Lasker, on the contrary, was the great advocate of what the French call opportunism—not exactly the same as our expediency—and this, in the opinion of the *Nord und Süd* writer, constitutes his best claim to gratitude and remembrance. Without departing from Liberalism in theory, Lasker is here represented as always ready on national questions to "pool issues" and vote with Bismarck, until the time came when he had to acknowledge, though with the greatest reluctance, that Liberals could no longer bend their policy so as to follow Bismarck without entirely losing their identity. As to the final value of this policy, the opinions of Liberals will always differ, because there will never be agreement as to whether his series of compromises secured much that was otherwise unattainable, or whether, by enabling Bismarck to consolidate his power without giving guarantees against its abuse, it made it possible for him in the end to turn his back upon all Liberalism. The view of Lasker's immediate followers is shown clearly enough by the fact that, relieved of the influence of his character and reputation, they at once coalesced with the more consistent Liberals, who had never ceased to upbraid Lasker with time-serving and subserviency.

—Seldom has a new work of sterling merit met with such immediate and emphatic success as Dvořák's "Stabat Mater" on Thursday evening at the third concert of the New York Chorus Society. The members appeared in full force, and listened to the Bohemian composer's masterpiece with rapt attention and a generous disposition to applaud its many beauties, as well as the merits of the performance. Every lover of serious music must feel grateful to Brahms, Liszt, and Joachim for having discovered the gifts of Dvořák, and given him an opportunity to acquire an international reputation commensurate with his genius much sooner than would have been the case without such influential friends. The "Stabat Mater" at once takes its place by the side of the best works that have been composed to the same words. It is by no means Dvořák's latest opus, having been written nearly ten years ago. From his other compositions it differs in being less strongly flavored with Slavic ingredients, as conditioned to some extent by the nature of the subject. And yet its nationality is unmistakable, mainly on account of the uninterrupted flow of chaste, pure melody. Those who observe the signs of the times must perceive that, now that the fountains of Italian music are exhausted, a new stream of melody is being turned into European music. It is more healthy in tone, less artificial in structure, and suggests the open fields and forests rather than the hot-houses in which *fioriture* and rank arias are reared. The "Stabat Mater" illustrates this new tendency. It is not only full of melody, but the melody is simple and yet never commonplace, because it rests on a substantial, rich, and varied harmonic basis. The accompaniment also is melodious in all its parts, and this gives the score a polyphonic aspect, although never at the expense of clearness. The changes of key are often surprisingly beautiful, being sometimes brought about through a suspension, at other times by an abrupt but natural transition which suggests Schubert in manner rather than in substance. The instrumentation gives evidence of an exquisite color sense, rare even at the present day. All the families of instruments are impartially considered, and true genius is displayed in the manner in which certain instruments are combined with the voices, no less than in the *transitions* from one tint to another, which are always arranged with a sense analogous to that for complementary colors and contrasts in the world of sight; and this is a feature to which most composers do not pay sufficient attention. The general character of the work is, of course, sombre. Several London critics have objected to the predominance of the minor keys in the "Stabat Mater." This is a peculiar objection, which is met by three answers: (1) The sad and solemn character of minor makes it especially suited to the words to which it is set; (2) the tendency of modern music, as already noted by Schumann, is toward minor in preference to major, because it facilitates modulation; (3) Slavic music, in particular, favors the minor mode, as was the case with music generally as long as melody predominated over harmony. Dvořák's treatment of the voices is no less commendable than that of the instruments. In several of the numbers fine effects are produced by the gradual addition to a solo voice of two or three others. The choruses are without exception interesting, several of them grand and inspiring. Indeed, there is hardly a dull moment in the whole work, and it is, therefore, needless to single out any parts for special praise. In number ten and one of the preceding numbers occur chorale-like passages for unaccompanied chorus, which produced a great effect, and were magnificently sung, showing even better than the accompanied parts of what good material the Chorus Society now consists in all its members, and how well it has been trained. [Special attention was paid to the shading, especially the numerous sforzandos and crescendos which occur in almost every bar. The solo parts were effectively rendered by Misses Emma Juch and Winant, Messrs. Graff and Heinrich.

—An interesting experiment was made at the sixth concert of the Symphony Society on Saturday. Beethoven's quartet in C sharp minor, op. 131, was played in a version for full orchestra made by Karl Müller-Berghaus. The experiment was worth making, even if it should not prove to be of permanent value. Of course the practice is common, in American and European concert halls, of playing single movements of a string quartet with the full string orchestra. Most concert halls are too large to enable four players alone to be heard to advantage, and this procedure is therefore the only way of familiarizing the masses with the gems of chamber music. The arrangement of a whole quartet for full orchestra, and especially of so unique a work as Beethoven's opus 131, is quite another thing. Fortunately Müller-Berghaus is not only a good quartet player, thoroughly familiar with the later Beethoven, but he also understands the uses of the orchestra. In his version the strings of course predominate, the wind instruments being chiefly used to give variety in cases of repetition, and to emphasize the melody when it occurs in the middle parts. Nowhere are the limits of Beethoven's orchestra exceeded, and it is probable that had Beethoven himself *arranged* his quartet for orchestra the result would have been similar. Had he *written* it for orchestra, it would have been different; the harmonies on occasion would have been richer and the treatment of the parts more complicated. For, notwithstanding the excellence of Müller-Berghaus's work, the quatuor does not in its new garb quite merit the title of "a new Beethoven symphony." Its original purpose cannot be disguised; and, for our part, we should at any time prefer it as played by the Joachim Quartet at the Berlin Singakademie than as given at the Academy of Music by Dr. Damrosch's orchestra, although the performance was, on the whole, intelligent and meritorious. Many passages in this magnificent work disclose their full beauty only after repeated hearing, and familiarity is apt to breed that enthusiasm which caused Wagner to exclaim that the last movement is "the dance of the world itself; wild delight, the lamentation of anguish, ecstasy of love, highest rapture,

misery, rage, voluptuousness, and sorrow." Like all the works of Beethoven's last years, this quartet is prophetic of the change which was to come over music after him, in so far as the architectural principle was exchanged for the poetic, dramatic, and psychologic. Here we have no longer four movements of equal length symmetrically grouped together; but the movements become shorter and twelve in number, counting the separate variations; while within each movement there are numerous ritardandos that give the effect of poetic emotion.

CATHARINE II.

Katharina die Zweite. Von Dr. Alexander Brückner, Professor an der Universität Dorpat. Mit Portraits und Illustrationen. [Forming vol. x. of the third main division of the 'Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen,' edited by Wilhelm Oncken.] Berlin. 1883.

THE character pictures of the "Semiramis of the North" have been as diverse as those of Napoleon I. According to some, she was, with all her foibles, one of the grandest apparitions in history, combining equal power, genius, liberalism, and generosity; according to others, she was, with all her ability, one of the meanest women that ever swayed the destinies of a great country; and most varied have been the accounts which endeavored to strike a just balance between those extreme views. The appearance of the 'Mémoires' of Catharine herself, which Alexander Hertzen published in 1859, and the genuineness of which has long been generally recognized, has silenced the writers of panegyrics of her forever; the successive publication, in Russian and foreign collections and periodicals, of a vast mass of her correspondence, and of contemporary notices concerning her, has revealed traits incompatible with the idea of her having been entirely devoid of the better feelings of humanity and of her sex. The balance is now overwhelmingly against her as to her moral worth, though greatly in her favor when her gifts and accomplishments are considered. What she has been to Russia and to Europe, by her boundless ambition and restless activity, is a question on which something like an accord of opinion can much less easily be reached, if at all. Mourners of Poland will ever curse the memory of her whose heartless Machiavellian diplomacy and ruthless warfare undermined and destroyed the existence of that unfortunate nation. Admirers of the transformation of Russia inaugurated by Peter the Great cannot fail to see in Catharine a shining continuator of his work of reform and civilization. National writers of Old-Russian proclivities, inclined to ascribe the gravest ills of the Empire of the Czars to the departure from the ancient Slavic traditions and ways, and the covering of its surface with a worse than useless foreign varnish, must find in the German Princess who was Peter's fourth female successor a better Russian than he was himself, but yet a "Westerner." Applauders of the rise of Slavic and other Christian nations on the ruins of the Ottoman Empire will easily pardon the wholesale butcheries committed by the Rumyantzeffs, Potemkins, and Suvoroffs while leading Catharine's armies toward the Danube. Others will not forget that those fierce wars had for their only object the substitution of the barbaric sway of Muscovite autocracy for Turkish irregular oppression, that they ruined the political equilibrium of Europe, and resulted in perils to that continent more to be dreaded than any with which the Crescent ever menaced it.

Professor Brückner does not enter into the consideration of topics like these. His history is almost purely biographical and objective. He has labored, as to his materials, under an oppressive *embarras de richesse*, and has had to contend with difficulties of expression arising out of his position as professor at a Russian university; but he has succeeded in making the comprehensive volume highly interesting in the best sense of the word, and, in regard to historical veracity and authenticity, not unworthy of its place in the eminent collection of which it forms a comparatively very conspicuous part. His Catharine is a picture fully, laboriously, and carefully executed, though not without a strong favorable bias.

Professor Brückner dwells with complacency on the rare mental qualities which distinguished his heroine in her youthful years. When a mere child, she was remarkable for her serious, cool, and calculating intellect, great energy, and freedom from caprice and levity. When she entered the Russian court (in 1744), at the age of not quite fifteen, to become the bride of the future Czar Peter III., she at once grasped all the difficulties of her situation, and resolved how to meet them. There were unavoidable collisions with her own ambitious mother, wife of the Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst, who had taken her to St Petersburg; with the Empress Elizabeth, who evinced some mistrust toward the gifted young Princess; with Peter, who felt no affection for her. She was determined to make herself mistress of the situation, to become Empress of Russia at any cost. She shrank from no sacrifice to her feelings, from the employment of no means. She had to fall back upon the resources of her own mind, upon herself. In the midst of a glittering and revelling court, of gazing multitudes and scrutinizing observers, she lived in complete isolation. She devoted her time to studies and the acquisition of various accomplishments, to self-culture in the broadest sense. In the shadow of a throne whose mistress, a daughter of Peter the Great, displayed all the brutality and little of the genius of her father, and linked to a most contemptible young Prince, who was devoid even of what was barbarously grand in his imperial aunt and grandfather, Catharine kept up a constant communion with the leading ideas and spirits of the age, and became an adept in its liberalism—a devoted disciple of Montesquieu and Voltaire, Diderot and D'Alembert. But at the same time she practised horseback riding and hunting, she was ostensibly a most devout follower of the Greek Church—having abjured her Protestantism—acquired a perfect fluency in the language of her adopted country, and in every way showed herself a Russian of the Russians; while the Crown Prince, her consort, alienated the attachment of his future subjects by clinging to German habits, notions, and predilections brought from his paternal duchy, Holstein-Gottorp, though by no means shrinking from the coarseness of the vilest Russian associations. The contrast was complete, and Catharine consciously and calculatingly labored to render it striking.

It is almost painful to follow our author in his descriptions of all the exhibitions of imbecility, brutality, and disgusting licentiousness and intemperance with which the heir to the throne of all the Russias, and its occupant for a few months, afflicted his unbeloved and unloving wife. It was hardly necessary to make this record so long, and perhaps not entirely fair either, for a part of it rests on the authority of her whom Peter by turns neglected, tormented, and threatened, until she resolved on his violent removal from the path of her towering ambition. As in her 'Memoirs,' so here, the particulars are minutely stated for apologetic purposes. They are to extenuate the guilt of her conjugal infidelities and of the treasonable *coup*, prepared with so much premeditation, by which Peter, in July, 1762, was robbed of his crown and life. There was a time when those infidelities were still half-denied by loyal historians. Catharine's own confessions—frank, petulant, and even cynically boastful—have rendered a further denial impossible, and even a professor of history salaried by the Russian Government can now more or less clearly state—at least in a work published beyond the border of the Empire—that, of the three children to whom the future Empress gave birth, Paul, her successor, father of Alexander I. and Nicholas, and great-grandfather of the reigning Czar, was the son of Saltykoff; Anna, who died an infant, the daughter of Stanislas Poniatowski; and the youngest, the erratic and dissolute Count Bobrinski, a son of Grigori Orloff ("Der Sohn Katharinas und G. Orlows," we read on page 46). On the other hand, Catharine is warmly defended against the accusation, formerly and still lately current in histories, that the strangling of Peter, at Ropsha, a few days after his dethronement, in which Grigori Orloff's brother Alexei had the most direct part, was not only a natural epilogue to her usurpation—for enacting which nobody was punished or disgraced—but a deed unequivocally ordered by herself. The question is immaterial. Catharine certainly did nothing to prevent the bloody consummation, and she would as certainly have commanded it had her interest decidedly required it. It was perhaps only a useful crime, done before it was needed. Over the ghastly scene of the assassination our author casts a veil.

The murder of the ex-Czar Ivan, in his prison, is a parallel to that of Peter III. That unfortunate Prince was a grandnephew of the Empress Anna Ivanovna, Peter the Great's niece, who reigned from 1730 to 1740, and was by her appointed heir to the Russian throne, to reign under the regency of Biron, Duke of Courland. The Empress died before he was a year old, and his mother, Anna Karlovna, overthrowing the appointed regency, seized the reins of power in his name. A year later Anna was in her turn overthrown by Elizabeth, and sent with her husband, the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, to an island in the Dvina, near the White Sea. Ivan was imprisoned in the vicinity of St. Petersburg, and kept there in extraordinary secrecy throughout the twenty years of Elizabeth's reign. When Catharine seized the throne she had him hastily transferred from the fortress of Schlüsselburg to Kexholm, apparently in order to use his mysterious place of confinement for Peter III.; but after the tragedy at Ropsha he was returned to his old prison, where he lingered two more years in his wretchedness. The officers who guarded him were instructed never to hand him over to anybody, unless shown a direct order of the Empress herself, or of Panin, her Minister of State; and, in case an attempt should be made to deliver him by force, to slay him on the spot. Such an attempt was made by a few military conspirators in 1764, and the officers did as commanded. When the chief of the conspiracy, Mirovitch, had forced his entrance into the room of the prisoner whom he was going to reinstate on his Imperial throne, he found him on the floor—a corpse. The officers reported to Panin, Panin reported to Catharine, and the disciple of Diderot wrote in reply: "God's ways are wonderful and inscrutable"; "Providence has granted me a sign of his mercy"; "I trust to God that this attempt will be wholly revealed"; and, "As much as I desire that God may make it clear whether there are any accomplices, just so do I implore the Almighty that no innocent men shall be plunged into ruin." Whether the rack should be employed to help the Almighty in revealing the whole of the plot and saving the innocent, was a question referred to the Empress

by the Court of Inquiry, and referred back by her to the Court, for its independent decision, as a matter the consideration of which was too painful for her own excited feelings. Fortunately the Court remembered that the Empress had formerly declared herself opposed to the rack "on principle"—although Beccaria, afterward one of her favorite liberal writers, was but then publishing his 'Dei delitti e delle pene'—and Mirovitch was executed untortured. The excitement caused by the affair was immense, and Catharine had to issue a manifesto in explanation of it. "She was deemed capable of using Mirovitch as a tool in carrying out the murder of the unhappy pretender, and of sending him to the scaffold in order to get rid of a dangerous sharer of the terrible secret." And such versions of events in Catharine's reign have but gradually been abandoned even by grave historians of our time. Professor Brückner calls them "monstrous fables."

Scarcely had Catharine been delivered of the danger with which the legitimate claims of the ex-Czar Ivan might have threatened her possession of the crown, when the tranquillity of her reign began to be disturbed by a succession of adventurous popular pretenders, each claiming to be Peter III., miraculously saved from the murderous hand of his adulterous consort. Gavrila Kremneff, in 1765, was the first of these pseudo-Peters; the most formidable was Pugatcheff, who in 1773-4 headed an insurrection of Cossacks, peasants, and non-Russian populations, which desolated the districts east of the Volga, shook the empire to its foundations, and for a time threatened Moscow itself. These phenomena in the history of Russia were not new. Who has not read of the history of the successive pseudo-Dimitris, pretenders to the throne of the extinct Ruriks, in the beginning of the seventeenth century? Each of these pretenders claimed to be the youngest son of Ivan the Terrible. Others appeared as sons of his successor, Feodor, or of Czar Vasili Shuiski. The generalizing remarks of our author on this subject have a more than common interest, throwing light as they do on essential psychological conditions of the Russian nation, which are not characteristic of its past alone.

"The measure of our knowledge of the details in criminal cases of this kind is very uneven, but it is sufficient in most of them to convince us that we have to deal with a phenomenon of social pathology. It is the mass of the people which produces such adventurers, upon whom the pretender's rôle is not seldom forced. The thought of representing a deceased prince does not always spring from the head of the pretender himself. . . . That the in many instances very numerous adherents of such reputed tzarevitches, czars, and emperors were all believers in their genuineness, is not to be presumed. They identify themselves with the cause of such criminals, because various advantages are to be achieved under their banner. Wherever there are malcontents and oppressed such notions of pretendership obtain currency. Every rumor of the appearance of a reputed ruler, or reputed relative of a ruler, is hailed with satisfaction by the masses, because it awakens a hope of an improvement in their condition. Many rumors of this kind are without any foundation in fact. Where nobody was found to act the part of a pretender, a phantom of a pretender was invented, and by this alone the desired effect was produced. Thus there was nobody among the hosts of the ill-famed robber Stenka Razin (1668-71) to assume actively the rôle of the former Patriarch Nicon, but the pointing at a boat said to carry that church dignitary was sufficient to inflame the imagination of the people, who sympathized with the exalted state convict, and to incite them to a struggle against the reigning order of things. . . .

"Such occurrences offer eloquent testimony of the misery and barbarism, the sufferings and struggles, of the people. They afford us an insight into the difficulties inseparable from a state of transition, like that involved in the transmutation of Russia from an Asiatic into a European realm. They speak loudly of the oppression of the masses through unscrupulous, corrupt, and greedy officials. They tell of the fatality of the peasant question, solved only in the most recent time. They reflect the nomadic, Cossack-like ways of the migratory, labor-shunning bulk of the people; the savageness of the alien races; the narrow-mindedness of the sectarians; the despair of the deserters from the army, and of the runaways from transported gangs of robbers and murderers. They make clear the historical significance of the want of a regular and normal order of succession, resting on a fundamental state basis. They illustrate the demoralizing effect naturally produced on the mind of the masses by convulsing crises in the history of the state, like the *coup d'état* in the summer of 1762, or by such deeds of violence as were then perpetrated in Ropsha, and in 1764 in Schlüsselburg."

The descriptions of suffering, maladministration, and revenge, which form a part of the comment to these generalizations, are harrowing in the extreme, though the author is averse to dwelling upon horrors. The crimes perpetrated by Pugatcheff and his revolted bands were in strict proportion to the crimes of the nobility and Government which drove the brutalized peasantry to desperation and fierce rebellion; and the unsparing cruelty with which the rebellion was chastised corresponded to the fear and fury with which it had filled the rulers. Catharine, whose mainspring of action was vanity, felt humbled by this terrible unmasking before Europe of the real condition of things in her Empire, which she pretended to rule with the wisdom and humanity of a Marcus Aurelius, and the Arcadian felicity of which her Derzhavin had just been singing in pompous strains. During the course of the insurrection she was constantly urging on her generals to hasten the suppression of a movement which put her to shame before the world. To Voltaire, however, she wrote in a jocose manner about it, representing it as a petty affair, soon to be finished with the hanging of Pugatcheff, exaggerating the victories of her commanders, and belittling the rebel thief as "un sot ivrogne." In the same vein she wrote to her regular correspondent, Grimm, mocking "le marquis Pougatcheff," and predicting the speedy ending of the "farce" in floggings and a few executions. When she wrote thus, the knout and the gibbet were already in active requisition, but the end of the affair was still very far off. The scene of the "farce" was shifted from the banks of the river Ural to those of the Volga, and beyond this river westward. In Moscow, where the populace sympathized with the false Peter, extraordinary measures had to be taken to guard against an outbreak—measures which remind us of the preventives used in the same metropolis in our days against Nihilism. And there is, in fact, no little intrinsic resemblance between the spirit which pervaded the rebellious movements of 1773-74 and the destructive revolutionism of a hundred years later.

But Catharine was as fortunate in dealing with rebellion, pretendership, and conspiracy, with all domestic and foreign foes, as was Elizabeth of England, whom she also equalled, or surpassed, in energy, activity, knowledge, circumspection, cool self-possession, vanity, selfishness, and falsehood. In temper she was by far the superior of the English Queen. She was never cruel from rancor or jealousy, she was generally cheerful and inclined to merriment, fond of amusement and luxury, plain and affable, kind and complacent to all who surrounded her, and immeasurably lavish toward her favorites. In voluptuousness she was almost the equal of the Russian Elizabeth; in this respect she knew no hypocrisy. Her court, with its long succession of lovers *en ordre*, was a dazzling school of immorality. Potemkin for years ruled the Empire, and almost ruled her. She passionately mourned the loss of Lanskoi, resigned Mamonoff to a rival, and chose in Zuboff a lover forty years her junior. She used Poniatowski, whom she had placed on the throne of Poland, as an instrument in his old age for the destruction of that country's independence. At that time she had ceased to be a reformer, a liberal lawgiver, emulous of the glory of Frederick the Great. The French Revolution disgusted her with ideas of freedom and equality. Its successes enraged her, provoking her to flippant utterances on current events entirely unworthy of her wit and sagacity. A conquering Semiramis she remained to the end. Her son Paul she treated as the Semiramis of Nineveh is related to have treated her Ninyas. She seems to have expected her grandson Alexander to succeed her; in his brother Constantine she saw a future Byzantine Emperor. She was fond of both, and wrote books for their instruction. She died of apoplexy, and Paul succeeded her—soon to die as her husband did. Long before her death she had composed the following epitaph for herself—a very flattering one, indeed:

"Here rests Catharine II., born in Stettin on April 21 (May 2), 1729. In the year 1744 she went to Russia to marry Peter III. At the age of fourteen she resolved on this triple task: to please her consort, Elizabeth, and the nation. She omitted nothing in striving for this object. Eighteen years of *ennui* and solitude induced her to devote herself to voluminous reading. Having ascended the Russian throne, she made the good her aim, and strove to give her subjects happiness, freedom, and wealth. She was ready to pardon, and hated nobody; she was forbearing, easy-going, of serene disposition; she had a republican soul and a kind heart; she possessed friends; work was easy to her, and the arts gave her pleasure."

AMONG THE CANNIBALS.

Camping among Cannibals. By Alfred St. Johnston. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE reader who opens 'Camping among Cannibals' at the beginning and follows the narrative in its course, may be pardoned if he wonders for a time what it was the author saw in his travels to suggest or justify the title he has chosen. The first and larger portion of the book, far from gratifying any bloodthirsty curiosity which the title-page may have awakened, presents a view of South Sea Island life so bright and rosy, and so altogether lovely, that one begins almost to share the enthusiasm of the author, who, having been taught in his tender youth to thank the Lord in a hymn that he was "born an English child," is ready, after visiting Tongatabu, to take it all back and wish he had "been born a Pacific Island one."

Few voyagers who have written books about the South Seas have been so completely captivated by the charms of that far-away island life as Mr. Alfred St. Johnston appears to have been during his visit to the Friendly and Samoan groups. For him it is a hopeless task to try to describe even a tithe of the beauties of these glorious islands. Words are absolutely inadequate to tell of their beauty of land, or sea, or sky. Everything is gorgeous. There is a rapturous intoxication in the very air one breathes, a sense of beauty everywhere around in earth and sea and air, that cannot possibly be described with pen and ink. He finds for the first time in his life an absolute and perfect satisfaction of his sense of color. He tells us of the soft green turf; the groves of orange trees, covered with glossy foliage and loaded with golden fruit; the coco-palms, lifting their slender stems aloft and waving gracefully their feathery branches; the crimson hybiscus, making glowing spots of color amid the shade, and the white gardenias, with whose perfume the

air is heavy, and about which large purple butterflies float languidly; of the bright surf, breaking gently upon the coral shore; the placid sea beyond, in whose clear depths strange zoöphytic forms, waving their fringes of tentacles of every gorgeous hue, bloom like ocean-flowers with wonderful tints of rose and gold and blue and purple, among which the shining and elusive fish flit in and out of mimic caves and grottoes as bright as they; of the cool of the evening, delicious after the heat of the day, when the beating of the surf upon the reef is heard with greater distinctness in the silence of the night, and the stars shine with golden radiance in the deep blue of the sky, while here and there a light shines softly through the palms, and now and then dim figures, white-robed, move hand in hand, idyllic. In this poetic, if not tropical, language the author strives vainly, as he thinks, to convey his impressions of a South Pacific paradise, coming at last to the conclusion that he has really found "the most exquisitely lovely place on the whole of God's great earth."

If the islands are lovely, the islanders are still more so. The men are charming, the women delightful:

"They are muscular, cheerful looking, and well fed; and their features are, I think, much better than the English average, being in many cases regular and fine. The nose may be rather broad at the base, but it is frequently well cut; the mouth is large and the lips a trifle full, but the teeth they disclose are strong, and white, and even, and their eyes are dark and lustrous. The women of Tonga have, I verily believe, the most beautiful eyes in the world, and they know how to use them, too Liquid, soft, and speaking, they glance through the fringe of their silken lashes in a manner that is indescribably sweet. Their dress consists of a cloth, fastened round the waist, which hangs down below the knees; the body has no covering, and they go bareheaded. The missionaries, with their usual idiotic interference, have tried to alter this sensible dress, which is decent, even according to our artificial notions of modesty, and most admirably suited to the climate. They insist on the women wearing a sort of absurd pinafore, which is left off on every possible occasion; and some time ago a law was made that every man should wear a European dress of shirt and trousers, and leave off the charming *vala*. To enforce this iniquitous law, the manufacture of *tappa*, the native made cloth, was prohibited, so that perforce the natives had to purchase European fabrics—a thing very greatly to the advantage of the traders, through whose influence with the Minister this disgraceful state of affairs was brought about. But even the worm will turn, and this was too much for the gentle Tongan, and the law has wisely been repealed by the king.

"To such an extreme was the enforcement of this act carried, that any man seen without trousers and shirt on the turf road in Nakualofa was liable to a fine of many dollars. It seems a queer state of affairs that a man cannot walk along the very road his ancestors made, in the dress of his country, but must don the hideous garments of an intruding people. In the church at Tongatabu, where the intelligent missionary of course rules supreme, this ordinance, which forbids any man to attend the service except he comes in European costume, is still enforced. It is perhaps needless to say that the women have to wear bonnets or hats, because St. Paul said that in his opinion it was seemly for a woman to have her head covered; so these poor creatures have to discard their wreaths and natural flowers, and stick on their heads bonnets or hats adorned with feathers and artificial flowers, like any factory hand in England."

Mr. St. Johnston frequently loses his patience with the missionaries, and the more so because he seems to think that it would have been better for the islanders as a race "to have remained in their old heathen faith, which, superstitious though it was, still was good and pure enough to make brave and courageous gentlemen not afraid to die, and women with a kindliness and generosity greater than our own." They believed "that all rewards for virtue and punishments for vice come in this world, and that human virtue consisted in paying respect to the gods, nobles, and aged persons, in defending one's rights, in honor, justice, patriotism, friendship, meekness, modesty, fidelity of married women, parental and filial love, observance of religious ceremonies; in forbearance of temper and patience in suffering. Surely a good enough creed. It will be said that we teach them the beauty of self-denial and unselfishness. Why, no Tongan, however hungry or small his meal, would *think* of refusing to share it with another; and unselfishness was so general that it could not be thought a virtue. When Mariner lived with them it was a saying, 'As selfish as a *Papalagi*'" (foreigner).

The writer of this philo-pagan volume is an Englishman—"a grovelling Englishman" he calls himself, in one of his moments of repining that he was thus born when he might have been a Tongan. A cruise among the South Pacific Islands had been the fondest dream of his youth; and finding himself in New Zealand, he seized the occasion to realize the wish of his boyhood by going as passenger in a little schooner, the *Caledonia*, bound on a trading voyage to Tongatabu and the Samoan group. It was thus that he spent some happy weeks among the Friendly and Navigators' Islands before arriving at Fiji, the stronghold of cannibalism, where he entered upon that chapter of his experience which gives his book its title.

Levuka, the capital of Fiji, is on Ovalau, one of the smaller islands of the group. It is a pretty place, with wooden houses and beautiful shrubberies.

"I was rather disappointed," says the author, "to find the place so large and civilized; but I am told that I have only to go into Colo, in the mountainous interior of Viti Levu, where I can see real savage Fijians, and where I can still run an excellent chance of being eaten. This year's *Australian Handbook* says that 'To-day finds six-sevenths of the Fijians professing Christianity, cannibalism has ceased since 1854, polygamy is abolished, and the idol worship of past ages has given place to the worship of the true God, and generally there is peace. Many of the converts are said to maintain a consistent walk; and in all a great revolution, in outward morals at least, has taken place, even if there has not been a real change of heart. *These remarks scarcely apply, however, to the tribes of the interior of Viti Levu, who are variously estimated at from* 7,000 *to* 20,000, *and have hitherto held out against any advance of civilization into their country.*'"

It was to see these unregenerate tribes of Colo, in the interior of Viti Levu, that the author soon conceived the idea of making a pedestrian journey across the island; and the latter portion of his book contains a very interesting account of his personal experience among the late cannibals. The Fiji Islands generally are under English rule, by reason of the sale, or cession, or other agreement made by the late native sovereign, Thakombau; but the natives of the Colo district, denying Thakombau's rights in their territory, and claiming independence, have occasionally required the exercise of force. The district, Mr. St. Johnston says, contains no white people, and none are permitted even to enter there without permission of Government, on account of the unsettled and frequently disturbed relations between the natives and the whites. This permission the author obtained, and, having left Levuka by boat, landed, three or four days later, on the island of Viti Levu, at Nadi, the starting point of his inland journey. Nadi he found a pleasant, peaceful place, although, less than five years before, the mountain people had made a descent upon it and killed and eaten many of the white residents. Thence, accompanied by a native guide, the pedestrian went in three days to Natuatuacoko, a fortified village, where he found an English officer in command of a native force or garrison of eighty-five men, who are kept here to suppress any signs of insurrection. Here he tarried some days, his countryman's guest, and then again set out with two native guides on his way across the mountains, arriving, after a six-days' tramp, at the junction of the Wai-namala and Wai-ni-buka Rivers, whence, by canoe, he found his way to the white settlements on the Rewa, and thence, by a little steamer, back to Levuka.

During his inland journey he found himself an object of much curiosity; but, although the people are less amiable than the Friendly Tongans and Samoans, they were, with rare exceptions, kind and peaceable. Only on one occasion, at Nivudini, were Mr. St. Johnston's apprehensions for his personal safety seriously aroused, and evidently shared by his guides, at whose instance he, with them, adroitly managed to take French leave of his hungry host, who had shown rather too plainly his desire to make a feast of the Englishman. Concerning the practice of cannibalism, Mr. St. Johnston gives many details.

"Many people," he says, "have totally denied the fact of cannibalism having ever existed; they should stay here for a short time in Fiji, and hear some of the stories of the early settlers, and their opinion would soon alter. It appears that the Fijian loved human flesh for its own sake, and did not merely eat a slain enemy out of revenge, as some people have thought; although I think that very probably the absence of any animal that they could eat gave rise to the custom. The crew of every canoe or boat that was wrecked upon their shores was killed and eaten in some parts until the very last few years; and often a great man would order to be clubbed some man or woman that he considered would be good for cooking, his plea being that his 'black tooth ached,' and only human flesh could cure it. . . . So delicious was human flesh considered, that the highest praise that they could give to other food was to say, 'It is as good as *bakolo*' (a human body to be eaten). . . . I am just as sure, too, that cannibalism is not yet a thing of the past, up here, as one is led to believe it is in the greater part of Fiji; the taste for it still exists, and the taste is gratified, I doubt not, when occasion serves. Four years ago, and probably three, it was a regular and acknowledged thing in the mountains."

In fact, upon his return to Levuka the author was warmly welcomed by his friends, whose fears for his safety had been roused during his absence by news, just brought down from Nadi, that a man had been killed and eaten in Colo, leaving them in serious apprehension lest Mr. St. Johnston himself had been the victim. On the subject of cannibalism the author speaks somewhat more graciously about the missionaries than in the paragraphs already cited.

"Such things were of frequent occurrence when the first English missionaries settled here, and I must say a good word for those early Christian workers, who certainly did do a great work in a land given over to such horrors as no one who has not been here and heard the stories of eye-witnesses would believe. They fought against and conquered the deepest-seated habits and customs of a savage people, and although their teachings were perhaps not all that one could have wished for in breadth and freedom, still to have made the greater part of a large and brutal population peaceful and civilized is no small thing. The story of how the wives of two of the missionaries, when their husbands were absent, bearing their very lives in their hands, forced an entrance to the house of an unfriendly chief, and, at the utmost risk of their own, saved the lives of several out of fourteen women who were being slaughtered for the oven, makes one's heart beat quicker for the hearing even now, years after."

Mr. St. Johnston's book is generally very pleasant reading. Its style is that of a journal or current record of observations and comments A small map or chart of these one of the writer's journey would have been a valuable addition for an interested reader. There is occasionally some negligent orthography which

ought not to have escaped correction, as, for example, "decern" for discern (p. 116), "scarves" for scarfs (p. 123). In the closing chapter the author gives expression to a feeling of sorrow that the Polynesian race is fast approaching extinction.

"Sad though it be, yet true it is, that everywhere in Polynesia and Australasia where the white man has possession the same tale is told; each census taken shows a less return. In Australia a few years hence—a very few—there will be no aborigine; in Tasmania the work is already done; in New Zealand the noble Maori lingers yet, but as civilization gradually creeps into his last fastnesses, consumption and other ills unknown before creep with it too, and a few generations hence, should nothing be done to stay it, his race will be as extinct as the dodo or his own gigantic *moa*. From Tahiti and the Sandwich Islands, from the north and from the south, the same tale comes; it seems as though the race were doomed. Though our exertions are for their prosperity—though we legislate for them as for ourselves, though we teach them, educate them, or what we will—the very presence of the white man seems fatal to the brown."

There is naturally something in this to touch a tender feeling of regret. Nevertheless, without being a misanthrope, one may prefer to reserve his sympathy for the millions of human kind who must needs be born to suffer in civilization, rather than expend it upon unborn heathen—and especially heathen whose native grace and charm, if we agree with Mr. St. Johnston, must soon fade away entirely before the combined influence of the foreign trader and Christian missionary.

PHILOSOPHY, THEOLOGY, AND EDUCATION.

The Law of Heredity: a Study of the Cause of Variation and the Origin of Living Organisms. By W. K. Brooks, Associate in Biology in Johns Hopkins University. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 1883. Pp. 336.

Creeds of the Day; or, Collated Opinions of Reputable Thinkers. By Henry Coke. London: Trübner & Co. 1883. Two vols., pp. 302 and 324.

Body and Will: being an Essay concerning Will in its Metaphysical, Physiological, and Pathological Aspects. By Henry Maudsley, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1884. Pp. 337.

A Critical History of Philosophy. By Rev. Asa Mahan, D D., LL D. Phillips & Hunt. Two vols., pp. 435, pp. 431.

An Examination of the Philosophy of the Unknowable, as Expounded by Herbert Spencer. By William M. Lacy. Philadelphia: B. F. Lacy. 1883. Pp. 235.

Religious Duty. By Frances Power Cobbe. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 1883. Pp. 311.

L'Instruction Publique en France et les Écoles Américaines. Par Marie-Casimir Ladreyt. Paris: Hetzel; New York: F. W. Christern. 1884. Pp. 378.

L'Évolution Religieuse Contemporaine, chez les Anglais, les Américains, et les Hindous. Par le Comte Goblet d'Alviella. Paris. New York: F. W. Christern. 1884. Pp. 430.

Dr. Brooks begins by an extended history of the theories of heredity from Bonnet and Haller down to our own times, and thus develops what he terms a new theory of heredity midway between Darwin and Lamarckians like Semper. He denies that either sexual element may transmit any characters whatever: neither crossing, the homology between the ovum and the male cell, the latent transmission of secondary sexual characters, reversion, nor alternation of generations proves this, and each may be interpreted in accord with the author's hypothesis that the male and female elements are unlike in function, and are specialized in different directions. After detailing the evidence from hybrids, variation, secondary sexual characters, the author finds the conclusive argument for his theory in the intellectual difference between men and women. Men represent the law of variation, adaptation to conditions, and the modifiable elements generally in the human species; while the female organism stands for heredity and conservatism, and is a storehouse for the instincts, habits, intuitions, and laws of conduct gained by past experience. Men thus excel in power to discover the manner in which new external relations shall be met and provided for by new adjustments, so that where feelings and experience furnish no guide man's judgment is best. This difference is the culmination of physiological differences of sex, from the lowest animal life up.

Mr. Coke's problem is how to determine the fixed basis of religious sentiment, and how to gain from it reasonable expression and satisfaction. After an exhaustive discussion of the new criticism of the Old Testament, the author concludes that its religion has no special claim to reverence, but must take its place as a fractional phenomenon in the vast integral of civilization. The New Testament is a product of essenism, the nearest kin to which was the religion of Buddha, and fails to give us God or immortality. Indeed, says the writer, we cannot see the grandeur of the character of Jesus till we penetrate the glamour of his divinity and see his intense humanity in its defects as well as its greatness. Rational theology, which is pursued through evolutionary literature, compels the conviction that it is impossible to think that thought had a beginning, or that eternal thought is made up by a process of finite evolutions of thought. In other words, spirit is indestructible and unceasingly active from eternity to eternity, and sets in death only (like the sun) to shine on forever. Finally, Transcendental theology teaches that the order of nature is not the only or absolute order, so that to believe in a metaphysics is, as Schopenhauer is quoted as saying, the necessary creed of all the just and good. Metaphysics is poetry needful to offset the pessimism which arises from too close acquaintance with reality. This world it is the glory of Kant to have established, though he did not make it clear. Whatever may be thought of the conclusions of this book, its style will fascinate all who read it.

No one can accuse Dr. Maudsley of lacking boldness, least of all when he attempts to storm the metaphysical stronghold of free will. Self-consciousness deceives us because it illuminates results rather than causes, and hence the will seems undetermined. We think ourselves free because we feel the effort and the satisfaction following it; and were the effort always effective, consciousness would be extinguished. The volume is made up mainly of illustrations of the compelling nature of morbid physical pressure on the actions of the will, and an account of its evolution. Sociology, religious history, metaphysics, are all drawn upon in an interesting, readable way, and a most useful suggestion is reiterated that psychology must advance by the careful and detailed study of individual cases; but here, as in his other books, the author fails to come into very close quarters with his subject. His style is loose, and he crowds into his pages apparently all the stray information lying about in his mind. The contrast between this and the careful, exact statements of German alienists is the greatest possible.

Dr. Mahan has written perhaps the most comprehensive history of philosophy in any language. From a discussion of the "origin, genesis, and character of all actual and conceivable systems of philosophy," he passes to the Hindu philosophy, and thence through Chinese, Persian, and Egyptian systems to the Greeks, the early and later Christians, the mediæval, the English, German writers, and on to Spencer. Hegelism is characterized as "monstrous," "absolutely impossible of representation," "the most lawless conceivable," and it is said that neither Hegel nor any other thinker ever did or can believe it. Spencer's evolutionism and physiological materialism are no better. In the last few pages the author prophesies "the future of these godless philosophers." The whole is preceded by a critique of the human faculties, and the book throughout is pervaded by such a spirit of absolute certainty and finality that, with sufficient faith in the author's infallibility, the reader will have little further doubt respecting the deepest problems that have hitherto vexed speculative minds.

The books examining or refuting Herbert Spencer now make an imposing library. That agnosticism can never be proved, as Mr. Lacy first argues, we believe Mr. Spencer himself would fully admit, for it is only a postulate in his system, and he has admitted that it is more logical to say the Unknown than the Unknowable. This book is a very favorable specimen of its class, and ends with the usual reconciliation between science and religion. Nothing could be a better discipline for a student of philosophy than to write so careful and methodic a book, but we have read a great part of it without finding anything essentially new upon the vexed question to which it is addressed.

Miss Cobbe's little book now reprinted is, to our thinking, about the most helpful to the average reader that she has written. That sacrilege, perjury, hypocrisy, persecution, etc., are distinctly religious, as contrasted with moral, offences, no one would nowadays assert, but religious duties, such as adoration, prayer, faith, self-consecration, are far more distinct from those of a moral nature. On the basis of theism to which she so ardently holds, the religious duties and offences become very real, and, with the somewhat psychological interpretation she so happily suggests, very natural.

In January, 1880, the eminent philanthropist, M. Isaac Pereire, offered 100,000 francs to be divided into four series of prizes, for the best treatises on four topics, one of which was, "Better systems of education in all grades." From among 800 memoirs, that of Madame Ladreyt was one of twenty awarded a prize by a jury of fourteen public men. The greater part of the book is devoted to American systems, from primary to professional, and with some description of several of the larger Eastern institutions from personal observation. Amherst, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and several colleges and universities are sketched in a rapid, tactful, and surprisingly correct way for a foreign lady (of American birth, to be sure), and the book must be very instructive to her countrymen, to whom, till the report of the French Commission in 1876, almost nothing was known of our educational system.

The last volume on our list is divided into three parts, which treat of religious progress in England, the United States, and India respectively. Of the details of present religious work in this country and England, and, we judge, in India also, the author possesses surprising knowledge. His sympathies are very liberal, and the book is written and printed in admirable style.

A SCIENTIFIC STANDARD OF GRAIN VALUES.

A Bushel of Corn. By A. Stephen Wilson, author of 'The Botany of Three Historical Records,' 'The Unity of Matter,' etc., etc. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1883.

No human institutions have been more enduring than the simple standards of weight and measure by which the daily commerce of the race is ruled The "propensity to truck, barter, or exchange," which, as Adam Smith says, is common to all men and to be found in no other race of animals, requires these standards as the condition of its exercise. Every sale is the result of a comparison of estimates, and every comparison supposes a standard. The "value" with which economists are principally concerned is value in exchange; a thing is worth what it will fetch of something else. But, logically, the "intrinsic" value, or value in use, is prior to exchange value, and in the main determines it. What men seek by their traffic is chiefly to gratify their physical desires: they exchange bread for clothing and shelter; and it is plain that their exchanges will be fairest and most satisfactory when their standards of exchange show exactly what amount of the desired gratification is obtained by each party. Mr. Wilson's investigation is directed to showing how far this desirable end is attained by the standards used in the most important of all branches of trade—the traffic in those grains which constitute the principal food of mankind. Any error or uncertainty here is attended with such immense and far-reaching results, that its detection is a very material benefit to the race; and a careful examination of this book has convinced us that the author has earned the praise that is given to him that makes two blades of grass grow where but one grew before.

Although not necessary to his purpose, Mr. Wilson cannot resist devoting his introductory chapter to a short but very learned and very interesting history of the bushel measure. His researches show that the imperial bushel established in 1825 was simply a return to old Roman standards, which, although often proscribed by law, had never ceased to be generally used. The English pint was the Roman sextar, and the Scots pint was three sextars. Avoirdupois weight, or tron weight, was the Roman weight and the old weight of England. Troy weight (a half-translation of the Norman *droit pois*, as shown by the forms *trois weight*, *troi weight*) represents the attempt of the Normans to force their standards upon the English—an attempt which succeeded as to the precious metals, but which entirely failed to affect the daily transactions of the common people. It appears from Fleta that the bulk of eight pounds of wheat was equal to a gallon. A pint of wheat therefore weighed a pound; and when the existing imperial standards were under consideration, and it was resolved to make the gallon equal in bulk to ten pounds of water, it brought the pint back to the old Roman standard of twenty avoirdupois ounces. This reasoning is confirmed by the fact that the Scots measures recognized in 1618 correspond closely with the modern English standards; and the "imperial measures" are thus unwittingly the measures of imperial Rome.

With enormous labor, the results of which are given in elaborate tables, the author next proceeds to consider how far the process of measuring can be relied upon as indicating the weight of grain. We can state only a few of the more important of his conclusions. In the first place, a shallow bushel-measure, although it holds the same weight of water, holds a less weight of grain than a deep bushel, grain being an easily compressible substance. For the same reason, when grain is pressed down and shaken in measuring, a bushel will contain a greater weight than when the grain is gently sifted into the measure. There are differences in the weight of the same crop of grain in different months, and much more serious differences in the weight of the crops of different years. Thus, in a term of thirteen years, it is found that the quarter (eight bushels) of wheat varies in weight some 26 pounds, the quarter of barley some 32 pounds, and that of oats some 18 pounds. These are the differences between the average weights of these grains in different years; in particular cases they rise to 88 pounds for wheat, 112 pounds for barley, and 120 pounds for oats. Again, the measure-weight of grain depends to a considerable extent upon the kind of dressing that it receives.

"If a stack of barley is thrashed with the flail, the weight of the bushel may be 50 pounds; if thrashed with an ordinary farm machine, the weight may be 53 pounds; if hard thrashed with steam machinery, the weight may be 56 or 58 pounds. There can be no doubt that since the introduction of thrashing machinery a quarter of barley has advanced in alimentary value much beyond its ancient standard. This advance is probably not overstated at 8 or 10 per cent., and is an economic fact affecting the proper comparison of ancient and modern prices."

It is commonly supposed that the drier a stock of grain is, the heavier will a bushel of it weigh. Mr. Wilson's experiments show that this is a mistake. When grain has been wet and then dried, although its alimentary quality may be unaffected, the weight of a bushel will be diminished. The seeds are swollen by the water, and as a spiral spring of soft wire when overdrawn never regains its original compactness, so a grain of wheat remains permanently larger after the water has been expelled. An order for barley of 58 pounds the bushel might be executed with a stock containing either 15 per cent. or 37 per cent. of water. In the author's opinion the uncertain element of moisture has spoiled more of the miller's calculations than all the variations of quality put together. It appears, therefore, that weight, although more satisfactory than measure, by no means affords a trustworthy standard of the alimentary quality of grains. When the varieties of the different grains are considered, these uncertainties become still more serious.

With a view to establish more definite conclusions than at present exist as to the relative percentages of meal or kernel to be found in the different varieties of oats, Mr. Wilson has examined about fifty of these varieties, and decorticated about 200,000 seeds. In this labor he decorticated also his thumbs, wore out two brass pincers, and was obliged to fall back upon those of steel. The form of the grain and the character of the husk are the principal causes of the difference between the measure-weights of different varieties. This is very well shown by illustrations representing Canadian and White Tartarian oats lying in their ordinary state of compactness in boxes with glass fronts. The form of the Canadian seed enables it to fill the measure solidly, while the form of the Tartarian is such as to leave much space vacant. Hence the Canadian oat weighs 50 pounds to the bushel, and the Tartarian only 38 pounds. Nevertheless, the percentage of kernel is about the same in both. In fact, the Canadian oat has the highest measure-weight and the lowest percentage of kernel of all the samples.

It might seem that the results obtained by Mr. Wilson, although of scientific interest, depend upon such tedious and difficult experiments that farmers and millers cannot afford to follow him. This, however, is far from being the case, as he is at the pains to point out how, by the exercise of a very little judgment, any one may ascertain quite definitely the alimentary value of any sample of grain. He has also constructed some tables of "equivalents" which can be used by any intelligent farmer. The following example illustrates their use, and at the same time indicates the conditions that must be taken into account in any careful estimate of grain. Supposing that a producer has thrashed out two fields of oats, one of the Pedigree Canadian variety, the other of the Pedigree Potato variety.

"In each case the acre has produced 6 quarters, but while the Canadian weighs 50 pounds the bushel, the Potato weighs only 44 pounds. Now, while he does not believe much in this difference as a test of quality, he is bound to believe in it as a test of quantity; and throwing both acres into centals, the Canadian presents 24.00 and the Potato 21.12. Both are found to contain 15 per cent. of moisture; and the Canadian shows 67 per cent. of kernel, while the Potato shows 75½. Looking at the proper junctions in the table, he finds that 113.26 of Canadian are equal to 100.50 of Potato; and, dividing 24.00 centals by 113.26, he finds the Canadian equal to 21.19 standard units—both crops, so far as meal is concerned, being practically the same—the 2,400 pounds of Canadian being no better than 2,112 pounds of Potato."

The quantity of grain dealt in in the great markets is now so vast that the aggregate results of the errors and imperfections of the present methods of estimating values are extremely formidable. We commend this book to the careful consideration of those agriculturists who believe that there is a science of farming, and of those dealers who expect to prosper not by speculating in "futures," but by furnishing their customers with the best that the market affords.

Silvia Dubois (now 116 yers old): a Biografy of the Slav who Whipt her Mistres and Gand her Fredom. By C. W. Larison, M.D. Ringos, N. J.: The Author. 1883.

BIOGRAPHIES of Northern slaves are rare. Except the one before us, we recall no other besides Sojourner Truth's, a New York bondwoman, the "Isabella" of the Matthias imposture. As this remarkable person approached her end, her age became so elastic as to surpass a century, though she certainly never came within ten years of it. The birth year of Silvia Dubois, on the other hand, seems pretty well established, by tradition and record, and we are disposed to believe Dr. Larison when he says, of her sitting for her picture at his request and charge—

"It is not likly that so old a woman has ever befor set for a fotograf; and it is not likly that so old a wun wil ever present her faç to the artist's camera. Imediatly after taking the negativ for Silvia's pictur the artist adjusted the camera to the faç ov Elizabeth, the yungest dater and constant companyun ov our heroin, Thus a woman in the 78th yer ov her ag, and her muther in the 116th yer ov [her] ag, wer fotograft on the same da."

Personally, her age is the chief interest which attaches to Silvia. She is a common old woman, living in a wild and vicious neighborhood, and her talk is seasoned with vulgarity. Dr. Larison took it down in shorthand, and reproduces it correctly as to facts, but with discrimination as to phraseology, omitting here for decency, and retaining there for artistic effect.

"The narrativ abounds in profanity," he says, "an element that is foren to me, and wun that I most cordyaly despis, and sincerly deprecat. But Silvia is a profan negres; her langwag alwas abounds in profanity; and, ters and forcibl as it is, castigat it ov its profan wurds and it is flat and meningles, and uterly fals to conva the idea intended, or to revel her caracter. In the narativ, my am is mor to sho the caracter, forç and spirit ov independenç ov the heroin, than to mak out a long lin ov yers, or to tel with hom she dwelt. To accomplish this, I must us thos wurds and frases peculiar to herself, hwich alon ar adequat to the task befor me."

With much humor the author expatiates afterwards upon "Silvia's familiarity with the titls with hwich Jehova is wunt to be adrest," and her "by no mens limited noledg ov that uther being cald the Devil"; but, as we have said, he is judicious, and not offensive in his reporting. The narrative has undoubted value as a picture of slave and non-slave life, of popular customs and manners, both in New Jersey and in Pennsylvania, in the early years of the Republic. The singular part of it is that the feat here celebrated, of Silvia's having turned upon her mistress—which, as recently as a quarter of a century ago, would have been judged, even at the North, outrageous and San Domingoish—was condoned with freedom by her master. Very likely his relations to his slave were such as to instigate his wife's cruelty towards her, which was that of "the very devil himself." When, before this event, Silvia sought to escape the consequences of getting drunk by feigning colic, her mistress, in much alarm, deserted her "big cumpany," and placed the girl on a trundle-bed in her own room:

"I cashusly squrmed around to se wether enybody was about, and thar sat misy, faning me. I cashusly opend my ys [eyes] just the lest bit, to se hou she lokt; she lokt very pityful. I was to drunk to laf; but 'My God,' thot I, 'if yu only neu hwat I am doing, yu'd thro that fan awa and giv me hel.'"

The journeyings to and from Silvia's looped cabin afford Dr. Larison a good opportunity of using his excellent descriptive powers, and at the close one may profess to be pretty well acquainted with the section of New Jersey surveyed. The orthography of the book is such as we have given samples of, minus the diacritic marks, for which our typographical resources are inadequate. The author is a reformer, who aims at the grand ideal—"hwen wun caracter wil reprezent but wun fon; and wun fon is represented by wun caracter." He prints the rules adopted by the Committee on the Reform of English spelling, but does not follow their advice in every particular, because he thinks it either not well founded or not practicable; and he says, correctly, in our opinion, "the abuv ruls, god as tha ar, if usd, wil mak an English orthografy very litl beter than the wun hitherto in us. Inded, to do much in the improvment ov English orthografy we must hav a beter alfabet." We need hardly expose the defects of his own. The desideratum is, first, a world phonetic alphabet, established by the consensus of the learned; then, reform strictly on the lines of this—progress being slow if need be, but *nulla vestigia retrorsum.*

If anything further were needed to make this little book a great curiosity, it would be the two woodcuts of the hut which the centenarian inhabits; especially if they are the domestic product of the "Academy of Scienç and Art" over which the author presides. Silvia's portrait is much better work, and is, indeed, good enough.

Memoir of Thurlow Weed. By his Grandson, Thurlow Weed Barnes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

In reviewing Mr. Weed's autobiography, to which this is a concluding volume, some regret was expressed that the autobiographer had been so reticent in regard to the inside history of New York politics, and particularly in regard to the birth, life, and tragic dissolution of the firm of Seward, Weed & Greeley. It seems to be the object of this memoir to fill up this and other similar gaps in the autobiography; and the work is done quite as satisfactorily as it could have been done by any second hand. Mr. Greeley long ago had his innings: his 'Recollections of a Busy Life' have already given the junior partner's version of the firm's vicissitudes. Now it is Mr. Weed's innings, and his representative certainly does some remarkable scoring for him. Even from Mr. Greeley's own point of view, it was a question whether he was of more service than mischief to the party which he honored with his support; from Mr. Barnes's point of view there is not even a question.

This volume will be as interesting to the generation which is now in active familiarity with American politics as the appearance of a living Eosaurus would be to the student of natural history. It is not merely that it is a memoir of a palæozoic politician, but that its author sympathizes so acutely with all the purposes, the methods, and the prejudices of his subject. It is interesting to read again this story of a time when political struggles were a passionate battle, when Weed could weep and Schoolcraft die of grief because Seward was not nominated at Chicago. It is interesting to study the mental workings of a trusted political guide, who could suggest the bringing about of resumption of specie payments by a forcible suppression of time bargains for gold, and that not by the comparatively gentle method of clapping the gold gamblers into jail for ninety days, but through the medium of vigilance committees and lynch law. It is interesting to trace, in the extracts from his articles and letters since 1867, the evolution of those two equally unanswerable objections to civil-service reform, that it "ignores the principle that, in a republican form of government, all the offices of the government should be within the reach of all its citizens," and that "the demand for life tenures in office conflicts with vital principles of our form of government." But we submit, with all deference to the author's rights of treatment, that it is simple cruelty to Mr. Weed's memory to saddle upon him the invention of the great "conundrum" objection to civil-service reform, and worse than cruelty to devote a whole page of fine print to the "conundrums" which aspirants to the civil service are required to answer. A judicious hand will draw the line somewhere, and the line might have been drawn here without sacrificing the truth to the interest of biography.

Thurlow Weed's political training, his fixed habits of political thought and action, compelled him to look with a sort of angry contempt on any effort to take the civil service out of politics. The power to dispose of the civil service seemed to him as vital to party organization as the commissariat is to an army; and he felt toward the civil-service reformer much as Sherman would have felt toward an officer who should have proposed to him to begin the march through Georgia with one day's provisions. The fact that he and men like him had always used the civil service, with military exactness, as means toward the attainment of ends which they meant for the country's good, unfitted him for gauging the increased damage and danger resulting from the use of the civil service by men with unqualifiedly selfish purposes. It was historically fitting and complete that in his old age he should bring the beginning and the ending of the spoils system into glaring contrast; that, at the last Republican Convention which he attended, the Saratoga Convention of 1876, he should run counter to the Conkling machine. He went, as he had always gone to such gatherings, to advise with others for the benefit of a party: he found a generation, the natural outgrowth of his own system, which cared more for the Machine leader and representative than for either party or principles. For him there was no longer even an affectation of courtesy. "Any attempt by Mr. Weed," said a newspaper of the time, "to outflank Mr. Conkling will be very roughly dealt with by very rough men." And yet it was to these "very rough men," the Jakes and Mikes and Barneys of city and country, that he continued to insist on intrusting the civil service, for fear a loss of "interest" in politics would result in the establishment of a monarchy.

The memoir is largely devoted, as is natural, to the numerous cases in which Mr. Weed exhibited his unusual acuteness in forecasting popular feeling, and in adjusting party tactics to fit it. All the space which the author has given to this part of his work is fully justified by the almost unbroken success of his subject: it was not often that Thurlow Weed assumed the responsibility for any such mare's nest as that in which the "Benjamin" letter was discovered. But there are numberless touches of character, brought out incidentally, which are needed to show even the present generation that Thurlow Weed was much more than a professional party manager; that those traits by which he acquired and retained his hold upon men were above and beyond party, and that he was always a man to be respected and loved as well as obeyed. It is impossible to read Mr. Greeley's childish letter dissolving the partnership in 1854, and Mr. Weed's dignified, temperate, and kindly reply to it, without understanding why offices were always at the service of the latter and always denied to the former. In spite of Thurlow Weed's notoriously lavish generosity to the unfortunate, there has always been in some minds a vague notion that he had used his quasi-public position to acquire that competence on which he retired years before his death. Of course, any one who has knowledge of the great returns from a successful newspaper enterprise, needs no further explanation of Mr. Weed's modest acquisitions. There may be others to whom such an explanation is necessary, and Mr. Weed has furnished it in his valedictory editorial in the semi-centennial issue of the Albany *Evening Journal:*

"When the *Journal* was established, and for several subsequent years, I gave my time and thoughts wholly to the advancement of our cause. Aware of my indifference to pecuniary matters, my friends Seward and Whittlesey looked after my worldly affairs. At the instance of those gentlemen, the proprietors of the *Journal* increased my salary as editor annually from $750 in 1830 to $2,000 in 1838. Subsequently, when the *Journal* became the State paper and I a partner, Mr. King kindly became my pecuniary guardian, taking the same care of my interests as of his own. Under his auspices, during the next twenty years, he saw, as he used to say with much gratification, 'the acorn grow into an oak.' It is to his devoted friendship that I am largely indebted for the competency which renders the evening of life free from toil and care."

It is but just to add that this volume closes with an index, covering both volumes, whose fulness and convenience are all that could be desired.

The Hessians, and the Other German Auxiliaries of Great Britain in the Revolutionary War. By Edward J. Lowell. Harper & Brothers. 1884.

This book shows a remarkable progress in the historical literature of the American Revolution. While the majority of works on that subject are of a rather sentimental character, Mr. Lowell shows a just appreciation of men and events, and represents them in the light and character of their time. As a people, we fancy that we pay our Revolutionary heroes a greater tribute of respect by divesting them of human attributes; and this idealizing has seriously impeded the comprehensive and critical investigation of the history of that period. Unqualified worship is always accompanied by equally unqualified condemnation,

and the poor vilified Hessians correspond to the apotheosized Continentals.

We are glad to state that Mr. Lowell's book does not belong to this order of historiography. He has done his best to present to the public a really trustworthy work, in creditable distinction from those who have treated the same subject in the English language. Apart from inferior writers like Abbott, Spencer, and schoolbook manufacturers, even so prominent and popular an author as Irving, in his 'Life of Washington,' gives a rather superficial sketch of the Hessians and their leading men, and tries to make the name of a brave and excellent soldier (although a bad commander), Colonel Rall, a laughing-stock for his readers, while he gives no idea of his importance and valor—as shown, for instance, at the storming of Fort Washington. Rall's aide-de-camp, Lieutenant Biel, was not at all a wag, either, as Mr. Irving states, and the whole episode appears to be inserted for the purpose of concealing the author's want of acquaintance with the pertinent facts.

German historians have written more judiciously on the Hessians. Friedrich Kapp, as early as the summer of 1856, first called attention to the subject in a paper read before the New York Historical Society, which forms the basis of his later work, 'Der Soldatenhandel Deutscher Fürsten nach Amerika (1775–1783).' He, however, would never have been able to write this book and publish it in two editions if he had not been assisted by Mr. Bancroft, who gave him access to his rich store of original documents, expressly copied from the London, Paris, and Berlin archives. Mr. Bancroft, so far as this subject entered into the plan of his work, has treated it with much care and gusto, and it is surprising that Mr. Lowell almost ignores these researches. Mr. Kapp, on the other hand, wrote with a single eye to a political purpose. He wished to rouse the hatred and contempt of the German Liberals against the successors of those petty dealers in human flesh, and in this he succeeded admirably, without, however, distorting or omitting historical facts from his narrative. Mr. Lowell has freely drawn from Kapp, but although on the whole fair in quoting his authorities, he on some important occasions omits to give him credit—as, for instance, for the characteristic letter written on October 24, 1777, by Frederick the Great to his nephew the Margrave of Anspach-Bayreuth, in which he forbids him to send his mercenaries through the Prussian dominions. This letter was discovered by Mr. Kapp in the Gemmingen Papers, and first published by him. In his political appreciation of the trade, Mr. Lowell stands on the shoulders of the German writer and of the authorities quoted by him. Or could Mr. Lowell have had access to K. H. Lang's writings, or to Schloezer's 'Briefwechsel' and 'Staatsanzeigen,' of which, so far as we know, only single copies can be found in all the libraries of the country? Besides these sources, our author avails himself of the writings of the late Colonel Eelking, which on some minor points are very good, but not quite accurate, especially where they treat of English reports, as Eelking did not understand a word of English. Mr. Lowell's merits as an historian chiefly consist in enlarging the space which the Hessians have thus far occupied in the eyes of American observers. He fills a gap, by not suffering them to disappear in the ranks of the British army after their landing in America, but, on the contrary, follows them in the history of the several corps, and in their participation in the different British engagements and expeditions. Eelking is inaccurate in this respect, and Kapp does not mention these reports, as he started from a different point of view. Mr. Lowell is always just and fair in his judgment, and combines sound historical training with an excellent style.

On some minor points, however, we cannot help finding fault with him. Hesse-Cassel had only 275,000 (instead of 300,000–400,000) inhabitants during the American war, and Brunswick only 150,000 inhabitants. Frederick William I. of Prussia was much better and of far greater importance than his daughter, the Margravine, represents him. Without him the success of Frederick the Great would not have been possible. Ranke and Carlyle are correct in this respect. Promotion from the ranks was as impossible at that time as it is now here, where only West-Pointers are made officers. The character of the majority of the rank and file in those times precluded the idea of bestowing commissions on the privates. Even to-day, in the German army, privates and sergeants cannot be promoted to officerships if they have not passed an examination, do not belong to good families, and have not, apart from their wages, a certain income. It is a pity that Mr. Lowell has not inserted the interesting narrative of Sergeant Doehla, an Anspacher, about the surrender of Yorktown, which he could have found in Kapp's English edition of the 'Life of Steuben' (N. Y. 1859, pp. 459–464).

In the way of new information Mr. Lowell has interwoven into his narrative twelve manuscripts, consisting of journals, letters, and reports written by Hessian or Waldeck officers and kept in the library of the Cassel estates. What he gives from the Marburg Papers is not new and is quite defective. He can never himself have been in that old university town, for if he had consulted its Provincial Archives, he would have found such rich stores of documentary evidence that several weeks' examination of them would not have sufficed. When Mr. Kapp published the first edition of his 'Soldatenhandel' he stated in its preface that he had been unable to gain access to the papers in question, for the reason that they had been secreted by the late Elector himself at the Castle of Wilhelmshöhe near Cassel. Since then the Hessian dynasty has ceased to reign, and the former Electorate now forms a part of a Prussian province; but, in spite of a thorough search for years, no papers could be discovered at Wilhelmshöhe. Dr. Koennecke, however, the able keeper of the Marburg Archives, several years after the annexation, was so fortunate as to find in an attic of the castle, among other important state papers, some thirty big volumes relating to the trade in soldiers. The greater and military part of them, indexed by Colonel von Sturmfeder, was sent to the library of the staff of the army in Berlin, where they still are; the smaller number is kept at Marburg. If Mr. Lowell had read the Berlin correspondence of the *Nation* of June 30, 1882 (in No. 892, August 3, 1882) he would have been able to do still more justice to his subject. The volumes now in the Marburg Archives not only contain the diplomatic negotiations of the Landgrave and of his Minister Schlieffen with the English Foreign Department, and the treaties founded thereon, but also every day's orders issued by the Landgrave to his generals and colonels in America and the letters written by him, the answers and reports on the condition and conduct of the troops, and well-drawn maps and sketches of the localities having relation to the Hessian movements. Three big volumes are filled with the proceedings before a court-martial on the capture of Trenton. The papers, now in Berlin, refer chiefly to the transactions of Hesse-Hanau with England. They give all the particulars about the financial transactions of the contracting parties. Another interesting part of these papers forms a collection of about a hundred letters written by officers to their relatives at home, who were directed by the Prince to send them to him for his perusal. They give some charming sketches of American society at the time, and the elegance of manners prevailing in the old colonial families. These letters bear the imprint of reality and truth, and are the more valuable as their writers, although enemies and foreigners, are involuntary witnesses and reporters of the real state of American life. All these documents ought to be copied and secured for a large American library. Apart from their military and historical importance, they are of the highest value for the future historian of the civilization and the social development of the United States.

Record of Family Faculties.—Life History Album. By Francis Galton, F.R.S. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

THE word "heredity" is fast coming to be used in a loose sense not unlike that formerly given to "vitality." Many are confusing a biological law with an actual force, and this or that physical or mental trait is assigned to heredity as something not altogether understood, yet fully capable of explaining much that cannot be assigned to any other cause. From our former point of view, that man was to be considered and judged as an individual, the pendulum is swinging to the other extreme, that he is merely one link in a series involuntarily inheriting and transmitting a number of peculiarities. The ethics of a general belief of this kind would make men more lenient in judging themselves, while it would increase their sense of responsibility to their descendants—two rather diverse influences. The whole personal interest of this question can be resolved into this: What have I received from, what can I give to, the line to which I belong? In 'Hereditary Genius,' Mr. Galton gave us the mathematics of the answer, but stopped far short of bringing the science to what is known as the test of prediction. If, as he anticipates in the investigation proposed in the works before us, this gap can in some degree be lessened, we may be able to "foresee much of the latent capacities of a child in mind and body, of the probabilities of his future health and longevity, and of his tendencies to special forms of disease by a knowledge of his ancestral precedents."

The long experience of Mr. Galton as a statistician is here very evident. The 'Life History Album' is designed for the minute biological data of a single lifetime, just as the 'Record of Family Faculties' is for a comprehensive collection of family data. In principle they are alike. Mr. Galton edits the former as Chairman of a Sub-Committee of the British Medical Association. It is most ingeniously planned for the annual registration of life and medical history and anthropometric measurements, such as acuteness of the senses, strength tests, changes in hair and eyes, etc., occasional photographs, and a record of marriage and children. Upon stature and weight-charts you may compare each year of your growth with curves representing the English average, and here you may also see the temporary or permanent deflections caused by illnesses. Reaching your physical and mental climax, you record your progress on the down grade to the seventy-fifth year, and, in the general *sans* state, we can imagine that questions answered with alacrity at twenty-five will become somewhat severe. For example: "What is the greatest distance in feet and inches at which a watch can be heard?" or "Is there any noticeable dulness or acuteness of smell, taste, and touch?"

The 'Record' is the author's own undertaking, and is the basis of the most searching heredity inquiry hitherto attempted. The scope of the work is four generations, which are reckoned as follows: "On the side of the contributor there are his two parents, four grandparents, an average of three uncles and aunts on each of the two sides, three brothers or sisters, and himself: this makes sixteen persons. There is another set of sixteen for the relatives of his wife in the same degrees. Lastly, I allow an average of four children." A single family history, therefore, involves the extensive collection of thirty-six or more life histories. To each of these a page is assigned, including sixteen questions; the latter indicating that biology is taken in its widest sense to embrace, first, conditions of life, second, personal description, mental as well as physical, third, medical life history. Under the first set are birth, occupation, town and country residence, size of family, mode of life; the middle set includes anthropometric measurements, also mental powers and energy, peculiarities of character and temperament, artistic and allied aptitudes; the third set covers rather minute medical details, and at this point many will probably echo the sentiments of the *Spectator* critic, that one would rather forget the ills that flesh is heir to. The author appreciates the labor of filling one of these records, and offers to his countrymen a large amount in prizes for the fullest and most authentic. He has already, in his 'Inquiries into Human Faculty,' proposed the science Eugenics for race improvement, and he is, perhaps, more sanguine of unearthing some of its now mysterious laws than many of his readers will be. In fact, it will require somewhat of the spirit of research to enter one's family closet with the unsparing truthfulness this 'Record' demands, even when we are assured that the anonymous will be strictly preserved. Yet we venture to assert that the present scientific enthusiasm in England insures the quantitative success of the undertaking at the outset. It has already exceeded Mr. Galton's anticipations. A prediction of the results in quality is quite another matter; that they will tell us a great deal we know already there can be no doubt, and, judging by the perfection and thoroughness of the method, we may look for much more. However honest the effort, it will be a difficult matter to fill one of these records without unconsciously noting down resemblances, to the gradual exclusion of differences, in family character, and considerable allowance for this unavoidable tendency should be made in the averages. One of the least results a layman may hope for is that the author's candid treatment of his returns will somewhat revive our confidence in our own individuality, which has been much shaken of late by "heredity" extremists.

The Field of Disease: A Book of Preventive Medicine. By Benjamin Ward Richardson. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Sons.

CERTAIN cynics maintain that the vast medical charities of civilization are chiefly hot-beds for the culture of retrogressive physical types. In a utilitarian view it is no advantage to prolong, at home or in hospitals, the lives of weaklings who will leave a progeny to be nursed and in turn to spread disease and disability. But the absolute prevention or avoidance of physical evil is another matter than its perpetuation in a mitigated form. The care of the sick is one problem. It may be better for the race to let the tainted and the intrinsically feeble go, to abandon them to the rude forces in spite of which the fittest survive. It is another question to keep the sound well, to shield the vigorous from external danger and disease. The avoidance and especially the prevention of such evils are essentially modern ideas. Our forefathers accepted distempers as they did the weather. A superior power, whose authority could not be interfered with nor its intentions divined, but who might be persuaded or placated, allotted both. One might flee from the plague as he would from an English winter, but he could prevent neither. Protection was invoked equally from lightning, from pestilence, and from famine—evils essentially superhuman in their control. Many still act as though private indisposition and the epidemics of a country-side are mysterious visitations, not logical consequences of antecedent conditions. But the comfortable doctrine of the prevention of disease is spreading, and much of the attention formerly given to its treatment is diverted to the discovery and destruction or avoidance of its cause, and to the popular propagation of this knowledge.

A well-written book on preventive medicine for the average reader ought to meet with instant success, and this large volume on the Field of Disease at first appears to be a competent topographical survey and guide through that nether region. It is good, but it is not good enough. There is little rhetorical condensation, and there are no golden omissions, while over such a range a great deal might be judiciously left out. What omissions there are are chiefly odd in view of much that has been retained. Five hundred of the large pages supply the lay reader with a trifle of the dangerous "little knowledge," much of it entertaining but not very intelligible without some instruction. But old women of either sex will find that their disposition to meddle with the perverted forces of life is not encouraged. Dr. Richardson, who is an eminent and enthusiastic English physician, begins his book with the distinct and wise announcement (p. 21) that he has "nothing to say in it that has any relation to the cure of disease." But unfortunately the Royal College of Physicians has enumerated 1,146 variations from health as the catalogue of disease, and this is a commentary upon the nature of each. So space is given to atelectasis and myocarditis, typhlitis and hypinosis, skoliosis and pompholyx, and half a thousand other formidable or trivial or rare affections, whose names may haunt the student, but which make a very small showing in vital statistics. It is astonishing how many pitfalls there are in the way through life and into how few men fall. Two-thirds of the book will supply practically nothing to medical men and will bewilder most others. But the average reader will relish and may absorb a part of the final two hundred pages, while the very last sixty are strictly those treating of preventive medicine and are very valuable.

It was to be anticipated that so large and all-embracing a work would have errors and omissions, but the nature of some of these is, to say the least, curious. For instance, mania a potu is given as a synonym of dipsomania (p. 349), and white swelling as the popular equivalent of phlegmasia dolens (p. 144). The spleen "lying beneath the liver on the left side" (p. 228), and the liver placed "in the upper part of the abdomen immediately below the midriff" (p. 206), are examples of a vagueness that misleads. That tetanus but not trismus neonotarum should be noted, bunions but not corns, the censure of wet soil but not of rubbish heaps as building sites, the general effects of passion, but not, for instance, its special influence upon the milk secretion—are illustrations of minor incompleteness. The phraseology or the proof-reading is sometimes at fault, as in the repeated use of "industrials" for workers; in "preventative" (p. 558); and, unworthy of a Philadelphia medical press, in "Addenill" for Addinell Hewson, and "McDonnell" for McDowell, the original ovariotomist.

Dr. Richardson makes a strong indictment against alcohol, charging it with 1,000 deaths a week in the United Kingdom alone, and he gives a decided support to the Contagious Diseases Acts. On the whole, it is very well that this book, the first comprehensive one of its class, has been written; but in its present form it is not worthy of the author's just reputation. A patient revision should elevate it to the place that its theoretical importance demands.

An Outline History of Painting, for Young People and Students. With numerous and complete indexes, and numerous full-page illustrations. By Clara Erskine Clement. White, Stokes & Allen.

THE authoress of this, which may be called a minor history, has not remembered that a book for beginners ought to be more exact and simple in its statements than one for mature students. An error incorporated in the foundation is less easily corrected than one in the cornice. The opening paragraphs contain the following: "In speaking of art, we often contrast the useful or mechanical arts with the fine arts; by these terms we denote the difference between the arts *which are used* in making such things as are necessary and useful in civilized life, and the arts by which ornamental and beautiful things are made. The fine arts are architecture, sculpture, etc." Now, the art of stone-cutting and laying "is used in" architecture, which, according to the authoress, is a useless art, and house-building, which is a necessary one; bronze working is as necessary for the plain brass tongs as for the æsthetic pair, wood-cutting as much at home in carving as in furniture; the art of hammering metal, which is one of the bases of civilization, is to be used in making the New York harbor Colossus. There is, in fact, no point at which we can draw the line implied in such a distinctive definition, and it is therefore false.

The authoress need not have considered it necessary to vamp all the old fables of the painters' lives, as that Titian was, as a child, so hard up for pigments that he squeezed the juices of plants to get his colors—evident nonsense. And the stories of the rivalries of Zeuxis and Parrhasius, which, if they had been true, would only have proved that the painters were both very poor ones, might well have been eliminated from a history for beginners. Of Teniers she says: "He had a light, brilliant touch; his color was exquisite, and his arrangement of his subjects was very picturesque"—which, so far as it appeals to beginners and young people, is thrown away, and if technical is nonsensical. The use of studio slang for young people who know nothing of the shop is inadmissible. Of Richard Wilson we read that "he was important, not so much for what he painted as for the fact that he was one of the earliest landscape painters among English artists," which is far from the case in either point. Of Turner we have the information, among much other inaccuracy and absurdity, that he "refused five thousand pounds" for the "Dido building Carthage" and the "Decline of the Carthaginian Empire," while the fact is that he was offered that sum for the former picture alone. Mrs. Clement did not apparently know that the late James Lennox vainly offered Turner £5,000 and then a blank cheque for the "Old Téméraire."

There is little excuse for making books which simply rehearse without method or discrimination the gossip of the antechamber of art,

and this is the main resource of the 'Outline History.'

Early Church History to the Death of Constantine. Compiled by the late Edward Backhouse. Edited and enlarged by Charles Tylor. London: Hamilton, Adams & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

THIS volume is in some sense a literary curiosity. Its author was a member of the Society of Friends, and a minister in the meeting, affluent, cultured, something of an artist, a diligent student of natural history, who devoted his energy through the leisure of a long life to practical charity and the elevation of the masses in Sunderland, the place of his residence. He was doubtless a most useful man and a sterling friend, and his photograph, which accompanies the volume, suggests a character of mingled energy and kindness. Unfortunately, in his sixty-seventh year, while one day occupied in painting, it was suddenly borne in upon him, after the fashion of Friends, from the Lord, that, to use his own words, "I ought to devote my leisure in my latter days to writing a portion of Church History, especially with a view of exhibiting to the Christian world, in a popular manner, the principles and practices of the Society of Friends." Under this inspiration, though utterly unequipped for the stupendous task, without even a knowledge of the classical tongues, he vigorously commenced the study of ecclesiastical history, leaving at his death, five years after his call, a considerable mass of manuscript on the primitive church. This the pardonable zeal of friends intrusted to an editor, who put it into shape, remoulded it, filled up gaps, and is responsible, as the preface informs us, for about one-half of the material of the work. It is printed in very attractive form, with numerous illustrations—chromos, etchings, and photographs—some of them from the original sketches of the author, and forms an exceedingly handsome volume.

A book thus produced is of course not a legitimate subject of serious criticism. As the title-page modestly asserts, it is merely a compilation from more or less authentic sources, with long extracts from modern writers, such as Canon Farrar, Cooper's 'Free Church,' Milman, Neander, and other authors to whom Mr. Backhouse's attention chanced to be called. Critical investigation of disputed questions is not to be looked for, and the only interest attaching to the work lies in its purpose to vindicate heretics and toleration against so-called orthodoxy and persecution. Had this been done with a special faculty of historical insight, the book might possess value in spite of the limitations under which the author worked; but this is not the case, and the reader is forced to share the regret expressed in the preface that Mr. Backhouse should have commenced his vindication of Quakerism with the primitive church. "He knew," we are told, "the local history of the North of England well, the history of the Society of Friends perfectly; and if he had confined his labors to these subjects he would probably have produced a work which would have been accepted as an authority in that more limited field." As it stands, the book doubtless supplied to the author's declining years occupation and purpose which were sufficient reward to him.

Tables of European History. Literature and Art from A. D. 200 to 1882; and of American History, Literature, and Art. By John Nichol, M.A., Oxon., LL.D., Professor of English Language and Literature, University of Glasgow. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

PROFESSOR NICHOL'S tables will be found very convenient and useful. They consist of five columns on the two opposite pages—foreign history, English history, English literature, foreign literature, and the arts. In the first two columns the several nations are distinguished by different colors, in lines or bars: we should suppose it might have been well to do the same with the other columns. The American tables contain two columns to a page—history, and literature and art. The several tables are not arranged to contain equal spaces of time, but cover more or less time, according as there is more or less material. Thus, the first table contains four centuries; Table V. contains from 1350 to 1425; Table XVI. only twenty-seven years, 1855 to 1882. We should think it would have been well, as the book is at any rate thin, to prefix tables of ancient history.

The special value of the tables will be found, we fancy, in the conspectus presented of the history of literature and art in their relation to general history. The tables of events are not full enough for minute reference, but give just the guide that is needed for the purpose of literary references. Of course the names and events to be selected are a matter of individual judgment, in which there is great room for difference of opinion. Turning to the period 1110 to 1150, for example, we should say that the foundation of the kingdom of Portugal, 1139, was much better worth mentioning than "Leopold of Austria in Bavaria," 1138. The order of the names is sometimes hard to understand; for example, in the first table, Constantine, Alaric, and Mahomet are given in the centuries in which they were born, not those in which they flourished; President Lincoln is put just before the date 1860, and Professor Goodwin stands before his old instructor, Professor (rather President) Felton. We notice that G. Ripley is represented as still living. Occasionally an event is given without a date, as League of Cambray, and resignation of Victor Amadeus (called of Savoy, when it should be of Sardinia).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E., and Arnold, T. A Catholic Dictionary: Containing some Account of the Doctrine, Discipline, Rites, Ceremonies, Councils, and Religious Orders of the Catholic Church. Catholic Publication Society.
Anderson, E. L. Modern Horsemanship. A New Method of Teaching Riding and Training. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bestmann, H. J. Die Anfänge des Katholischen Christentums und des Islams. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck'schen Buchhandlung.
Billings, F. S. The Relation of Animal Diseases to the Public Health, and their Prevention. D. Appleton & Co.
Boyden, Anna L. Echoes from Hospital and White House. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Brooks, Rev. Phillips. Sermons: First Series. Thirteenth thousand. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
Clarke, Rev. J. F. The Ideas of the Apostle Paul, Translated into their Modern Equivalents. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Crane, Moses. Politics. An Introduction to the Comparative Study of Constitutional Law. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Economic Tracts. First and Second Series. 1881-1882. Society for Political Education. $1.
Elbon, Barbara. Bethesda. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Elwess, R. H. M. The Chief Works of Benedict de Spinoza. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Fellows, H. P. Boating Trips on New England Rivers. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Griffiths, A. The Chronicles of Newgate. New Edition. Scribner & Welford. $4.50.
Haweis, H. R. My Musical Memories. Funk & Wagnals. $1. Paper, 25 cents.
Hayne, W., D.D. Ralph Waldo Emerson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Hill, H. A. Memoir of Abbott Lawrence. With an Appendix. Second Edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Jones, J. A. T. The Retrospect: a Poem in Four Cantos. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
King, Charles. Kitty's Conquest. A novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Kitchen, Dr. J. M. W. Catarrh, Sore Throat, and Hoarseness. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 21. Tirrel-top—Wards. Norden: H. Braams.
Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series. Vol. 45. Boston: Littell & Co.
Mann, Dr. E. C. A Manual of Psychological Medicine and Allied Nervous Diseases. Illustrated. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
Marryat, Captain. The Pirate, and Three Cutters. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Martel, Charles. Military Italy. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Mason, Mrs. E. R. Our Mabel: Crests upon the Waves of Thought. Chicago: Cushing, Thomas & Co.
Meyer, H. A. W. Critical and Exegetical Hand-Book to the Epistle to the Romans. Preface and Notes by Prof. Timothy Dwight. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.
Moinaux, Jules. Les Deux Sourds, Comédie en un acte. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Newman, John Henry. Echoes from his Oratory and Selections from his Poems. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Parker, Rev. J. Apostolic Life, as Revealed in the Acts of the Apostles. Vol. I. From the Ascension of Christ to the Withdrawal of Peter. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Phillips, Wendell. His Orations, Speeches, Lectures, and Letters. With a Biographical Sketch. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Ploetz, Carl. Epitome of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History: with Extensive Additions, by W. H. Tillinghast. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Porter, Rose. Green Pastures for the Shepherd's Lambs. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 35 cents.
Powell, G. T. Foundations and Foundation Walls, for All Classes of Buildings, Pile Driving, Building Stones and Bricks, etc. Illustrated. W. T. Comstock. $2.
Roth, E. Complete Index to Littell's *Living Age.* Vol. I., Part 4. Biography: Lescure and Marie-Thérèse. Philadelphia: 1135 Pine St. $2.
Russell, W. C. Jack's Courtship: A Sailor's Yarn of Love and Shipwreck. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Schaff, Rev. P. A Religious Encyclopædia, or Dictionary of Biblical, Historical, Doctrinal, and Practical Theology. Vol. III. and last. Funk & Wagnalls. $6.
Stories by American Authors. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Sumner, C. A. Golden Gate Sketches. W. B. Smith & Co. 25 cents.
Teaching of the Twelve Apostles. Edited, with a Translation, Introduction, and Notes, by Profs. Roswell D. Hitchcock and Francis Brown. Charles Scribner's Sons.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 17, 1884.

The Week.

THE Democratic Convention which met on Wednesday in Pennsylvania and nominated Mr. Randall for the Presidency, was, if we may judge from the platform, the purest assembly that was ever called together in any country. How many such bodies, for instance, would declare themselves boldly, as this one has done, against "centralization, monopoly, extravagant expenditures, subsidies, and a debasement of the civil service to partisan spoliation"? Then it is most encouraging to find it coming out for that old tariff which has been the dream of saints and sages in all ages—though, owing to the imperfections of our corrupt nature, it has never yet been embodied in legislation—the "tariff for revenue limited to the necessities of the Government economically administered, and so adjusted in its application as to prevent unequal burdens, encourage productive industries at home, and afford just compensation to labor, but not to create or foster monopolies." Other parties or conventions, too, often express their scorn and contempt for the poor man who is trying to rise in the world and save a little money for his old age; but the Pennsylvania Democrats—God bless them!—declare in the frankest and manliest way that "every legitimate effort of labor to better its condition, enhance its rewards, and protect its rights, commands their sympathy and support."

On State affairs the sentiments of the Convention were equally pure, wholesome, and elevating. Many a Convention would, in these times of anarchy, recommend the overturning of the State Constitution, the complete release of corporations from all Governmental control, the use of the taxes for individual debauchery and aggrandizement, and a total disregard of the laws of the land in the management of the treasury. The Pennsylvania Democrats, however, are men of a very different mould, for they "favor the enforcement of the Constitution of Pennsylvania in its every article and section, and especially demand the regulation by law in accordance therewith of the corporations of the State, the equalization of the tax laws, the appropriation of public moneys to public uses only, an honest management of the State treasury, and rigid enforcement of the laws governing it." Most Conventions, too, would experience some difficulty in finding a candidate fit to stand on such a platform, for it needs a man of really heroic mould, "one of Plutarch's men"—in short, a simple, pure, far-seeing, and absolutely single-minded patriot. In almost any other State or country a party would have to advertise for such a man, and probably to wait for some time before he turned up. The Pennsylvania Democrats, however, had him all ready in the person of Samuel J. Randall before they put pen to paper.

A stir was caused last Thursday among the Democrats by the appearance of the *Great Republic*, the new semi-weekly national Republican newspaper. The subscription is fixed at the price of $5 a year or $3 for six months; but, curiously enough, no provision is made, as in the case of most newspapers, for the purchase of single copies; at least no price per copy is given, so that the matter has to be remitted to what Adam Smith would call the "higgling of the market." It may be, however, that the proprietors contemplate only sales by subscription, and they have, of course, a perfect right to adopt this plan. The same thing may be said of the fact that the first number appears with the four inside pages blank, for which we are surprised to notice an editorial apology. Every newspaper has a right to come out with blank pages, and it must often be far less expensive to do so. This is the chief peculiarity in our new contemporary, which we gladly welcome to the ranks of journalism, and whose career we shall watch with interest, however short it may be.

There is no more melancholy feature in the Blaine boom than the absence from it of Colonel Robert G. Ingersoll, the gallant old infidel, who really started it in 1876 by the "plumed knight" speech. He was remorselessly thrown aside in 1880, however, by Mr. Blaine's managers on account of his scepticism, they being above all things a religious body of men, and anxious that their candidate should retain his hold on the religious sentiment of the country. Now Colonel Ingersoll cannot get to the Convention at all, either as a Blaine or anti-Blaine man. He has just been defeated in Washington, and is beginning to find out that the divorce between religion and politics, even in the United States, is not as complete as some people suppose. But even the infidels have been pained of late by the Colonel's defence of all kinds of rascals. There ought to be some morality, they say, even in his irreligion.

Secretary Frelinghuysen's plan for an International American Conference, or rather for a Commission to ascertain whether there is any good basis and *raison d'être* for such a conference, betrays such feebleness of purpose, and such a lack of definite aim, that Congress may well conclude to postpone its consideration until more pressing reasons can be shown for taking it up. The Secretary takes care, in the first place, to set forth the reasons why there should be no such conference. Such an alliance, or quasi-alliance, might commit us to a protectorate over the Central and South American republics. It might lead to a meddlesome foreign policy, and bring about needless controversies respecting matters in which we have no real interest. The sister republics might look to us for protection against each other as well as against European Powers. Calls might be made upon us for the expenditure of money for the development of these countries which could not be responded to. The failure of the Panama Congress, in John Quincy Adams's Administration, is cited as a warning against hasty and ill-considered essays in this field of diplomacy. In short, Mr. Frelinghuysen very nearly demolishes his own project before telling us what it really is.

Mr. Murat Halstead, of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, was one of the chief promoters of the silver legislation from which we are now suffering. He was at one time so devoted to the silver gospel that he inserted as many as sixteen silver articles in his paper in a single day, all of great vehemence. His thesis was that the act demonetizing silver was the result of a conspiracy concocted by bankers and capitalists, known as "gold bugs," or "money kings," who liked a gold standard because, gold being dear, they would be able to keep all the money to themselves and leave none for the poor man; that silver, too, was "the dollar of our fathers," which the children ought to retain on sentimental grounds; that, anyhow, before the demonetization of silver, every American had the option of paying his debts in gold or silver; and although, as a matter of fact, he did not use this option, but always paid them in gold, still it would be wrong to deprive him of it. It was freqently pointed out to Mr. Halstead, in the course of the discussion, that the condition of things abroad had an important bearing on our mode of regulating our currency; that the tide of opinion in Europe was running against the double standard, and toward the disuse of silver for anything but small change, and that if we undertook to coin silver in large amounts and make it a legal tender, it would strengthen this anti-silver current in Europe by providing a place where the foes of silver could dump as much of it as they wished to get rid of. His answer to this was substantially the famous phrase which Mr. Stanley Matthews used in the Senate: "What have we to do with abroad?" He held that it was not true that the European governments were disposed to discard silver; that on the contrary the tendency of opinion in Europe was toward the double standard; that the remonetization of silver in America would raise the price of the metal to the old figure and restore its steadiness, and that in any case it would make no difference to us what Europeans did about their currency. It is needless to say now that every one of these assertions has been falsified by events.

Mr. Halstead now admits, in a letter to the delegate of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, at present in Washington, that he did not sufficiently "take into consideration two great matters—first, the international aspect of the question of the maintenance of one or two money-metal standards, and second, the persevering and perverse hostility to silver as money-metal of nearly all the great financial authorities and money centres of this country and England." In the use of the word "perverse" to characterize this hostility we see some of the sparks of Mr. Halstead's old

passion. It cannot be perverse to disagree with Mr. Halstead, on a matter on which he now acknowledges that he has made tremendous mistakes. The great financial authorities and money centres of this country and England have clearly given far more consideration to the currency question than the Western silver editors. Moreover, there is nothing more absurd than to suppose that the money centres of the world are not interested above all things in having a stable currency. The notion that they like a standard that fluctuates ought not to find a lodgment in the brain of anybody who knows anything about the operations of trade. The reason is really very simple. At the money centres of the world, nearly all the great transactions are based on credit in some form—that is, on promises to settle at some future date. Nothing, therefore, is more necessary to the conduct of business than fixity in the value of the money in which the settlement is to be made. Every financier needs, above all things, to be sure that he will receive on the first of April full value for what he gave on the first of January. Therefore, when he is advocating any particular standard of value, it is all but certain, if he is in good health, that it is what he considers the most stable standard. It is from the belief that silver is unstable in value that it is now suffering at the money centres. The notion that financiers do not like it from "perversity" or prejudice is worthy only of an open-air meeting of Communists.

The course of trade furnishes some grounds for the belief that business is again rising, not rapidly but surely on a secure foundation. The readjustment of prices and of avocations necessary to renewed commercial activity has been going on for two years. It could not be considered complete and effectual until the prices of the principal articles of food experienced a decline corresponding to that which has taken place in other commodities. The equilibrium having been measurably restored, we may reasonably expect a more cheerful aspect of industrial and mercantile life. The past week has shown a slight improvement in most branches of trade. Railway earnings, both gross and net, are up to the mark of last year, except where heavy rate-cutting has been practised. The movement of produce toward the seaboard continues large, but there has been no material increase of exports. A reaction in wheat, which advanced about 3 cents cash from the lowest depression, led to considerable activity in domestic trade and to some movements looking to a revival of exportation. Gold to the amount of nearly $4,000,000 was sent abroad, making upwards of $19,000,000 exported since February 21, but the plethora of money remains unaffected, and the rate for call loans is still in the neighborhood of 2 per cent. Cotton goods have become somewhat more active in consequence of a further advance of ¼ cent in raw cotton. Other branches of the dry-goods trade remain about as before. The iron and coal trades continue extremely dull.

The course of the stock market has been again downward, the most marked declines being in Oregon Navigation, Wabash, West Shore bonds and Western Union Telegraph. The remainder of the list was fairly steady. Some strength was imparted to the trunk-line stocks by the report that a new plan was under consideration for pooling cash receipts instead of pooling tonnage, and also for abolishing all agencies for soliciting business and all fast-freight lines. The latter part of the proposed plan is by way of reducing expenses, and is rendered necessary by the reduction of receipts. But experience has proved that agencies cannot be safely discontinued by one road unless they are discontinued by all, and that there can be no satisfactory guarantee upon this point if any motive exists for the employment of agents. The pooling of earnings, it is believed, would take away every incentive to violate or evade the common agreement, so that expenses might be reduced and rates maintained, so far at least as they are within the control of railways. But there are very grave difficulties in the way of such a consolidation of interests. How, for example, can the earnings of the New York Central be lawfully diverted to the treasury of the Grand Trunk to be distributed as dividends to the stockholders of the latter company in London, or vice versa? Would not the courts put a stop to such arrangements on the complaint of any shareholder, and would there not be shareholders in plenty to make such complaints?

The Board of State Railroad Commissioners have submitted an elaborate report on the Senate bill "to secure *pro rata* charges for local freight carried by railroads in the State of New York." This bill, which sought to prohibit railroad companies from charging more, in proportion to distance, for local freight than for through-freight, was referred to the Commissioners one year ago, and has been the subject of a very painstaking investigation. As a preliminary step the Commissioners sent circulars making specific inquiries for information to all the agricultural societies and State Granges, to Mayors of cities, Chambers of Commerce, and Boards of Trade, manufacturers, merchants, millers, farmers, editors, etc., as well as to the railroad companies and fast-freight lines. The conclusions reached by the Commissioners are adverse to the bill, which they say would cause greater evils than it would cure. They affirm as a general principle that railroads should not charge more for local than for through-freight, but that circumstances may exist which justify such a practice in particular cases, and that railroads should be allowed to plead the facts in each case where unjust discrimination is alleged. They point out, however, an abuse against which they recommend specific legislation. They ascertained that the railroads along the line of the canals make lower rates to shippers who agree to give the railroads all their freight, than to those who employ the canals during the season of navigation. They acknowledge that the railroads have some ground for justification in the premises, since the State has abolished tolls and has assumed the task of keeping the canals in repair out of the proceeds of general taxation. Nevertheless, they recommend that the practice of discriminating against those who use the canals be prohibited.

The Raritan and Somerset Woollen Mills, at Raritan, Somerset Co., N. J., have just been closed, throwing 1,200 persons out of work. The operatives had struck. The story they tell is a remarkable one, if true. They say their wages have been declining for the past three years. The Superintendent said he would rather have the mills idle for three months than increase wages in the present condition of business, and the Newark *Daily Advertiser* says "the whole town is practically out of employment, and in many cases there will be great suffering if the strike continues long." This is a most unfortunate state of things to exist on the eve of a Presidential canvass in which the tariff is expected to be a leading issue, and in which the workingmen are expected to support by their votes the theory that the tariff as it is is their one defence against privation and the pauper labor of Europe. The Raritan people must feel that there must be something very doctrinaire about this view, or they would themselves be better off. In fact, there probably never was a harder task set before theorists than the task of making the protectionist account of the uses of a high tariff tally with the actual condition of American industry.

The adoption by the House, without discussion, of the report of the Committee which found that Mr. Keifer's charges against Mr. Boynton were simply calumnious falsehoods, is really, considering that Mr. Keifer was Speaker of the House in the last Congress, a most painful and discreditable affair. But it has been made more painful and discreditable by the fact that, although Keifer had, during his Speakership, supplied abundant proof that it was an immense mistake for the Republican party to have put him in any prominent position, the Republicans in the House deliberately aggravated it by giving him the complimentary nomination for the Speakership in this Congress. He ought to have been promptly unloaded at the first convenient stopping place, and no further notice ever taken of him. He was not many weeks in the Speakership before it became apparent that he was the tool of the most corrupt jobbers in the party, and his dealings with the stenographers showed that he was as deficient in shame as in integrity. His constituents ought now to remove him wholly from political life, and they will probably do so.

The cultured society of Chicago is passing through another very painful crisis since the discovery that the Matthew Arnold letter was a hoax. The prominent citizens who denounced and exposed Mr. Arnold so freely on the strength of the letter, are now engaged in the very trying process of getting out of the scrape. Professor Swing modifies his remarks so as to make Arnold simply an "egotistical" or "blunt" man, who frightened a servant at his table by the peremptory way in which he said "Salt." Most of the others who committed themselves are silent, except Canon Knowles, who observes enigmatically, "I re-

gard the thing as below par." General McClurg, who was Arnold's host during his stay, is the only one who comes off really creditably, for he refused to comment on the hoax, and is now able to say that he always regarded Mr. Arnold as "a gentleman of culture and refinement." We trust the affair will be a warning to the scholars and critics of Chicago, for it is a very humiliating one. They ought to have been able to detect the fraud at a glance, by the style. Professor Swing, in particular, seems to us to need a little ripening.

Professor Adler has come out in favor of "reform in home life." The trouble with home life, he says, is that "too much drudgery is imposed upon our women," the kitchen being made the "base of our houses," and woman, being occupied with low household duties, is unable to exercise those ennobling influences we demand of her. In the same way, the mother, being busy in the kitchen, has no time to train herself to understand the "soul life" of the child, which explains much of the misunderstanding between them that we so often notice. Professor Adler thinks that some form of coöperative housekeeping is what is needed to liberate the mother from her present slavery; but he does not seem to have noticed that, as far as it goes, the flat or apartment accomplishes the ends he has in view. Flats were invented for the benefit of woman; flat life relieves her of a great deal of drudgery. She does not get rid of the kitchen, but she gets rid of stairs, cellar, and garret, can get along with fewer servants, and is not occupied nearly so much with low household duties. To this extent, therefore, she has an opportunity of exercising those ennobling influences we demand of her, and of giving herself up to the study of the "soul life" of her children. It would seem to follow from this that the women who live in flats must be a great deal better and purer than those who live in houses—allowance, perhaps, being made for any difference in rent.

The trustees of the Astor Library have determined, it is said, that they cannot open it in the evening, owing to lack of funds, and their decision has called out some criticism which is evidently founded on the mistaken theory that the Astor Library is a public institution. It is a private foundation, with a public object, but that object does not seem to be to establish a public library like those existing in other great cities with which it is often compared. We see no reason to believe that the library will ever resemble anything of the kind, or that any amount of criticism will lead those interested in the matter to try to create such a library. Under these circumstances, contrasts of the management with that of the Boston Public Library or the British Museum seem only calculated to distract attention from the main point—the crying need of a real public library.

The "war" in Cuba, set on foot by Aguero, is evidently a freebooting raid, which is not in the least likely to cause any trouble between the United States and Spain. It has, as usual in all such cases, produced the suggestion that we should buy Cuba, but the drift of public opinion has ever since the war been against such a purchase. Cuba, governed with difficulty now by the aid of "troops," would make a most extraordinary American State and the Cubans very queer American citizens. What wonderful primaries, and conventions, and "halls" it would develop, and what striking figures the Cuban delegates to the Presidential Convention would be!

The capture of some more dynamiters in England is a good sign as to the skill and vigilance of the English police, but thus far nothing has been discovered to connect the prisoners with confederates on this side of the water. This does not, however, hinder the London press from assuming that they are emissaries of an Irish-American organization, and resuming the denunciations of the American Government which broke out after the explosion at the Paddington Station, of the origin of which nothing is known to this day. The *Observer* maintains "that if the American law cannot reach the dynamiters it ought to be altered," which is quite true, but not to the purpose. The American law can reach the dynamiters, if they can be found. It is the difficulty of finding them which makes them so formidable. Even in England, where they do their work and get their machines ready for action, and where they cannot enter without passing the custom-houses, this difficulty is found to be very serious indeed. They have succeeded in producing at least two formidable explosions in London, and made all the preparations for another in a very public place, without detection. If the dynamiters do any part of their work at all in this country, it is merely the formation of the plan, and although it is of course possible to get evidence of a conspiracy of this kind, it is, as the English police know well, no easy matter. What really makes the dynamiters so dangerous is the very fact that their schemes need so little preparation. The laws now on the statute-book intended for the fulfilment of our obligations to foreign states were aimed against armed expeditions and other enterprises requiring the coöperation of considerable numbers of men. In bygone days, it would have taken a great many conspirators and weapons and much ammunition to blow up a public building in a great city, or kill a sovereign in his own dining-room, surrounded by half a regiment of his guards, as the Russian Nihilists came near doing. Now two men with a little box can do it.

The dynamiters last arrested in England appear to have had their headquarters in Paris rather than here, although the French police have means of laying hands on such persons which the American Government could never obtain. There is every disposition on the part of the public here to do whatever can be done towards catching dynamiters here before they start, or towards getting information about them for the English police, but it is a disposition which would be readily changed into irritation by unreasonable demands or wild objurgation on the part of the English press. Trial by jury, for instance, cannot be suspended here, as it might be on a pinch in England, and juries require evidence in order to convict, and evidence cannot be manufactured. It has to be procured, and whether you can procure it or not, especially in cases of conspiracy, does not depend altogether on your zeal. The nature of the case has much to do with it. The English press must not be led astray by the foolish talk of Mr. Goldwin Smith's Toronto paper, the *Week*, which rejoiced lately over the Attorney-General's circular enjoining the enforcement of the law against the exportation of explosives, and said this showed what could be done, etc., etc. The circular was really of no importance whatever.

It is reported that positive orders have been sent to General Gordon to evacuate Khartum as soon as he can. His troops, unreliable at best, have begun to mutiny, and the enemy keeps up his attacks, which, though not formidable, are wearing. Moreover, at this season the aid of a European force is out of the question. Colonel de Coetlogon, who left the place a month ago, however, reported that General Gordon had then made up his mind to evacuate, but was probably trying to hold out till May, when the rise of the river would enable him to reach Sennaar to withdraw the garrison there. The difficulties between Mr. Clifford Lloyd and Nubar Pasha at Cairo are still unsettled, and are probably incapable of settlement. They arise out of the state of things no less than out of the temper of the men. In the meantime, however, attention in England may be withdrawn from Egypt at any moment by a dissolution of Parliament, which the best friends of the Ministry acknowledge to be imminent, and which any check in the progress of the Franchise Bill would precipitate.

There seems to be some reason to dread that the publication of the Bulwer memoirs may yet lead to another family exposure like that of the Carlyle household. The *Academy* contained a little while ago a communication throwing out a hint that, notwithstanding the mean way in which Lord Lytton had salved over the peculiarities of his father's character, the truth might yet be told, and, as a suggestion of what the truth would be, gave the following rather neat bit of analysis of the novelist's character:

"His one paramount object was to be marked, be it in literature or politics, in dandyism or gallantry, posing as the victim of some abiding sorrow, or exchanging slang with thieves and highwaymen. His extreme sensitiveness displayed itself in resentment to criticism or any difference of opinion, and herein can be seen the origin of those domestic scandals that are probably remembered by only a few of your readers. His wife, who for so long a period had been foremost among his hero-worshippers, began to waver, was suspected of doubting, and finally declared apostate from the true faith. When want of respect on one side was met with yet larger claims to devotion on the other, all chances of happiness were at an end. The punishment of the pervert was an *auto-da-fé* to assuage the anger of the offended deity and to prevent the spreading of a dangerous heresy."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 9, to TUESDAY, April 15, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate Committee on Foreign Relations on Thursday reported adversely three bills relating to the establishment of peaceful and reciprocal commercial relations between the countries of Central and South America and the United States. In place of these bills the Committee report an amendment to the Consular and Diplomatic Bill, which provides $100,000 to enable the President to compensate a Commission to examine the relations of the United States with these countries, and report upon the best modes of securing intimate national and commercial relations between them and the United States; and also to enable him to compensate delegates of the United States to a congress of these States, to be held in Washington, should it be deemed advisable to convene such a congress. Secretary Frelinghuysen has sent the Committee a letter questioning the expediency of a congress, and saying: "The true plan, it seems to me, is to make a series of reciprocity treaties with the States of Central and South America." He also suggests "the adoption of a common silver coin which should be current in all the countries of this continent."

The Senate on Monday passed the Naval Appropriation Bill with the amendment providing for the building of new steel cruisers. Two million dollars is added to continue work on the double-turreted monitors. The discussion of the Bankruptcy Bill was then begun.

The House on Friday passed the Senate Bill offering a reward of $25,000 to any vessel rescuing or ascertaining the fate of Lieutenant Greely and his party. The report of the Keifer-Boynton Investigating Committee exonerating General Boynton was adopted without any debate, much to the chagrin of the ex-Speaker. There were only two viva-voce votes in opposition.

In the House on Tuesday Mr. Morrison (Dem., Ill.) moved to go into Committee of the Whole for the consideration of the Tariff Bill. There was no division, and the motion was agreed to. Immediately upon the Committee's assembling, Mr. Eaton (Dem., Conn.) objected to the consideration of the bill, and the objection was reported to the House. A vote was then taken upon the question whether the bill should be considered, and by a vote of 140 yeas and 138 nays the Committee decided to consider the measure. The announcement of the vote was greeted with loud applause by the Democrats. Six Republicans voted for the consideration and 49 Democrats against it. The vote was so close as to make the conclusion seem probable that the opponents of the bill may be able to strike out the enacting clause. Some votes were cast for consideration which will probably be given against the bill.

Adam Badeau, Consul-General at Havana, the friend and biographer of General Grant, resigned on Friday. There are reports affecting the accuracy of his accounts. There are also reports that his resignation was due to the Aguero difficulty, but they have not been confirmed.

President Arthur, on Tuesday, nominated Charles E. Coon, of New York, as Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, in place of John C. New, resigned. Mr. Coon is at present Assistant Chief of the Loan Division of the Treasury.

The Pennsylvania Democratic State Convention met at Allentown on Wednesday. Resolutions were adopted containing the Ohio tariff plank, and declaring for Samuel J. Randall as the choice of the Convention for President. General W. H. Davies was nominated for Congressman-at-large (the only official to be elected by the State this fall). Delegates-at large to the Democratic National Convention and an electoral ticket were chosen. The Convention was completely in the control of the Randall faction.

The Republicans of Missouri, in Convention on Wednesday evening at Sedalia, passed resolutions renewing their allegiance to the national platform of 1880, approving of President Arthur's Administration, and pledging their support to the national nominees of the party.

The Georgia Republican Convention has elected delegates to Chicago who will first vote for Arthur.

The results of the recent Republican primaries and district conventions in the northern part of this State show an anti-Arthur sentiment. County conventions held on Wednesday in various parts of the State resulted in an increased anti-Arthur vote.

In the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday, the bill to abolish the State paper was passed, 80 to 13. A bill providing that the manufacture of cigars or tobacco in any form on any floor, in any tenement-house occupied as a home or residence for the purposes of living, sleeping, cooking, or doing any household work, in cities of over 500,000 inhabitants, shall be unlawful, was also passed, 104 to 5, on Thursday. A Constitutional Amendment was passed to secure home rule for cities.

The audacity of the lobby at Albany reached its culminating point on Thursday, in anticipating the report of the Assembly Railroad Committee on the General Street Railroad Bill. They invaded the Assembly Chamber. The horse car lobby and that of the cable system were specially bold in their operations. Members were dragged out singly and in little squads to be badgered and coaxed and bought in the presence of the whole Assembly and under the eyes of the Speaker. Their audacity finally became so unendurable that the Chair directed the Sergeant-at-Arms to clear the floor. This order was given twice before the lobbyists were finally driven from the Chamber.

A number of the Roosevelt city reform bills were passed by the Assembly on Tuesday. Only one of the nine now remains to be passed.

A bill for the preservation of the Adirondack forests was passed by the State Senate on Wednesday.

A mass-meeting was held in Chickering Hall, in this city, on Wednesday evening in favor of the preservation of the Adirondack forests. Carl Schurz, F. B. Thurber, Henry Bergh, and others spoke, and resolutions were adopted appointing a committee to secure legislation for the proper protection of the forests.

Judge Van Brunt, in the Common Pleas, Equity Term, in this city handed down his decision on Tuesday in the suit of the Metropolitan Elevated Railroad Company against the Manhattan Company to set aside the agreement of October, 1881. The decision directs that the agreement shall be set aside upon the Metropolitan Company doing what it can to restore the status quo existing between the parties prior to October 22, 1881.

The report was received on Monday that the United States and Brazil Mail Steamship Company's steamer *Reliance*, from Rio Janeiro for this city, had been wrecked off Bahia, Brazil. The crew, passengers, and mails were all saved. The cargo was a total loss. It contained among other things 7,000 bags of coffee. The *Reliance* was built in 1883, was valued at $350,000, and was fully insured.

There was a rumor sent from St. Johns, Newfoundland, on Monday, that the Greely party had been rescued from a mass of floating ice by the crew of a whaling schooner. It proved to be a canard.

John C. Perry, the new Chief Justice of Wyoming Territory, died suddenly on Monday in Brooklyn.

The Rev. Dr. John C. Backus, pastor emeritus of the First Presbyterian Church in Baltimore, and one of the most prominen clergymen in his denomination, is dead at the age of seventy-three.

The steamship *Grecian*, from Glasgow, arrived at Boston on Wednesday, bringing 236 immigrants said to have been shipped from the workhouse at Swineford, Ireland. The customs authorities, having been warned to investigate the matter, ascertained that they were "assisted immigrants," and not paupers, and had from $5 to $40, according to the size of each family, given them by the agent of the Tuke fund on the other side. They were fully up to the requirement of the immigration law, and were allowed to land.

FOREIGN.

Sir William Harcourt, British Home Secretary, several months ago warned the police of the arrival of a dynamiter in England. It was soon discovered that a man named John Daly alias Denman, who answered to the description, had taken lodgings in Birmingham with a clerk named James Egan. Last Wednesday he went to Birkenhead and was closely followed by officers. On Friday he was arrested as he was about to return to Birmingham. Three explosive bombs were found in his possession, and several bottles containing a substance believed to be nitro-glycerine. Egan was also arrested at Birmingham. He maintained the utmost coolness and had nothing to say. A lot of documents belonging to him were taken to the police station, one of them a letter from Egan to Daly, in which he referred to the "cough mixture" as being "nice and cold." It is believed he referred to dynamite. It is said that Daly is an American, and that he is acquainted with Patrick Fitzgerald, the Fenian, arrested in London on Thursday. It is stated that Fitzgerald has been in regular communication with P. J. Sheridan. He was connected with James Carey's gang, and once presided at a meeting of Invincibles in Dublin.

Both Egan and Daly were brought before magistrates on Saturday and remanded. Fitzgerald was arraigned at Sligo, Ireland, on the same day and remanded.

Two men who were lounging near Egan's house in Birmingham, England, on Sunday, were arrested, but proved to have no connection with the Fenians. The London *Times* on Monday said of the recent arrests: "The expectation is strong that these arrests will lead to important disclosures which will throw light upon the recent explosions. We believe that one or two informers will be produced who will reveal the headquarters of the conspiracy, whether in France or America."

Colonel Majendie, in his report on the recent dynamite attempts in England, says that the substance used was lignin dynamite, which is manufactured in America but not in England, that the clocks were of American make, and the pistols a common American pattern. In spite of this report it is declared in Paris that the dynamite used at the Victoria Station explosion was manufactured at a place between Amiens and Boulogne.

The London *Times* on Saturday printed a communication from its Paris correspondent, which gave much information concerning the dynamite and Clan na Gael Societies. The Constitution and the terms of the oath of these organizations were fully described. An account was also given of how dynamite is obtained in France. It was asserted that the Clan na Gael Society had received a letter, bearing a Russian postmark, from the informer McDermott, in which he pleads his innocence and begs for mercy. The society treated the letter with silent contempt, and its agents are tracking him. A constant watch is kept upon the informers Lamie and Coleman, and a record of their movements is regularly kept at Paris.

There was a rumor afloat in Paris on Tuesday that an attempt would soon be made to blow up one of the London public buildings. The activity of the dynamiters in France con-

tinues, it is said, unabated. They meet twice every week for the purpose of making plans and preparations for future outrages. It is believed that the English and the French police are fully acquainted with their movements, and that every effort will be made to counteract their plots. There is great reason to believe that one of the most trusted of the dynamite leaders keeps the police fully informed of all their plans.

Mr. Froude, the English historian, is suffering from work and worry over the Carlyle memoirs, and proposes to make a lecturing tour in America and Australia to recuperate.

Charles Reade, the English novelist, died on Friday at the age of seventy. He was the son of a substantial country gentleman, and was graduated from Magdalen College, Oxford, in 1835. He showed an early aptitude for story-writing; and although admitted to the bar, devoted himself entirely to literature at the age of twenty-eight. Before he was thirty he brought out "Gold," a drama. His first very successful novel was 'Peg Woffington,' published in 1852. 'Christie Johnstone' followed with almost equal success. In the next twenty-five years he wrote many novels, all of which met with popular favor. The most famous among them are 'Hard Cash,' 'Griffith Gaunt,' and 'Put Yourself in His Place.' Many of his later works have aimed to expose and correct social and public evils. He was the author of a number of plays. "Masks and Faces" still holds the stage. Personally he was eccentric, irritable, but kind-hearted. He was buried privately on Tuesday at Willesden. Mr. George Augustus Sala, Mr. Edwin Arnold, and a few other literary friends of the dead novelist, were present.

Henry J. Byron, the well-known English dramatist and actor, is dead at the age of fifty. His grandfather was a first cousin of Byron, the poet. He went on the stage when about eighteen, but left it to study medicine at the wish of his parents. Tiring of this, he returned to the stage with small success, and then began to study law. During hours that should have been given to law he wrote plays. One of these, "Fra Diavolo," was accepted by Miss Swanborough and produced with great success in 1858 at the Strand Theatre. A great number of burlesques, farces, etc., followed with rapidity. His most successful play was "Our Boys." Among his other plays are: "Blow for Blow," "The Lancashire Lass," "Dearer Than Life," "The Prompter's Box," and "The American Lady." In several of these plays he acted parts successfully.

Lawrence Barrett appeared in "Yorick's Love" at the Lyceum Theatre, London, on Saturday night, and met with fair success. The London *Times* says that he is a highly trained actor. The *Standard* finds in him no trace of tragic power.

The French General Millot has telegraphed from Tonquin: "On April 9 Hunghoa was bombarded for six hours. The Chinese offered no resistance, but evacuated after setting fire to the town, which is now in flames. Part of the Chinese fled to Phulam and part to Davang and Tanhhoa." The Marquis Tseng has been summoned to Pekin to confer with the Supreme Council, but is not recalled in disgrace. The new French Minister is charged to offer at Pekin conditions of peace which stipulate that China shall accept a limited French protectorate over Tonquin. No indemnity demand is mentioned.

It was reported in Paris on Tuesday that the French fleet had occupied Amoy in order to secure the payment of the indemnity from China. The report proved without foundation. The capture of Hunghoa terminates the campaign in Tonquin. The financial question remains to be settled with China. The latest advices indicate that the Chinese Government is greatly exercised over the French victories. The officers answerable for the loss of Bacninh have been condemned to be beheaded. A general levy of men for the Chinese army has been ordered. Affairs at Pekin are represented to be in an extremely critical condition, and administrative changes of great importance are imminent.

The latest advices from Shanghai report a serious political crisis at Pekin. The Empress has publicly degraded Prince Kung and four members of the Privy Council, because of the dilatory manner in which they have dealt with Tonquin affairs Prince Kung is charged with accepting bribes and aiming at supreme power.

Despatches received on Friday, dated Berber, April 9th, state that the tribes between Berber and Shendy are in a state of insurrection. They have seized a boat laden with provisions which was proceeding to Shendy. The rebels are besieging Shendy, and a portion of the Berber troops have gone to that city's relief.

There was a rumor at Suakim on Sunday that Khartum had fallen and General Gordon had been taken prisoner. It is unconfirmed. Communication with Berber, both by land and water, has been cut. Earl Granville is preparing a circular to the Powers declaring that England is desirous of renewing a definite understanding in regard to Egypt, and of establishing future relations on an international basis.

A despatch has been received from General Gordon, dated March 30, which contains the following information: "On March 25 General Gordon disarmed 250 Bashi-Bazouks who had mutinied. The following day he shelled the rebel camp on the Blue Nile, killing forty of the enemy. On March 27 the rebels fired upon Khartum from the village opposite. But this they were soon forced to evacuate, losing fifty-nine men in the engagement. The Bashi-Bazouks occupied the village and held it until March 30. On that day the rebels returned in force and drove them out, but then retired themselves." General Gordon estimates that the rebels about Khartum number fully 2,000. He was ordered by the British Government on Wednesday to withdraw from Khartum as soon as possible.

The Sheikh Morghani received a letter on Wednesday from Osman Digna in which the latter said he would, on April 13th, send some sheikhs to meet Morghani at a spot distant from Suakim two hours' ride, and that they would hold a conference with him on the question of an understanding with the Egyptian and British authorities. The conference took place, but resulted in nothing, owing to the rumored fall of Khartum and other rebel successes.

A letter of El Mahdi has been published in London. In this he commands the tribes to push forward the siege of Khartum, to blockade all the roads, and embarrass the Turks and infidels in all other ways possible, as a religious duty.

The differences between Nubar Pasha and Mr. Clifford Lloyd were arranged on Thursday, by limiting the latter's powers. He will hereafter be purely an Egyptian official. Nubar is elated over his triumph. It is thought that the compromise is only temporary.

A statue of Gambetta was unveiled on Monday at Cahors, and eulogies were pronounced by Prime Minister Ferry and General Campenon, Minister of War.

Jean Baptiste Dumas is dead at the age of eighty-four. In 1849, he was made Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, and was Vice-President of the Senate from 1861 to 1863. In 1876 he was elected to Guizot's chair in the French Academy.

Queen Victoria will arrive at Darmstadt on April 17, where she will have an interview (probably on family affairs) with Emperor William on April 21.

There was a rumor on Wednesday that Herr von Eisendecher, the German Minister at Washington, would be recalled on account of his action during the Lasker incident. It proved unfounded.

The recent statement of Signor Mancini, in the Italian Chamber of Deputies, that the Government had no intention of modifying the decision of the Court of Cassation requiring the conversion of the real property of the Propaganda Fide into Italian rentes, has caused renewed solicitude at the Vatican. Cardinal Jacobini, Papal Secretary of State, at once ordered the different nuncios to point out to the courts to which they are accredited the designs of the Italian Government.

The Crown Prince of Portugal will go to Madrid to ask the hand of Infanta Eulalie, the only unmarried sister of King Alfonso.

The London *Times* Madrid correspondent on Thursday telegraphed: "The signs of the approach of a serious economical crisis in Cuba are daily increasing. The continuous fall in the price of sugar is bringing ruin and disaster. Unless radical measures of relief are speedily adopted, the long-suffering Cubans will be driven to courses disastrous for all."

News has been received at Madrid from Cuba that Aguero's force numbers 225 men. It is feared that another filibustering expedition is now fitting out at Turk's Island. Several encounters between Aguero and the Government troops have taken place, the latter being obliged to retreat. On the other hand, the Governor-General of Cuba telegraphed on Friday to the Spanish Minister in Washington that Aguero and his party would soon be captured; that he had only sixteen followers, and that the movement was of no importance.

An Havana letter, dated April 10, received in this city on Tuesday, asserted that the landing of Aguero had caused a feverish state of excitement all over the island of Cuba. The Government was misled as to the landing place of Aguero and sent its troops in the wrong direction, and concealed from the public the news of the first disastrous encounter between Aguero and the few troops he met. It is said that the partisans of those Cubans who favor annexation to the United States are trying to organize a league which will work in favor of that idea.

It was semi-officially reported from Cuba on Monday that Aguero had penetrated the rich jurisdiction of Colon, receiving everywhere on the road accessions of men and horses. He had burned various plantations where help was denied.

The Rumanian Cabinet crisis is ended, the old Ministry remaining in office.

The Chilian Minister to France has announced that a truce between Chili and Bolivia has been proclaimed. By the terms of this it is provided that the Bolivian territory occupied by Chilians shall remain under Chilian law, and that trade between Chili and Bolivia shall be free.

The Government of General Iglesias, in Peru, has been formally recognized by those of Ecuador, Bolivia, Chili, Hayti, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, the Swiss Confederation, Denmark, Sweden, and by the Holy Father. The Minister of Foreign Affairs resigned on March 19.

Mr. J. M. Langston, the American Minister at Port au Prince, has demanded of the Haytian Government the payment of $400,000 as an indemnity for the American losses on account of the riots last September. The German claims for the same cause amount to $500,000, the French claims reach an equal sum, and the English claims are $250,000.

The official statistics show that 1,275 miles of railway were built in Canada last year, making a total of 8,805 miles under traffic, and when the lines at present under construction are completed, which will be within two years, the railway system of Canada will comprise over 11,400 miles. The paid-up capital was increased to $494,271,264, or nineteen per cent.

THE BOOM CANDIDATES.

All the newspapers are devoting much space to demonstrations of the actual strength of the various boom candidates, and all of them agree that Blaine is far in advance of all others. He undoubtedly has secured more delegates who are ostensibly in his favor than any other candidate, and his friends are counting them up by tens and dozens in other States where the delegates are still unchosen. The *Tribune*, which retains the position that it held in 1876 and in 1880 as Blaine's organ-in-chief, has a Washington despatch which claims that Blaine has made great advances over his strength in his two previous preliminary canvasses. He is put down as certain of having an almost solid delegation from Pennsylvania, a majority of the delegates from New York, and almost solid delegations from Ohio, Indiana, and a few other States. An enthusiastic Blaine organ at Washington goes further and gives exact figures. It declares that Blaine will have 100 more votes on the first ballot than he had in 1880, that "he is the one candidate for whom there is any popular enthusiasm, and as things are going now he will be nominated on the first ballot by an overwhelming majority."

It is evident that the old plan of pushing Blaine in with a great hurrah is to be tried over again. All the old wires are in full operation, and, as usual, are "worked" from Washington as a centre. Occasionally there is a little talk about the uncertainty of Blaine's being a candidate, but since the publication by instalments of the "history" as a campaign document, most of that has been dropped. Some of the Blaine advocates try to keep up the illusion by saying that they have never been able to get him to say that he is a candidate, and it is only a few weeks since one of them was able to say, with a perfectly grave face, that "nobody, not even Blaine's own wife," knew whether he was willing to run or not. As a general thing, however, all the enthusiastic persons who visit the historian at his quiet house in Washington come away fairly shouting for his nomination, and convinced that nothing in the world can prevent it. It is a most significant fact that all the Democratic journals and politicians are of the same opinion, and are extremely careful about saying anything to dampen the Blaine enthusiasm. We published last week a review of Mr. Blaine's record, for the purpose of raising the question whether or not the Republicans were prepared to enter the canvass with a candidate in whose career there were so many things which it would be difficult to defend; and while many Republican journals have copied our article and commented upon it, we have not seen it reproduced or even alluded to by either a Blaine or a Democratic newspaper. We venture to predict that if Blaine were to be nominated, that record would appear in every Democratic journal in the land within forty-eight hours.

With all its noise and enthusiasm the present Blaine boom is much less formidable than its predecessors. The usual mistake has been made of developing it too early. Blaine saw the effects of this mistake in 1876 and again in 1880, and he was determined to avoid it this year, but old habits were too strong to be overcome. Furthermore, it is doubtful if a Blaine boom could be worked up in any other way. It depends for its success mainly upon having all the Blaine delegates elected early, in order that a show of strength may be made which will develop enthusiasm and discourage opposition. Pennsylvania is always worked up first, and then New York. This year Pennsylvania shows much greater actual strength for him than ever before, and it may be that he will have a few more delegates from New York; but there are few signs of additional strength elsewhere. He must make vastly greater gains before he can have in the Convention anything like his following in previous years.

This year's boom is actually ahead of the usual time. Four years ago the first formal announcement of Blaine's strength was published by the *Tribune* on May 8. Blaine was then shown to have 241 delegates in his favor, while Grant had 224. Blaine's Washington "bureau" was claiming at that time 287 delegates, and was allowing Grant only 191. On May 22 the bureau claimed 323 votes, and gave Grant only 262. On May 28, only a few days before the Convention met, the claim was 324 for Blaine and 276 for Grant. At present about one-half of the whole number have been elected. Of these Blaine is put down as absolutely sure of 100, and his "claimers" say he has 140 now when he had only 49 in 1880. On this ratio of gain they are claiming his triumphant nomination.

Their claims are probably wilder than they were four years ago. His highest vote in Convention then was 285, precisely the vote which he received in 1876, or 39 votes below his claim and 94 votes less than a majority of the Convention. This year's convention will contain 820 delegates — 64 more than in 1880—and 411 votes will be necessary for a nomination. As the Blaine boom, taken at the boomers' own estimate, at present numbers only 140 votes, it is obviously premature to claim his nomination as assured. He is making a great fight this year, but under conditions by no means so favorable as they were four years ago. Then he had the third-term opposition in his favor, and had not his own record as Secretary of State to weigh him down. There was not at that time so formidable an independent vote to threaten his election as there is now, and the foolish expedient of running for the Presidency by assuming to be a historian had not been tried. Indeed, the spirit of the time is more hostile to Blaine and Blaineism than it ever was before, and we await the assembling of the Convention with the serene confidence that he will come much less near a nomination than he did in 1880. We are not sure that his boom has reached its highest point yet—it is likely to make considerable progress before the Convention meets on June 7; but it is one thing to elect Blaine delegates and another thing to induce them, when assembled, to assume the risk of electing a candidate whose canvass will have to be made on the Mulligan letters.

The Arthur boom, on the other hand, so far as the State of New York affords means of judging, is much less significant than Blaine's. The returns from the interior are gloomy and disappointing. Rochester was lost when, by the rules of the game, it ought to have been won. Albany failed miserably in spite of the most persistent use of Federal patronage. Brooklyn went all to pieces, notwithstanding the pains taken to put "Jake" Worth up and "Al" Daggett down. In the rural districts there has been a series of similar mishaps most unaccountable and mortifying. At the last State Convention the Stalwarts had everything their own way. At the approaching one it seems doubtful whether they will have anything their own way. It is quite certain that the idea of securing the vote of the New York delegation at Chicago, or such a majority as will carry much moral weight with it for Arthur, must be abandoned.

It was fair to expect that Mr. Arthur would be a candidate for election by the people to the station which he had reached through a great public misfortune. He had a right to cherish this ambition, but he has sought to reach it by two different and opposing methods or policies which have largely neutralized each other. He has sought to conciliate the bosses and reformers by turns, and has fallen between two stools. A believer in the boss system of party management, and himself one of the most experienced professors of the school, he has nevertheless alienated a large portion of the class who make politics a means of livelihood through what they consider an exhibition of weakness. He has not made removals and appointments altogether in the way or to the extent they desired and thought they had a right to expect. He has yielded a great deal too much to the clamor of the milksops and the man-milliners. Nothing is more contemptible in their eyes than the truckling of a trained boss to such impracticable and unsophisticated persons as George William Curtis and Carl Schurz. A true man, they feel sure, would never have made any such blunders. Such a man would have had Collector Robertson's head in the basket at the same time with Naval Officer Burt's. He would have had every office filled with henchmen—his own henchmen—long ago; and as for Dorman B. Eaton and the other greenhorns, they would have been sent packing before they had ever begun to fill the Washington clerkships with Latin grammar and the rule of three.

President Arthur has yielded just enough to the reformers—and by these we mean no particular organization or coterie, but rather the prevailing spirit which has taken hold of the ordinary mind in proportion as old issues have dwindled in importance—to put the Machine managers and "war-horses" in low spirits. He has not yielded enough to gain the confidence of the other side. When he appointed Judge Gray to the Supreme Bench there was general satisfaction and acclaim among the sober-minded and influential classes. This being one of the earliest acts of his Administration, it was taken as a standard by which his subsequent ones should be gauged and tested. It was speedily followed by the appointment of "Bill" Chandler as a member of the Cabinet. A more disreputable political trickster could not have been drummed up within the limits of North America. All the merit implied in the appointment of the new Judge

of the Supreme Court was eclipsed by the selection of the new Secretary of the Navy, and it remains an unsolved mystery to this day why such an appointment was ever made. As Chandler belonged to the faction opposed to the President, it was concluded that his elevation was part of a "deal" respecting the next nominating convention. But as the new Secretary had no votes to trade on except those of New Hampshire, while he was justly odious to the better portion of the party everywhere else, the "deal," if there was one, did not promise any remarkable dividends to Mr. Arthur, nor has it yielded any.

Patronage has been Mr. Arthur's Nemesis, and it is instructive to observe how completely the credit of an otherwise useful and respectable Administration may be wrecked by the disposition made of a few insignificant offices. In all that which relates to public measures, Mr. Arthur has been generally discreet, conservative, and just. In this regard his Administration has been more acceptable than President Garfield's seemed likely to prove at the time when Blaine was bullying Chili and seeking grounds for dispute with European Powers respecting the Panama Canal. But the appointment of a bad Collector of Customs at Philadelphia, or Boston, or Albany, or the appointment of a good one for bad reasons, will, in the present temper of the public mind, belittle and obscure the most important public services. The removal of Colonel Burt from the Naval Office in New York, for example, alienated from Mr. Arthur the major part of the independent vote of the city, and produced a most unfavorable impression throughout the State. Local squabbles about postmasters, and weighers, and surveyors having reference to the control of the party organization, leading up to the nomination of Judge Folger for Governor, and the choice of John F. Smyth as the party boss, and ending with 200,000 majority for Cleveland, put a dreadful blight upon Mr. Arthur's prospects. General good behavior and prudent administration were made of small account in comparison with this unexampled party disaster. Up to that time there was every reason to suppose that he would receive the nearly unanimous support of his own State for a renomination. Since then he has never had a chance of getting it. The moral of it all is plain enough. The conflict between the old and new systems of government is as irrepressible as the conflict between slavery and freedom was twenty-five years ago. No public man can serve both. He must choose, and abide the consequences of his choice.

A STUDY IN CITY GOVERNMENT.

THE movement in favor of suffrage in Washington is full of interest for the inhabitants of this and all other large cities. The municipal problem there is different from ours in some respects, but it involves the same fundamental difficulty—that of getting a number of elective offices well filled by means of a vote such as that of a large city must be. For many years, in fact down to Boss Shepherd's time, Washington had an old-fashioned mediæval government, with all the various "branches" that have been carefully handed down to us by the fathers, with a suffrage at least as bad as can be found in any Northern city, but different, because it was principally made up, since the war, of ignorant negroes. The city went through a process very similar to that which we know so well at the North. The "boys" ran the primaries, and the taxpayers took no thought of the morrow, and the city having begun its career as a winter capital, through an influx of rich Northern immigrants, in the fulness of time a "boss" was evolved, who got the "boys," and the primaries, and the "branches" all under his thumb, laid out wide streets and avenues, started a brisk speculation in lots, and made improvements which really converted Washington from a squalid, muddy village into an attractive city. Unfortunately, like other bosses, he did the work by dishonest means, and he used his improvements in such a way that they began to look like mere machinery to plunder with, and then the taxpayers rebelled, and the boss was "bounced."

After this unfortunate failure of popular government, a new and strange experiment was tried—stranger than anything ever resorted to in New York, or, so far as we know, in the United States. Congress established absolute government in the District. It took away the right of suffrage altogether, vested the government in a commission of three members, the most important of whom, the head of the public works, was an officer of engineers—a government, as Mr. John Cochran would say, not of laws but of men; indeed, of a military man at that. In place of a Mayor and a "legislative branch" and a Shepherd, and dozens of bureaus and heads of departments, Washington was governed solely by the late Major Twining, and a very good and honest government the Major was found to be, as long as he lived. While his life lasted the sewers were laid, and the streets lighted and paved and swept, without a ballot being cast, or a convention held, or a hall hired, or either the Republicans or the Democrats "reorganized." The city government was a despotism, and the good Major and his associates on the board were the despots. The taxpayers were mightily pleased, and went about openly congratulating each other on the loss of what is supposed to be the freeman's dearest right.

But of course this state of things could not last. One day the Major died. Whether his successor is as good a despot as he we do not know; but at any rate, the vacancy was made a pretext for raising a question as to the form of government, and a movement was set on foot to restore its liberties to the down-trodden city. This movement, it must be observed, was not got up by the taxpayers, but by that vague body known as "the people." The people, it was said, wanted popular government. They were tired of being governed by a military despotism, and wanted the ballot back again. To this it was replied that the experiment had once been tried and failed; that in fact it only resulted in plunder, and the taxpayers vehemently protested against Congress restoring suffrage.

In the midst of the discussion the matter was put to a curious kind of test. Although the right of suffrage had been taken away, the right to hold primaries had not, and once in four years both parties hold them for the purpose of sending delegates to the National Conventions. This year it was resolved by the "people" to exert a moral influence upon the whole country by sending men to Chicago who would demand that their rights should be restored. So on Monday week the Republican primaries met, and the taxpayers, pleading in their timid way fear of bodily harm, stayed at home. The result, it must be said, justified the taxpayers. The primaries were, without exception, riotous and disorderly, and with few exceptions they broke up in fights. The knife of the wronged white voter and the razor of the down-trodden African were drawn; fists, stones, and sticks were used. Many an unpopular candidate was stabbed out of the field, and in a majority of cases a "full line" not only of delegates, but contestants, was the result of the fight. The survivors were delegates to the District Convention, and as soon as that body met, the police had to be called in, and within half an hour an ambulance was sent for to carry away the wounded. This incident will probably go far to confirm Congress in the belief that, in a city like Washington, popular government merely means the right of the "boys" to levy taxes for the support of themselves and their families.

CHARLES READE.

NOTHING is more remarkable in the literary taste of our day than the extraordinary rapidity with which it changes. From the time of the publication of the first of Scott's novels, English literature has been marked by the appearance of many great writers of fiction, who have each in his different way achieved a sudden and extraordinary popularity, as to the permanence of which the most diverse opinions, so far as definite opinions exist, are now held. Among these there is none whose place is more difficult to fix than that of Charles Reade. Dickens, Thackeray, Bulwer, Disraeli, George Eliot, Trollope—from all these he was very different, and perhaps Dickens is the only one between whom and Reade a connection can be clearly traced. But this connection was rather moral than literary. The same hatred of oppression, injustice, and wrong which made Dickens almost as much a reformer of social abuses as a literary man, led Reade to expose the horrors of prison discipline and the terrors of private lunatic asylums. He differed from Dickens, however, at so many points that a comparison between the two runs great risk of misleading. Even in his philanthropy he was different. Dickens throughout his whole life was inclined to impute to the "upper classes," the well-to-do, the prosperous part of the community, an accountability for the evil which he found in the world, which to us seems exaggerated. All his sympathies were with the class from which he originally sprang. He was never able, as has been said over and over again, to draw ladies and gentlemen, and was fond of representing them as awful examples of cold-blooded selfishness. This fallacy Reade entirely avoided. His interest was in characters and situations, and the distinctions

of classes counted for very little with him, except for dramatic purposes.

At the time of his death his reputation had suffered a serious decline, owing to the fact, among others, that he appeared to have done his best work, and to have become reckless as to his position. But in the case of a writer of his importance, it is, after all, his best work which counts, and for the public which greedily devoured his novels, Reade will be remembered as the author of 'Peg Woffington' and 'Christie Johnstone,' and 'Never Too Late to Mend,' when the affectations and exaggerations of his later books have been quite forgotten. He was cursed from the first with a passion for what can only be called stage effect. He was not content with the natural vigor of a thoroughly masculine style, but he continually attempted to reinforce it by tricks and devices which were sometimes amusing, sometimes contemptible, and always weak and trivial. These were, however, it is only fair to say, closely connected with a great natural dramatic taste, which he put to use in a variety of plays more or less successful. Reade, however, cannot be considered mainly a dramatist. Even the dramatized version of 'Peg Woffington' is inferior to the original.

But after all abatements and allowances are made, there is in his best books that touch of nature, that power of sympathy and insight, that feeling for the elementary passions which sway human life, which we find in only a few great writers of fiction. His range was perhaps not very great; his heroines all bore a strong family resemblance to each other; his men were not characters taken from life, like Thackeray's, but they were made of flesh and blood, and hoped and feared and loved and struggled, so that their life was for the time our own. Who can read one of his sea stories without a share of the wild excitement with which they are filled? Who can avoid falling in love with his soft, charming, untruthful heroines? Who has not laughed over his wonderful children? Who has not grown indignant with him over the misery and cruelty and injustice produced by inhumanity and greed? Whatever may be considered the true view of the connection between morals and literary art, it is impossible in the literature of the English race to divorce the two, and, as has been already said, many of Reade's novels were marked by a distinct moral purpose. For the production of 'Griffith Gaunt,' however, he was found fault with on the score of immorality—a strange charge, as his admirers contended, but one which undoubtedly affected his standing with a public very sensitive on this point. By this book, which was a sort of *tour de force*, we do not believe he will in the long run be very much tested, any more than Thackeray's fame is likely to rest upon 'The Virginians,' or Dickens's upon 'A Tale of Two Cities.' With him, as with most other great novelists, the men and women he knows best and could paint best were those of his own day and country.

PROSPECTS OF MR. GLADSTONE'S GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, April 3.

THE close of last session left Mr. Gladstone's Ministry in a position as strong as they had ever occupied except during the first few weeks of their entrance on office, when the difficulties that were to beset them had not yet been revealed. Their party was thoroughly loyal and united, their Tory antagonists were discredited by repeated failures in debate and by internal dissensions. During the autumn and winter recess a spirited and well-sustained attack was made by Tory speakers through the country upon every part of the Government policy. But this campaign was almost without effect. The country listened, and liked the gentle excitement which repeated volleys of invective, answered promptly by ministerial speakers, supplied to it, but it did not seem to be moved by anything the Opposition said. Meantime, however, difficulties began to thicken in Egypt and the Sudan, and a vague uneasiness grew up. When the new year came, there was a general feeling that the Sudan policy had been wanting in promptitude and decision. This was partly allayed by the despatch of General Gordon; but it was renewed by the defeat of Baker and the troubles on the Red Sea coast.

The opening of Parliament did something to restore confidence, for the Government gave their explanations; and when Mr. Gladstone's policy was formally challenged by the Opposition, his powerful speech in reply, and that disposition to rally to a leader which becomes so strong under a party system, strengthened the Ministry, and appeared to give them a new lease of life. A further stimulus was supplied by the County Franchise Bill, a measure to which the whole party stood pledged, and which recalled its old contests and triumphs. In bringing it forward the Government played their best card, opening the main struggle of the session on ground which they considered the most favorable to themselves.

Meanwhile, however, two influences have been at work, both of which tend to weaken the Government, and whose force is by no means exhausted. The first is dissatisfaction with their behavior in Sudan. There are, of course, two very different views held inside the Liberal party on that subject. Some of the moderates are touched with what is called here imperialism, and would be well enough pleased to see the Government declare that they mean to hold not only the Red Sea coast, but Khartum also, while still more desirous that a protectorate over Egypt should be formally proclaimed. The Radicals, on the other hand, who see with regret that we cannot now escape from Egypt, are utterly hostile to any further responsibilities or annexations, and desire to see the whole Sudan left to its fate. But both these sections, as well as many persons who cannot well be referred to any particular section, are united by their anxiety as to Gordon's position at Khartum. Since it sent him out with full powers in the middle of January, the Cabinet has done little or nothing to support him. He has no British troops; he was not able to carry with him the sum of money supplied to him; he has to rely solely on his own gift of impressing and ruling the people. The spring is now so far advanced that it is believed to be practically impossible to despatch troops to him across the deserts. The fighting on the Red Sea coast near Suakim has done nothing to strengthen his position; and that fighting itself, undertaken against what had been supposed to be the pacific policy of the Ministry, and producing no substantial result, has only increased the prevalent impression that the Government have no settled policy, but are merely doing the best they can from day to day. I do not say that this is the case, but merely note the fact that victories have rarely been gained so creditable to the valor of our troops which have given so little pleasure at home. The chief feelings in England were admiration for the marvellous courage of our enemies, and perplexity as to why we were killing them at all. Liberals, who had denounced the Afghan war of 1878 and the Zulu war of 1879, asked themselves what they would have said if the battles of El Teb and Tamanieb had been fought by the orders of Lord Beaconsfield, and received the news of our triumph in melancholy silence. Thus the total result of the last five months of African policy has been to sap the confidence of the Ministerialists in the vigor and foresight of their leaders, and to induce many to explain their apparent indecision by the hypothesis of divided counsels. Rumors are constantly flying about that this or that group of Ministers is in conflict with the majority of the Cabinet—rumors probably incorrect in details, but which witness to the direction of men's minds.

The other cause which operates against the Government is the paralysis of the House of Commons. There has probably never been a session when it was found so hard to advance public business. The number of questions put to Ministers at the beginning of each sitting—a number which formerly rarely exceeded twenty—has now risen to an average, on Mondays and Thursdays, of sixty or seventy, and on other days of thirty. Most of these either relate to trivial matters of administration, or are repetitions of other questions put before on topics of Egyptian policy. Besides those which are printed beforehand, so many others are put on the spur of the moment that nearly two hours are usually spent, on Government nights, in answering them. Whenever a pretext can be found, some fresh debate on the Sudan is raised, while ordinary subjects, even those that are scarcely controversial, are discussed at inordinate length, sometimes by the Conservative Opposition, sometimes by the followers of Mr. Parnell. To find time for the pressing business of supply, the Ministry has been forced to encroach on the time reserved for private members, and to take the unusual course of making the House of Commons sit on Saturday. After two months, not a single bill of importance has made substantial progress, and the probability of getting a tolerable harvest of legislation has already become slender. This is of course the object of the Opposition, who, seeing a general election not far off, seek to retort upon the Government the charge, so often brought against the last Tory Government, of having neglected domestic interests. Week after week passes, and things grow worse instead of better. When the Ministry complain, the Opposition fix them with a fatal dilemma. In the autumn of 1882, a special session of Parliament was held for the purpose of amending the rules of procedure, when the Ministry carried through certain changes which they declared to be necessary to expedite business. If the new rules then passed were proper and sufficient, why do not the Ministry use them? If they were insufficient, is it not the fault of the Ministry, who with their large majority could have passed whatever rules they required? Nearly all the Liberals now admit that the new rules were insufficient; that they were aimed only at that open and coarse form of obstruction which the Irish Nationalists had used against the Coercion Bill, and do not touch the more subtle and delicate obstruction which is now incessantly practised. But the Government is ashamed to own itself mistaken, and tries to work along with the present rules, weak as they are.

Under these circumstances it is not wonderful that the Liberal party should have become more despondent than at any previous time since 1880. Nor is the despondency confined to Parliament. It has spread to the country. The sturdy Liberals of the northern towns and Scotland, though

they have never liked the expedition to Egypt, and have disliked our conduct in Sudan, do not greatly care about these foreign troubles, and would be slow to forsake the Ministry for any such cause. They have full faith in Mr. Gladstone's character and purposes. But they are astonished and disheartened at the stoppage of the Parliamentary machine. What more, they ask, could they have done than send up a majority of more than one hundred at the last general election? Why should such a majority, led by a Cabinet of brilliant men, be unable to have its way, and settle those questions which the people really care for? The first two or three sessions of this Parliament were occupied by Irish affairs. But this is the second year during which Mr. Gladstone has refused to touch Irish affairs because English and Scotch questions must have their turn. Yet little was done for England or Scotland last year, and less seems likely to be done this year. The discontent is so great that it attaches not merely to the Government, but to our Parliamentary system itself. If there were any alternative for that system, men would begin to discuss it. There is, however, none, so the complaints one hears on all sides are as useless as they are bitter.

There is, however, one ray of light in the ministerial sky. It comes, as it has often come before, from their antagonists. The Conservative leaders have shown an extraordinary incapacity, not merely for debate, but for Parliamentary strategy. They are always aiming, but they never hit. They are attacking, now here, now there, but their attacks are so ill directed as to be easily repulsed. They have so persistently refused to propound any policy, or do anything but criticise, that the country believes they have no policy to offer. Lord Salisbury is distrusted for his rashness and Sir Stafford Northcote for his flaccidity. None of the other ex-ministers has any hold on the country; and the youthful favorite of Conservative clubs, Lord Randolph Churchill, is not taken seriously by the sober men of the party. Thus it happens that even those Liberals who are most disaffected to their own chiefs do not feel drawn towards the Opposition.

It may occur to American readers that the state of matters I have described may be due to Mr. Gladstone's age and physical feebleness. It is remarkable, however, that although his age shows itself in his slower recovery from slight ailments, his mental and even bodily powers seem unimpaired. He has never spoken with more power and brilliance than in this very session, nor is there any sign of his caring less about politics or seeking to deprecate further political change. This sweeping Franchise Bill, whose second reading is still being debated at tedious length, is the best proof of his sanguine vitality. Y.

THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND. —IV.

LONDON, March 26, 1884.

WHAT is the probable outcome for good or bad of the social movement? This is an inquiry to which your readers may reasonably expect some sort of answer, in this my final letter on a subject which can hardly have been as interesting to them as it is to myself.

Two proposals recently laid before Parliament —namely, Mr. Broadhurst's bill for converting leaseholds into freeholds, and Mr. Bryce's bill for giving Scotch tourists the right to wander at their will over mountains and moorlands— are for our present purpose full of instruction. The one measure has, it is true, been rejected; the other is certain not to be passed by the present House of Commons. But they each point clearly to the kind of benefit which the social movement, or rather the prevalence of the sentiments which are the cause of that movement, may confer upon the country. Law, and still more public opinion (which is at once the cause and the result of law), will, as time goes on, compel, or rather induce, the rich to use their wealth far more than they have hitherto done with a view to promoting the interests and the pleasures of the people. I purposely use the word "induce," because the anticipated change in the mode of using property, should it ever take place, will, I am convinced, flow quite as much from an alteration in the feelings of the rich as from any increase in the political power of the poor. On this point nothing is more significant than the nature of the opposition to proposals like those made by Professor Bryce and by Mr. Broadhurst. It is no exaggeration to say that plans far less revolutionary, far less socialistic, than Mr. Broadhurst's bill would, fifty years ago, have been resisted by every man who owned an acre of land or ever hoped to have a balance of fifty pounds at his banker's, as the harbingers of revolution, confiscation, and a reign of terror. Even thirty years ago and less, my friend the Regius Professor of Civil Law would, for his "Access to Mountains Bill," have been denounced as a Socialist and the patron of an agrarian law.

The 'Life of Frederick Denison Maurice' proves, if evidence were wanted, that men who anticipated the coöperative movement were in 1849 or in 1850 considered Jacobins engaged in undermining the foundations of society. Whoever wants to see what a change has come over the convictions, not of the populace but of the well-to-do and respectable classes, should read the Attorney-General's admirable reply to Mr. Broadhurst's proposal. Sir Henry James is not a Socialist. He is hardly a Radical. He is, from his position, the official representative of what they used in France to call "law and order." What, then, is the nature of his objections to Mr. Broadhurst's proposed scheme? They are admirably-put criticisms upon the details of the bill. They show to demonstration that this bill could never pass into an act. But the Attorney-General's line of attack amounts almost to an admission that Mr. Broadhurst's object is attainable and worthy of approval. Look, again, at the general sympathy with which Mr. Bryce's bill has been received. Land-owners are put out at the energetic public spirit of the member for the Tower Hamlets. The persons who possess tracts of land in the Highlands would have preferred that he should confine his attention to the reformation of city charities. But ordinary men who consider that the land of England, after all, should be used with a view to the interests of all Englishmen, are well enough pleased that somebody should prevent Scotch mountains from being monopolized for the enjoyment of a rich and very limited class, just as merchants and tradesmen who know that it is rapidly becoming impossible to purchase a freehold in London look with no disfavor on Mr. Broadhurst's attempt to enable the thousands who live in London houses to become, on fair terms, the owners of the houses in which they live. The plain truth is, that while Englishmen are firmly attached to the system of private property, they are more and more inclined to think that property, and especially property in land, ought to be so used that many persons besides the owner should have some benefit or enjoyment from it. The ideal state of things, says a philosopher of the ancient world, is that the ownership of property should be private, but that the use of it should be public. "The state," writes F. D. Maurice, "cannot be communist, never will be, never ought to be. It is by nature conservative of individual rights, individual possession. . . . The Church, I hold, is communist in principle, conservative of property and individual rights only by accident." Each formula means at bottom one and the same thing. The existence of private property is the foundation of society. The existence of a moral feeling or religious conviction that private property must be used with a view to public benefit, and that the owners of private property may find it a happiness no less than a duty so to use it, gives the best hope of peaceful progress and of the spread of true civilization. This doctrine of philosophers is becoming a general belief, and the great benefit which the social movement in England may confer, not only upon England but upon the world, is that it may, by the influence both of law and of opinion, so mould the tenure and regulate the rights of property as to show that all that is rational in socialism may be combined with all the inestimable benefit of respect for individual rights and the strict maintenance of private ownership.

Whether the movement at present going on in England will attain its end, or, like so many other movements, either come to nothing or entirely miss its mark, no sensible observer will venture with any confidence to predict. What, however, is quite certain is, that the prevalent notion that increased interference by the state can produce great benefit to the mass of the people is likely to produce several evils, which may be evils of no small magnitude.

First. The effort to improve the condition of the people by means of state interference must, under the circumstances of English life, produce among the poor a state of feeling toward the rich which is at once bitter and, what is worse, most unjust. The easiest, perhaps the only way of arousing general attention to the existence of great evils, such, for example, as the condition of many of the dwellings in which the poor of London live or exist, is to make free use of agitation, exaggeration, and denunciation, or, in other words, to make bold statements of which the truth is far less certain than the effectiveness. Mr. Plimsoll, in this respect, is the very type of the virtuous agitator. No one can doubt his benevolence or his good intentions. Few persons who are not shipowners will deny that the sufferings the sight of which drove Mr. Plimsoll and his hearers all but mad, were and are real. But no clear-headed man can doubt that Mr. Plimsoll's well-meant though ineffective efforts to save the lives of sailors have created a widespread and most unjust belief that shipowners are, as a rule, villains who draw their riches from the reckless sacrifice of human life. Yet, as Sir Thomas Farrer has well pointed out, the prosperity of our mercantile navy is proof that in the main the merchants of Great Britain have done their duty. England enjoys the carrying trade of the world, not because British vessels are rotten and British merchants are rogues, but because, on the whole, British ships are more seaworthy, British captains are more trustworthy, British crews are more skilful, or, in other words, because British sailors are on the average exposed to fewer preventable risks than the sailors of other nations.

The agitation, again, to improve the dwellings of the poor has its birth in the success of one or two sensational publications. The "Bitter Cry" and other writings of the like nature pointed out the existence of real though (probably) decreasing evils; but they unfortunately suggested the inference that the miseries of the poor resulted in the main from the misdeeds or crimes of landowners. In these two instances, in short—and they are mere specimens of a large class—the cry for state interference is based upon and propa-

gates the delusive notion that a grievance is the same as a wrong, and that every grievance is caused by the definite fault of some assignable wrongdoer. It is hardly possible to foster a more natural and at the same time more hurtful delusion. What adds to the danger of teaching men who are poor, and therefore who, speaking generally, endure much suffering, that everything which is wrong may be attributable to some wrongdoer, is, that the condition of English political life has of itself a tendency to stimulate the mutual hostility or suspicion of large classes among the nation. Government by party—a system which has, to my mind, great merits—has the grave inconvenience that it keeps alive among party leaders a habit of factitious invective and unreal denunciation. It, moreover, makes the temptation to use the social movement as a means of political agitation almost irresistible. Lord Salisbury, I do not doubt, feels a genuine pity for the poor, but his lordship and his lordship's followers are, one may fairly assume, all the more zealous about housing the poor because a Conservative leader, and still more the followers of a Conservative leader, are glad to convince themselves and the world that the Tories and not those wicked Radicals are the true friends of the people. We cannot suppose that Cobden and Bright enjoyed the less exposing the fallacies of protection because protectionists were in England land-owners and aristocrats. And the country gentlemen who promoted the Factory Acts, though their humanity was undoubtedly shocked, and rightly shocked, at the miseries of overworked children, certainly found that the duty of denouncing cruelty was all the easier to perform because the cruelty done in factories could be attributed to the manufacturers, who were the zealous supporters of free trade in corn. The simple truth is, that party government is a system ill fitted for dealing with evils which are social rather than political, and that the existence of political partisanship considerably increases the risks of every great social movement.

Secondly. The true dangers which menace the prosperity of Great Britain are economical. A change in the course of trade would damage the country far more seriously than any conceivable alteration in the Constitution. Now, for various reasons which will easily suggest themselves to your readers, it is clear that the economical prosperity of England turns on the strictest obedience to the soundest rules of political economy. But there is nothing more probable than that, in the attempt to confer benefit on the people, the Government of Great Britain may adopt measures which every well-instructed man knows to be economically unsound; and this for two reasons. The first is, that many plausible forms of state help are in reality only protection under a new name. The second is, that on economical subjects the prejudices of the very rich and the very poor, oddly enough, in England, at least, coincide. The fallacies of socialism are nearly allied to the fallacies of protection. Chartists more than once interrupted meetings of the Anti-Corn Law League, and the reform in the poor-law was as unpopular with the squires as with the laborers. Indeed, one of the most obvious and forcible objections which can be raised to the extension of the franchise is the probability that democratic constituencies may favor alterations in the working of the poor-law. Other considerations outweigh, in my judgment, as in that of most Liberals, the argument I have mentioned, but that it has weight no honest economist can deny. We see ever before our eyes the sort of conflict which may arise between the impulses of benevolence and economical considerations. Nothing appears at first sight more just than Mr. Chamberlain's proposal to forbid the insurance of ships above their worth. But it is objected by his opponents that restrictions on insurance will greatly hamper trade, and, moreover, transfer the business of insurance from English to foreign, and especially to American, companies. Of the truth of this assertion, or of the weight which, if true, is due to it, I can form no opinion. I refer to it only as a curious example of the great difficulty of interfering with individual freedom of action, without incurring at least the risk of in some way damaging the trade of the country.

Thirdly. The greatest yet the least perceived evil resulting from any large scheme of state interference is the necessity of monopolizing the talent of the country for the service of the Government. The number of capable men which any country can produce is limited. For every man of capacity whom you have in a Government office, you have one man of capacity the less in a counting-house. To this must be added that, on the whole and with rare exceptions, the work to be done in a Government office must be work of routine. We sneer at red tape, but red tape is a useful article in its place, and its place emphatically is a Government department. The result is, that the transaction of the business of state is an employment which does not encourage originality or resource. If the talent of the country be diverted from private business into official business, the affairs of Government will, no doubt, be better managed than at present. But the nation will not after all get as much good from the talents of its most competent citizens as at present. No doubt this consideration is of rather too general or abstract a character to be of much direct immediate importance. It is one, however, which deserves attention.

All the criticisms, in short, on what I have termed the social movement, resolve themselves into this: The social movement in England represents a demand for the interference of the state in the interests of the people. The one thing which is certain is that you cannot in politics, any more than elsewhere, have your cake and eat it. You cannot hope to have the benefits at once of active state interference and of adherence to the system of laissez-faire. Now it is by adherence to this system, especially in all matters of trade, that England has obtained unexampled wealth and prosperity.

A. V. DICEY.

CARLO CATTANEO AND THE FIVE DAYS OF MILAN.

MILAN, March 23, 1884.

SIX and thirty years ago, after five days' fierce combat, the Milanese, unarmed, drove out the last Austrian from Milan. This wondrous and successful revolution was led by Carlo Cattaneo, a profound thinker and eminent philosopher, who, between 1819 and 1847, as Professor of the Lyceum of Santa Marta, and as editor of the monthly review, the *Politecnico*, and of scientific annals, had educated two generations in the principles of positive philosophy and its practical application to every-day life. Born and bred in this city, where, from 1814 to 1821, the Milanese did nothing but conspire for the overthrow of the Austrians, he, a witness of the failure of all their attempts, conceived an aversion for all unprepared revolutionary efforts. Hence, when, on the morning of the 18th of March, as he was writing the manifesto of a new paper to be entitled the *Cisalpino*, the youth whom he had taught to translate theory into practice burst into his study, exclaiming, "Master, the hour is come; guide us, and we will drive out the Austrians from Milan!"—"You have no arms," he answered, trembling at the responsibility they cast upon his shoulders. "Arms or no arms," they insisted, "with you or without you, we shall risk all; your counsels may decide the victory, your obstinacy cannot prevent the struggle." He threw his proof-sheets into his desk, and in an instant his prudential hesitation was transformed into audacious resolution. Chosen, with three other citizens, to compose a council of war, he was from first to last recognized sole captain by the people and the *jeunesse dorée* who, in kid gloves and dressed in the last Parisian fashion, just as they quitted the balls and salons, lived, fasted, and died on the barricades. How Radetzky despised those "dandies" on the 18th! How he cursed their "profound dissimulation" on the 22d! Well might he stand amazed. On the one hand the city, totally unarmed; on the other, 16,000 Austrians, armed with all that in those days rendered an army formidable, within the walls, and the four fortresses garrisoned as for a siege. For the insurgents, no communication from without, no certainty of support from Piedmont. Nothing daunted, Cattaneo set to work. He knew all the weak points of the enemy, all the chances for the insurgents; despatched short, precise orders with lightning speed; organized the barricades; found work for women and children on the roofs of the houses, and time between whiles to calm the fears of the terror-stricken aristocracy, and of the trembling, bewildered municipal authorities.

Bolza, the head of the Austrian police, the most accursed of mortals in the eyes of the Milanese, whose sons and fathers he had murdered, tortured, exiled, or imprisoned, fell into the hands of the people, who came to Carlo to decide his fate. "If you execute him, you perform an act of justice; if you spare him, you do a holy deed." And Bolza was spared. With such vigor were the Austrians assailed, that on the third day they were compelled to abandon their posts in the city, and Radetzky offered an armistice of fifteen days, which Casati, the Mayor, whose son had wept to find him hidden in a garret, was clamorous to accept. "Never!" said Cattaneo, brushing off the cobwebs from the Mayor's coat. "Even were we to sanction such cowardice, you could not tear our people from the barricades." "You could if you chose," retorted Casati. "I do not choose. For three days our tocsin has echoed among the neighboring villages and towns; if we accept an armistice, we must remain inert spectators while the Austrians murder our friends hastening to the rescue." To Radetzky's messengers Casati answered: "Signori, you will represent to his Excellency, on the one hand, the readiness of the municipal authorities to accept the armistice; on the other, the resolution of the combatants to die at their posts." To those who proposed to blindfold the messengers, Cattaneo answered, "There is nothing to hide"; and one of them, struck by the strange disparity between moral resolution and material force, turned at the gate of the city, exclaiming, "Addio, brave and dauntless people!"

Again, on the 22d, Radetzky proposed a second armistice, and the municipal authorities and the aristocracy pleaded for its acceptance, urging that it would be all in favor of the insurgents, afford them time to provision the city, which contained but food and ammunition for twenty-four hours, and time for their partisans without to come to their aid. "The enemy," answered Cattaneo, "has furnished us with food and powder so far. Twenty-four hours' feed and twenty-four hours' fast will suffice. *Del resto*, better to starve than swing." All the insurgents echoed the verdict. On the 23d, the last of the five days, the enemy fought for six hours at the bastions of Porta Josa. In the eve-

ning the citizens forced the gates and opened communication with their friends, while Radetzky commenced his precipitous flight *toward* the fortresses. Had Cattaneo's counsels still been followed those fortresses would never have been reached.

Meanwhile, a messenger arrived from Charles Albert, promising the assistance of Piedmont if the city should first be ceded to the King. "Signor Comte Enrico Martini," wrote Cattaneo from the Office of War, "the city belongs to the combatants who have freed it. We cannot now summon them from the barricades to deliberate. If Piedmont come forward generously, she will be welcomed gratefully by men of all parties and opinions. Gratitude is the only word which to-day can silence that other word, 'Republic.'" But the aristocracy, which had quailed before Austria, crouched at the feet of Charles Albert, and the history of the following weeks is summed up by Colonel Forbes: "While Radetzky was collecting bayonets, Charles Albert was collecting votes." Had the war been vigorously and instantaneously followed up—regular forces and partisan warfare combined—the Austrians, beaten and demoralized, must have quitted Lombardy, and Lombardy would inevitably have annexed herself to Piedmont. But the golden quarter of an hour was lost, and Radetzky was as keen as Garibaldi in "profiting by a fair wind." Among Cattaneo's papers are a series of letters to Sir Robert Campbell from his own correspondents at the camp. He gave them to Cattaneo with permission to publish them, without the names of the writers. They furnish absolute proof of the above assertion, and will be invaluable to the dispassionate historian of the Revolution of 1848.

By his stanch opposition to all that savored of parley or delay, Cattaneo added the hate of the Fusionists to that of the Milanese aristocracy already concentrated on his head; and though there was not a grain of vanity in his composition, though he had not sufficient personal ambition, his *amour propre* was intense, and, in common with many of his countrymen, his susceptibility rendered him thin-skinned to a degree that no American could understand. The intense hatred conceived by Cavour and the strictly Piedmontese party was carried to such a point that, even after the liberation of Lombardy in 1859, he was prevented from occupying a chair of philosophy, or even from taking part in a commission for which Signor Jacini, the president, was anxious to secure his services. He lived from 1848 until 1869 in poverty at Lugano, dying in that year in the month of February in his eyrie on the mount of Castagnola. During several years of our exile, Cattaneo's friendship was our sole solace, and Alberto Mario is now considered in Italy the representative, exponent, and disciple who completed his master's work.

I can hardly give a better idea of what Cattaneo was for his friends and his country than by translating two letters, the first from Cattaneo to Carlo Pisacane, who gave it to me on the eve of his departure for the fatal expedition of Sapri:

"December 29, 1851.

"DEAR FRIEND: The kingdom of the Burgraves of every color has fallen—*Laqueum quem posuerunt inciderunt in ipsum.* They are caught in the traps of their own police, of their own gendarmes, of their own prefects. Their own priests sing the Te Deum. Bravo, Signor Falloux! Bravo, Signor Oudinot! The Pope treats you in Pope's fashion. Despairing of curbing the Revolution, they have evoked the enemy from the tombs; but an enemy is not a friend.

"The Empire is not the *status quo*, it is incompatible with the *status quo*. It is a general unstable equilibrium. Napoleonism is a system; it is the preponderance of France in Europe. It has its own essentials, even as the circle and the triangle; and with geometry there is no compromise. In the beginning of the year we shall have the Empire, in carnival the wedding, then the struggle for the Rhine and for the Po. The 2d of December is somewhat Borgian in its style, minus dissimulation. The Man of Strasbourg, of Boulogne, of Satary, is no deceiver. 'Who is warned is half saved,' says the proverb, 'but who heeds not warning can be saved by none.' The bee-hive of the socialists was better than the nest of the vulture. The French have wearied of good, they may weary of evil.

"Well, I am past fifty. I wrap myself up in my toga and look on. You are young and a soldier. If there are eggs to be broken you should have a hand in frying them. In any case of war you should seek experience, a grade, a name; time and opportunity will not be wanting to use such gains for Italy and liberty."

The second letter is one written to me by Dr. Agostino Bertani, the day after the death of our beloved friend:

"GENOA, Feb. 17, 1869.

. . . . . .

"When, little more than two months since, Cattaneo accompanied me to the bedside of Mazzini, then seriously ill, he too was ailing; and I, moved by that scene of affection and by that meeting—a true episode of our history—contemplated sadly from the foot of the bed those two men so dear to Italy, and trembled for the life of both, and, stifling the consciousness which professional intuition forced on me, sought to divine which of the two was most enfeebled, nearest to the end. Anticipating the misery of the survivor, I redoubled my prayers and efforts to induce both to be more careful, more jealous of their lives. Cattaneo had but to trust to his robust temperament, to rest, to adopt a regimen which should repair the ravages of the depressing blood-letting system incautiously practised, and submitted to by him with too much tolerance. That evening, which I will describe to you when we meet, was a sadly solemn one for me; but I did not then believe that Carlo's ailments were so soon to destroy his life.

"Carlo's death agony was of the most painful; and from the precise movements of his hand, which moved slowly over his brow and lips, I incline to believe that he was conscious to the last, but powerless for any manifestation whatsoever.

. . . . . .

"If I could have believed in a miracle, I should have expected it in answer to my wild invocations. I cut off a lock of his hair, pressed every power of art into the service to save from oblivion the form of that so beautiful head; but at last I needs must leave him. I laid him myself in the coffin, surrounded him with flowers, and placed the cap so that the spacious brow remained uncovered; then I gave him a last kiss, and veiled the face that yet exhaled all the serenity of his soul. Finally, the fatal coffin-lid closed over our friend."

This same faithful friend and celebrated surgeon last Thursday, the 19th inst., telegraphed to me: "I am going to the Monumental Cemetery. Come." I went, and arrived at the very moment that the coffin of Cattaneo, closed by him fifteen years ago at Lugano, was being opened, in order to verify the remains before transferring them to the sarcophagus prepared in the Famedrio. To our amazement, as no embalming process had been adopted, the body was intact, the splendid form of that great Longobard head clearly outlined; death had not destroyed it, corruption had not invaded his body, as the doctors said. Without the aid of art, some unexplored virtue of nature had preserved him—presumably his having been placed in an iron coffin. The body was so rigid, that without even passing a sheet beneath it, it was lifted and deposited in the magnificent leaden coffin prepared by the municipality.

This was the private ceremony. To day, in the Famedrio of the Monumental Cemetery, the coffin containing the remains of Carlo Cattaneo was deposited in the sarcophagus-marble of Baveno, in the presence of the municipality, representatives of every Italian city, of all the democratic associations, friends from every province, and just the few left of the *vieille garde*. Bertani presented the bronze bust to the municipality of Milan; the Mayor, receiving the bust, made his speech. These speeches I spare your readers. The great fact remains, that in this beautiful Famedrio of the Monumental Cemetery of Milan, as yet, but two great Milanese sleep—Alessandro Manzoni, author of 'I Promessi Sposi,' and Carlo Cattaneo, the *vate* of the United States of Europe and Italy a federal republic.

JESSIE Va. MARIO.

THE LITERARY REMAINS OF MME. DUPIN.

PARIS, March 27, 1884.

COUNT GASTON DE VILLENEUVE has in his possession the portfolio of Mme. Dupin, the friend of Voltaire, of Rousseau, of Montesquieu, of Mably, of the Duc de Richelieu, of so many other illustrious men of the last century. This portfolio, in red morocco, full of letters and of inedited manuscripts, was left to him by his father, who had received it himself from his father, Count René de Villeneuve, grandson by marriage of Mme. Dupin. The portfolio had remained intact for nearly a century, and nothing had come out of it. It does not contain, unfortunately, all the autographs and letters of Mme. Dupin. At the time of the Revolution, the curé of Chenonceaux burned many, fearing that some of the letters might be dangerous for the correspondents of Mme. Dupin.

We find constantly the name of Mme. Dupin in the memoirs of Fontenelle, of Mme. du Deffand, of Duclos, of Rousseau. Her portrait by Nattier (which has been engraved and prefixed to the volume just edited by M. de Villeneuve) explains the extraordinary charm of her person: her features were of a classic purity, at the same time her face had the peculiar delicacy and the winning charm of the beauties of the eighteenth century. She was a daughter of a commissioner-general of the navy at Dunkirk, M. Louis Guillaume de Fontaine. Her mother was on her way from the watering place of Bourbonne-les-Bains, with her eldest daughter, the Marchioness of Barbancois, when the illness of the Marchioness obliged her to stop at Châteauroux, where she received the hospitality of M. Claude Dupin, who was the receiver of taxes. A great friendship was formed during the long illness of Mme. de Barbancois. M. Dupin made a visit to his new friends in Paris, and saw the second daughter of Mme. de Fontaine, who had just left the convent. He was a widower; he was already forty-two years old, and had a son fifteen years old, who became M. Dupin de Francueil, the great friend of Mme. d'Épinay. M. Dupin had just been named receiver-general of finance in the three Bishoprics (Metz, Toul, and Verdun), and in Alsace; he married in 1724 the young Louise, who was only seventeen years old. He was soon afterwards named *fermier-général*, on the recommendation of Samuel Bernard, who was one of the admirers of Mme. de Fontaine, and the putative father of Mme. Dupin.

The *fermiers-généraux* played in the society of the eighteenth century a very important part. Their wealth allowed them to patronize the arts; they admitted literary people into their houses. M. Dupin bought the famous Hôtel Lambert, in the Île Saint-Louis (now inhabited by Prince Czartoryski), and opened his salon to the philosophers, the *beaux-esprits*, the foreigners of distinction. Mme. Dupin, distinguished by her brilliant intellect as well as by her beauty, became one of the queens of fashion. She chose, as a sort of spiritual director and adviser, an old man, the Abbé de Saint-Pierre, famous for his theories on "uni-

versal peace." She had many friends, and she had no lover; surrounded with men and women who almost all had *liaisons*, and who professed no great regard for the conjugal tie, she remained to the end devoted to her husband.

M. Dupin bought, in 1725, from the Duc de Bourbon, the estate and the old château of Chenonceaux. Built on the river Cher, this château, one of the finest of the French Renaissance, had been inhabited by Francis I., by Henri II., by Diane de Poitiers, by Catherine de Médicis. The Dupins lived in great style at Chenonceaux. Young Dupin de Francueil (the son of M. Dupin by his first marriage, who had assumed the name of Francueil, a village of the estate) had a troop of thirty musicians and a theatre. Sometimes the dancers of the opera at Paris came to dance a ballet. The Duc d'Orléans, the son of the Regent; the Duc de Penthièvre (the son of the Comte de Toulouse, who was one of the illegitimate children of Louis XIV. and Mme. de Montespan), paid visits to Chenonceaux. The Choiseuls were among the visitors, during their exile at Chanteloup. M. Dupin also bought the Château de Blanc, near Chenonceaux, of Mme. de Parabère, the friend of the Regent.

Six years after her marriage Mme. Dupin had her first son, Jacques Armand Dupin de Chenonceaux. She made soon afterwards the acquaintance of Rousseau in Paris, and took him for her secretary. Rousseau collected for her the elements of some literary works which she prepared—among others, a vindication of women and of their rights. She soon discovered that she had inspired a passion in the inflammable Rousseau. She dismissed him; but he wrote such humble letters to her and to M. Dupin, and she felt so sure of her own virtue, that she condescended to keep him in her service.

Dupin asked Rousseau to draw up a plan of education for his son, M. de Chenonceaux; this plan is published, with the letters of Rousseau, in the volume which is before us. The document is a curious one. Rousseau begins by making a protest against corporal punishments (which were still used in the eighteenth century with children). He attacks the system of classical education, and objects to the teaching of any religious dogma. The memoir is as full of fallacies and illusions as 'Émile.' The key-note will be found in this phrase: "What is the object of the education of a young man? It is to make him happy." Rousseau established in one of the pavilions of the château a cabinet of natural history and a laboratory of chemistry for his pupil; he soon found that the sciences did not captivate the young man any more than the classics. Armand thought of nothing but pleasure, and when he was twenty his parents thought it well to marry him. Mme. Dupin took the young couple with her to Paris and to the country. Rousseau speaks well of the young Mme de Chenonceaux, and says that it was at her recommendation that he undertook to write the code of education called 'Émile.'

M. de Chenonceaux had not inherited the intellect of his father and mother; he was an adventurous spirit and a gambler. In one single night he lost 700,000 livres, and the Hôtel Lambert was mortgaged in order that this debt should be paid. Mme. Sand, in her 'Histoire de ma Vie,' relates a conversation which she had with her cousin, Count René de Villeneuve. "M. de Chenonceaux, my great uncle," said he to her, "and my grandfather, M. de Francueil, devoured seven or eight millions at that time." After the most extraordinary adventures, after having exhausted every form of human folly, M. de Chenonceaux left for the Île de France, and died there of yellow fever on the 3d of May, 1767.

Mme. Dupin, during all her troubles, found some solace in literature. She showed extreme kindness to Rousseau, and helped him and his family in every circumstance; she was one of the few persons whom he did not abuse. "I only left the Dupins," says he, in his 'Confessions,' "in order to live in liberty. They never ceased to manifest their friendship for me, and I was always sure to be well received by Mme. Dupin." M. Dupin only survived his son Chenonceaux by eighteen months: he died in Paris at the age of eighty-three, in a hôtel of the rue Plâtrière, which he had bought after the sale of the Hôtel Lambert. Mme. Dupin spent her life in Paris in winter, and in summer at Chenonceaux. Her property was still large, and she managed it herself with much ability. When the Revolution broke out, and when almost all her friends fled from France, she buried herself at Chenonceaux with her friend, the handsome Countess of Forcalquier. Her charity was unbounded, and she probably owed her life to the good works which had made her popular in Berri. She lived to the advanced age of ninety-three, and died on the 20th of November, 1799, without the slightest pain, in her great drawing-room at Chenonceaux.

The manuscripts of Mme. Dupin, which are published in the volume edited by M. de Villeneuve, belong to what may be called the school of sensibility. There is not much in them that deserved to be published; not much that remains in the mind of the "Ideas on Happiness." You will recognize the influence of the philosophical school in such maxims as, "Pleasure is the first incentive of human actions." "I would diminish the valuation of reason; it is a great gift of heaven, but I would also give to pleasure what belongs to it; we have it from the same hand as reason, and both are necessary to us." There are some happy and ingenious thoughts mixed up with these commonplace maxims. The same may be said of the "Ideas on Friendship," the manuscript of which is in the hand of Rousseau, who wrote under the dictation of Mme. Dupin, and sometimes was allowed to make corrections and changes. These "Ideas" may be almost considered as the work of collaboration. Rousseau was the worst friend that ever existed; Mme. Dupin was an excellent friend, full of indulgence and kindness. We find also in the volume "Ideas on Education," an essay on the sentiments of the soul, a philosophical letter to a lady friend, a collection of detached maxims.

After these short essays of Mme. Dupin's, which do not rise above the common level of the easy literature of the eighteenth century, the volume contains what remains of her correspondence, with notices of her correspondents, which were, perhaps, useless. It seems rather extraordinary to be served with notices of the Abbé de Saint-Pierre, of Voltaire, of Rousseau, of Montesquieu, of Mably. The editor evidently exaggerates the ignorance of his public. The Abbé de Saint-Pierre was one of the most faithful correspondents of Mme. Dupin. The good Abbé made a portrait of Mme. Dupin, under this title: "Plotina, amiable, estimable, and happy." He modestly compares it to the portrait of Émilie (who was his own mother), by Saint-Évremond. There is not much to say of the "Reflections on some Works of Imagination, in which Imagination has no part," the manuscript of which is also in the hand-writing of Rousseau, nor of the other manuscripts of the Abbé, found in the portfolio of Mme. Dupin. The good Abbé was fond of great schemes, and he was absolutely unpractical. His plans of social reform are mere dreams, and dreams without originality. He was the most amiable of men; he was also the poorest of the philosophers. There are eight letters of Voltaire to Mme. Dupin in the volume of M. de Villeneuve. Voltaire liked her, and admired her *esprit*. He sends to her in a letter the plan of the tragedy of "Alzire," and of a "Discours en vers sur les événements de 1744"; he sends her also a "Panegyric of Saint Louis," a "Poem on Natural Religion," in four cantos, dedicated to the Duchess of Saxe-Gotha, the sister of the good Frederic (these two poems are found in the works of Voltaire). "I am much afraid," says Voltaire in a letter from Potsdam, "that my maladies will soon render me incapable of living near the King of Prussia and near you. I feel that my condition will oblige me to renounce society completely, but I shall always regret your society." There are some letters of Voltaire, written at the time when M. Dupin wrote a criticism of some parts of the 'Esprit des Lois,' of Montesquieu. Voltaire was then in Switzerland, at Ferney. "I have always thought," says he to Mme. Dupin, "that the 'Esprit des Lois' was full of imagination, that there are very amusing parts, that the author is often mistaken, and that Mme. du Deffand was quite right when she said that it was 'de l'esprit sur les lois, et non pas l'esprit des lois.' Still, with all its defects, the book will always be dear to our nation. It speaks perpetually against three things which the public does not like much: despotism, priests, and taxes."

The latter part of the volume consists of letters from Rousseau and unpublished manuscripts of the famous philosopher, with letters of Montesquieu, Mably, Mairan, the Comte de Tressan, Mme. de Tencin, the Abbé d'Olivet, Mme. de Mirepoix, the Duc de Richelieu, Ruthière, the Comte d'Argenson. This collection, on the whole, deserves to find its place in the library of all the amateurs of the literature of the eighteenth century.

Correspondence.

A PLANK FOR THE CHICAGO PLATFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is plain to every thinking man that the Republican party, if it hopes to win, must leave no room for doubt as to its entire loyalty to the principles of civil-service reform. Would it not then be well for Republican clubs, associations, and conventions throughout the country to follow the example of the Young Men's Republican Club of Baltimore, in resolving that the delegates to Chicago ought to be instructed to do all they can to have a plank put in the national platform endorsing the action of a Republican Congress in passing, and a Republican administration in enforcing, the Civil-Service Reform Act; and pledging the party to extend the principles of that measure to all branches of the Federal, State, and municipal governments?

R.

Baltimore, April 10, 1884.

A COINCIDENCE THAT HAS A CAUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your pleasant reference to my pamphlet upon "The Glacial Boundary in Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky," humorously suggesting a coincidence between the present centre of population of the United States and the glaciated area of Kentucky, your readers may be led to infer that the coincidence in Ohio between the glacial boundary and the southern line of wheat production is of a like capricious or accidental character; whereas, the uniform productiveness of the glaciated area in Ohio is a direct result of the glaciation to which it has been sub-

jected, and so the coincidence comes to be an important confirmation of the accuracy of the limits assigned by me to the operation of the supposed cause. The relation of the glacial period to the formation of our fertile prairies is as yet but partially appreciated. The forthcoming report of Professor Chamberlin will doubtless shed much light on the subject.

Yours truly, G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

OBERLIN, O., April 11, 1884.

EXCESSIVE LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been waiting with patience for "G. B.'s" deliverance upon the discussion concerning over-legislation going on in your columns. It appears to me that he is losing an admirable chance to apply his pet theory of "responsible government." But as he does not see fit to avail himself of the opportunity, I make bold to do it for him. Perhaps, as a Canadian, living under "responsible government," both in Dominion and in Provincial matters, I am more alive to its advantages than any outsider can be. (Possibly, I may say in passing, "G. B." might find some advantage in examining the working of his favorite method of government with us as not only much nearer him, but socially far more resembling his own country than England does).

It seems very clear to me that your glut of legislation, and its too frequent poorness in quality, result directly from the facts that your legislators have nothing else to do but to legislate, and that there is no one, or no body, chargeable with a general responsibility for the legislation of the session. Your Assemblies and Congress meet almost solely to make laws and grant money; our Parliament and Provincial Assemblies really come together, as much as for any other purpose, to overhaul the conduct of the Government for the past year, and to shape their policy for the coming one. Our legislator does not need to father some popular bill to make a name and please his constituents. If he makes two or three good speeches for or against the Government' and votes right on all party divisions, he has done all that is expected of him. All really heavy bills are taken charge of by the Government. They put them in proper shape and see to their passage through the House. Bagehot has pointed out that what he terms the "elective" function of an English member of Parliament is much more important than his legislative one. He says:

> "At the end of half the sessions of Parliament, you will read in the newspapers and you will even hear from those who have looked close at the matter, and should know better, 'Parliament has done nothing this session. Some things were promised in the Queen's speech, but they were only little things; and most of them have not passed.' Lord Lyndhurst used for years to recount the small outcomings of legislative achievement; and yet those were the days of the first Whig Government, who had more to do in legislation, and did more, than any other government. The true answer to such harangues as Lord Lyndhurst's by a minister should have been in the first person. He should have said firmly, 'Parliament has maintained Me, and that was its greatest duty. Parliament has carried on what, in the language of traditional respect, we call the Queen's Government; it has maintained what, wisely or unwisely, it deemed the best executive of the English nation.'"

The difference in the two systems is emphasized in the manner in which the two legislatures are regarded by the people at large. If I can judge from what I see in your papers, the assembling of Congress is looked upon with dread and anxiety. There is no telling what mischief it may be at. Your State Assemblies have grown to be a nuisance only to be tolerated once in two years. With us it is not so. The meeting of our legislative bodies is looked forward to with eagerness. The Government has been doing a variety of things since the last session. It is believed to have several important matters to ask a Parliamentary sanction for. Its opponents are eager to get it before the House, to move for papers to attack it. Its friends are anxious to see what defence is to be made of what has been done, and what new moves are to be made. Biennial sessions would not be dreamed of with us. Consequently our Parliamentary sessions are animated and interesting, and yet our statute-book shows but comparatively little legislation. BLUENOSE.

HALIFAX, April 7, 1884.

DIVORCES IN THE STATE OF THE MARRIAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In speaking of the bill reported by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate for the collection of statistics relating to marriage and divorce, you say: "In nine cases out of ten, when the time for divorce comes, it is not the State of the marriage to which application is made, but some other State." Something like this opinion is very common, though perhaps few venture to put the ratio so high as "in nine cases out of ten."

A great deal of inquiry has led me for a long time to think that, except perhaps in the extreme West, the number of divorces granted to persons who are not in good faith residents of the State where they seek divorce, is much exaggerated. A judge of Detroit has caused a careful analysis to be made of the divorces granted in Wayne County, Michigan, for the last six months of 1883. Of the 130 couples divorced in that period, 48 were married in the city of Detroit, and 36 others in Michigan. In this instance, then, 84 couples, or 65 per cent., were married in the State where they obtained their divorce. According to the last census, about one-half of the population of the county were born in the State. I also find that 10 of these 130 were married in New York, 9 in Canada, 8 in Ohio, 4 in England, 5 in Germany, 1 in Ireland, and 1 "unknown," and these numbers correspond pretty well with the percentage of inhabitants born in these several countries. When we remember that Canadians are said to come into the States both for marriage and divorce, and that Detroit is especially well situated to invite them for these purposes, these figures are surprising. They are the only statistics I recall in which the place of the marriage is given—a very important fact, and one easily obtained from the libels for divorce, but for the want of which we are liable to great error both of opinion and of action based on assumptions which may turn out to be largely wrong. Of course, this is but one county, and may be exceptional, though I see no reason why it should make an unfair showing in respect to the point in question.

The evils from conflicting divorce laws are grave enough, but I find, on closely questioning those best informed, that in counties where there are no great cities, most of the parties seeking divorces are known to be residents in good faith. For obvious reasons, the evils are greater and more apparent in the larger cities. But these contain less than one-fourth the population. It is a matter of congratulation to all friends of social order that Congress is likely to give us the facts on this important subject in place of the guesses we have all had to make.

Your remark about the mischief due to the enormous number of courts authorized to grant divorces seems to deserve more consideration than has been given to the point.—Yours,

SAMUEL W. DIKE.

ROYALTON, VT., April 10, 1884.

ALIEN SUFFRAGE AND THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In point of distance traversed and numbers involved, the peaceful Wandering of the Nations to-day is more remarkable than the bloody Wandering of fifteen centuries ago; moreover, its political significance promises to be little less.

Our country bows meekly beneath the scourge of excessive immigration, and instead of repealing the laws that invite foreigners to a share in our Government, we have gradually granted them more and greater privileges, until we have actually come to the pass of giving the right of suffrage in thirteen States to aliens who have simply "legally declared their intention to become citizens of the United States." This right is given in each of these States by the State Constitution. Their names and other data are given in the following table:

When admitted to the Union.	Names of States permitting aliens to vote.	How long before voting alien must have resided in U. S.	How long before voting alien must have resided in State.	How long before voting alien must have made "declaration of intention."
1819	Alabama..	.....	One year.	.....
1836	Arkansas..	.....	" "	.....
1876	Colorado..	.....	Six months.	Four months
1845	Florida....	.....	One year.	.....
	Georgia....	.....	Six months.	.....
1861	Kansas....	.....	" "	.....
1837	Michigan..	.....	Two years and six months.	.....
1858	Minnesota.	One year.	Four months.	.....
1821	Missouri.	.....	One year.	Not less than one year or more than five years.
1867	Nebraska..	.....	Six months.	Thirty days.
1859	Oregon....	One year.	" "	One year.
1845	Texas.....	.....	One year.	.....
1848	Wisconsin	.....	" "	.....

On examining this table, we find that one of the original thirteen States and twelve out of the seventeen States admitted to the Union since 1819 permit unnaturalized foreigners to vote; that it is possible for them to cast a ballot in four States six months after arrival, in eight States one year after arrival, and in one State two years and six months after arrival; and that Missouri alone of them all qualifies this permission by any reference to ultimate naturalization.

When we consider further that Florida and Georgia adopted their present Constitutions determining the right of suffrage in 1868, Arkansas hers in 1874, Alabama, Missouri, and Nebraska theirs in 1875, Colorado and Texas theirs in 1876, and that the dates of the constitutional amendments determining the rights of suffrage in Minnesota and Michigan are respectively 1868 and 1870—when we consider these facts, and see how recently the whole question has been laid before the people in the ten States above mentioned, then first do we begin to comprehend the strength of alien influence among us to-day.

Some of these States have gone a step further in their concessions to unnaturalized foreigners. They are eligible to either branch of the State Legislature in Alabama, Florida, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Wisconsin, and even to the office of Governor in Kansas.

Romulus himself did not hold out so many inducements to immigration as Kansas does, for, while he opened his gates to everybody, "and no questions asked," he at least kept the governorship in his own hands.

Naturalized foreigners can vote in all the States immediately, or almost immediately, after receiving their naturalization papers. They are likewise eligible to all State offices.

These privileges are conferred by the Constitutions of thirty-six States and by statute in two, viz.: New Hampshire and Vermont.

Massachusetts for a brief period interposed an interval of two years between naturalization and the ballot-box, but that was twenty years ago.

The second section of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States is interesting in this connection. It reads as follows:

"But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the Executive and Judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied *to any of the male inhabitants of such State being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States*, or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State."

It is universally admitted that this section does not prevent the State's making the payment of poll taxes and other taxes a condition precedent to the right of suffrage, or limiting the suffrage by educational and property qualifications, and no less universally admitted that it does prevent their withholding the ballot from a foreigner after naturalization, provided he complies with all the conditions prescribed to native voters. It were well worth while to determine whether the interpretation of the Fourteenth Amendment in this latter particular is correct, and it is unfortunate that of all the thirty-eight States only New Hampshire and Vermont can do so by simple act of legislature. Nothing of the sort, however, can be expected of New Hampshire, where the two parties are evenly matched and wary of new issues; but the Republicans command such an immense majority in Vermont that, were they so disposed, they might easily pass a suffrage law discriminating against naturalized foreigners. This done the matter would probably sooner or later reach the Supreme Court.

It is vain to attempt to establish the old order of things by substituting in the Fourteenth Amendment the phrase *native citizens of the United States* for "citizens of the United States," because the thirteen States favoring alien suffrage would undoubtedly oppose such substitution, and it would thus be impossible to obtain the concurrence of two-thirds of the States requisite for amending the Constitution. They would as successfully and more vehemently oppose a Sixteenth Amendment excluding unnaturalized foreigners from the polls, yet such an amendment it behooves us to have if the United States can dictate to the States at all in the premises. E. E.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 10, 1884.

WALTER SCOTT'S PRESBYTERIANISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Macmillan's Magazine* for March, 1884, has a very entertaining review, by Sir Francis Doyle, of Mr. Robert Ormsby's recently published memoirs of the eminent English lawyer, Mr. James Hope-Scott, of Abbotsford. In discussing Mr. Hope Scott's union with the Roman Catholic Church the reviewer remarks:

"I cannot help smiling when I think how that gallant *old Presbyterian*, Sir Walter Scott, had he been suddenly called back, would have stared and grumbled to find himself surrounded in his beloved Protestant castle by a swarm of black gowns and tonsured heads."

It seems strange that a writer as familiar with literary history as the author of this review must be should have fallen into the error of supposing Sir Walter Scott to have been a Presbyterian. Apart from any direct statement, the indirect evidence of his attachment to the Scottish Episcopal Church, which is in agreement in doctrine and polity with the Church of England, is very strong. Thus, after Sir Walter's return to Abbotsford during his last illness, Lockhart says that on a Sunday evening "he heard the church service, and when I was about to close the book said: 'Why do you omit the visitation of the sick?' which I added accordingly." And at his funeral at Dryburgh Abbey, his biographer says further, that "Mr. Archdeacon Williams read the burial service of the Church of England." But in addition to this indirect evidence, it is expressly stated by Lockhart that Sir Walter "took up early in life a repugnance to the mode in which public worship is conducted in the Scottish establishment, and *adhered to the sister church*, whose system of government and discipline he believed to be the fairest copy of the primitive polity, and whose litanies and collects he reverenced as having been transmitted to us from the age immediately succeeding that of the Apostles." And so it is quite apparent that though, in consequence of having been born of Presbyterian parents, Sir Walter was once a young Presbyterian, yet he certainly never was an "*old* Presbyterian." S. C. CHEW.

BALTIMORE, April 8, 1884.

"DIE ENTFÜHRUNG AUS DEM SERAIL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 6 the reviewer of Dr. Gehring's life of Mozart says: "Very curious are the opinions passed on an earlier opera, 'Die Entführung aus dem Serail,' which has now almost completely disappeared from the stage, as its music appears too 'thin' for modern taste. In 1782 it was judged differently." And he then quotes the well-known anecdote of the Emperor Joseph finding too many notes in the opera, and Mozart replying, "Exactly as many notes as are necessary, your Majesty." (This anecdote, by the way, is also told of Napoleon and Cherubini, the music in question being written in commemoration of the death of General Hoche.)

The statement made by your reviewer that "'Die Entführung' has now almost completely disappeared from the stage" is very far from the truth, so far as the German theatres are concerned. It is given in Vienna with Frau Wilt as *Constanze:* the second *bravour-arie* has been cut out, and an aria from "Così fan tutte" has been given to *Belmonte;* between the first and second acts the "Rondo alla Turca" in A moll is played, the instrumentation being by Herbeck.

In Leipsic the opera is still given, and here in Berlin this winter it has been sung several times with Lilli Lehmann as the heroine; and the Berlin critics, instead of finding the music "thin," rejoice in its freshness and exquisite grace. I have no doubt but that it is to be seen and heard in other German cities, but I cannot personally bear witness. Three or four years ago it was sung in London, Sembrich taking the part of *Constanze.* Surely this is not an "almost complete disappearance from the stage."

Your reviewer—perhaps without intention—gives his reader to understand that "Die Entführung" was not a success in a popular or artistic sense even in 1782. Saying that it was "judged differently" then—*i. e.*, that it was not considered "thin"—he quotes two slurs of the Emperor Joseph. Now this opera, given for the first time the 12th of July, in two days brought in 1,200 florins to the treasury. It was difficult to get a seat in the theatre at the representations. In October it was given for the benefit of the Grossfürst, and Mozart, as he wrote his father in that month, sat at the clavier and directed, "finding it good to do so, partly because I can then wake up the orchestra when they nod a little, and partly because I can show myself as the father of my child to the nobility present." Before this, in August, at Gluck's wish, it was performed expressly for his enjoyment, and the old master gave Mozart many compliments and invited him to dinner. The opera not only gave Mozart a sure footing in Vienna, but it spread his fame throughout Germany, and Prague, Leipsic, Hamburg, and Berlin were as enthusiastic as Vienna. Goethe, in his correspondence with Zelter (ii., 121), tells of his own attempt to furnish a libretto for his friend Christoph Kayser to set to music, and, after speaking of the faults of their "Singspiel," called "Scherz, List, und Rache," adds that all their efforts went for naught as soon as Mozart appeared upon the scene. "'Die Entführung,'" he writes, "knocked everything to the ground, and there was never afterward at the theatre any talk of our so carefully prepared composition."

Jahn, in his 'Mozart' (vol. iii., pp. 79–128, ed. 1858), shows at length the importance of the "Entführung" in the history of the growth of German opera, and in the appendix to the same volume are to be found specimens of contemporaneous criticism, interesting in the extreme. It is a pity that the new English translation of Jahn's invaluable work is a translation of the much-abbreviated second edition—a work perhaps more popular than the first, but of much less value to the musician.

Your reviewer seems to have some respect for Weber as an opera composer, and it may interest him to know that this same Karl Maria Weber, in a letter written in 1818, speaks of "Die Entführung" as "glowing with the wanton fire of youth—a creation very dear to me." "I believe," says Weber, "that in this opera Mozart's artistic skill had reached its maturity, and afterward he only advanced in world-knowledge. The world had a right to expect more 'Don Juans' and 'Figaros' from him; but, with the best of intentions, Mozart could not have written another 'Entführung.'"—Respectfully, PHILIP HALE.

BERLIN, March 24, 1884.

[The statement that "Die Entführung" has "almost completely disappeared from the stage" was based on the fact that the present writer, during a residence of more than four years (since 1876) in Munich, Berlin, Vienna, and other German cities, had not a single opportunity to hear this opera. Our correspondent's evidence does not disprove our qualified remark. The Germans seldom allow works that were once popular to remain entirely neglected, but revive them at intervals for their historic interest, this being one of the useful functions of a state-supported opera-house. In Vienna "Die Entführung" was revived in 1880, together with several other operas, in the "Mozart cyclus." Neither here nor elsewhere has it remained a regular "Répertoire Oper," like "Don Juan," "Figaro," "Faust," "Lohengrin," etc. The 'Allgemeiner Deutscher Musiker-Kalender' for 1884 gives a complete list of the operas performed in Berlin during the season 1882-3, in which "Figaro," "Don Juan," "Schauspieldirector," "Magic Flute," and "Titus" are mentioned with 7, 5, 3, 3, and 3 performances respectively. "Die Entführung" was not given at all. The question as to whether the music is "too thin" is a matter of taste and opinion. The Berlin critics may "rejoice in its freshness," but the Berlin critics have always been half a century behind the age, owing to the

fact that their operatic managers have from time immemorial always waited before accepting a new opera until all the other Germans knew it by heart, and even then they have not accorded it, in recent cases, anything more than a slovenly performance.—Ed. Nation.]

CLASSICAL EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps you will excuse my troubling you with a few words about classical education, when you learn that I (in common, apparently, with all other contributors) think that most that has been said on the subject has been very inadequate. Various writers take one side or the other, each for reasons of his own; but I have as yet seen no attempt to reconcile the claims offered by scientific and by classical training.

This reconciliation can be best found, I think, in a historic examination of education. Abstract arguments, like those of "Teacher of German" in your issue of April 3, may weigh on one side or the other; but the true value of all systems is shown conclusively only by the experience of mankind, which s eadily leads to the survival of the fittest in education as in everything else. Most persons will agree to this in the abstract; but the mistake yet commonly made, especially by the "votaries of the college fetish," is to suppose that what has survived till now will continue unchanged. But if this question were put to the "votaries": "Do you expect that in a million years or so from now, the millions of young then being educated will be still engaged on Greek and Latin?" I fancy most of them would be somewhat startled and not inclined to answer in the affirmative immediately. Nevertheless, they constantly put themselves out of the line of historical advance by contending either that there should be no change, or that any change made should be toward increased study of the classics. The fundamental truth that education is relative only, is constantly overlooked by the champions both of science and the classics.

The fact is that the classics have been constantly taking a lower place in the past, and it is plain that this tendency will continue in the future, for the reason that their value, great as it is, must grow less and less conspicuous among the achievements of the world. An acknowledgment of this undeniable fact does not lead us, as many of the scientific champions imagine, to the conclusion that the study of the classics should be summarily discarded. It rather leads us to think that they should still have a large place in the study of the scholar and in the education of the young.

To most readers will probably occur the further inquiry, Does this mean that a study of the classics should form a part, more or less conspicuous, in each college man's education, or only in the collective culture of the whole? There will be disagreement on this point; most of those who have witnessed only the ordinary system will probably take the former alternative. But it seems clear to your present correspondent that the inevitable tendency is toward increased divergence of individual pursuits. In the language of the great philosopher of Evolution, the tendency is "from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to a definite, coherent heterogeneity." (A study of the first expression in its present application will repay classical "votaries".) A more tangible statement of it to those who, with Mr. Matthew Arnold, have an extremely "indefinite" conception of this irresistible law, is this: increasing specialization of employment must necessarily lead to divergence of preparation. And perhaps those to whom this also is not convincing will perhaps see something in the analogy of education to commerce, in which *the highest good results from free competition*—a principle that will be as valuable in education as in the government of trade; arbitrarily prescribed courses of study being strictly analogous to "protection." Of course men like Mr. Arnold (who settles the Evolutionists by a quotation from Homer) will see nothing in this. But to some, as to me, the considerations hinted at appear decisive; and they are accordingly led to the conclusion that the classics should be elective, and in this is found the only possible reconciliation between these opposing claims. With freedom of choice the demands of society for each kind of culture will be met with the desired supply. In this university every one can testify to the excellent results of changes made in the way indicated.

A further inquiry may be suggested, though its scope is too great for discussion here. How soon in education will this divergence appear—college, high school, or primary? And to how many branches of study will it extend? It seems to me that this is a problem that merits great attention. My own opinion is that the adaptation to individual choice will gradually extend until it reaches the very beginning and embraces all subjects. That, however, will certainly take a long time.—Yours respectfully,

A.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, April 7, 1884.

Notes.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready Nohl's 'Life of Liszt,' translated by G. P. Upton, with a portrait; and Topelius's historical romance, 'Times of Linnæus,' in the "Surgeon's Stories" series.

The Delegates of the Clarendon Press propose to issue a series of Old Latin Biblical texts from manuscripts which are unpublished or have been inadequately edited, all under the general superintendence of Professor John Wordsworth, of Brasenose College. The first of the series, edited by Professor Wordsworth, gives the Gospel of Matthew according to the St. Germain MS., numbered Lat. 11,553, in the National Library at Paris, and marked *g* by Tischendorf. The editor is of opinion, from collation with other MSS., that the text is Old Latin, with corrections after the Vulgate. It offers a good deal that is interesting in its readings, its orthography, and its punctuation, and the satisfactory way in which the editorial work is done puts its material clearly before the student. The introduction and appendices give the history and characteristics of the MS., with valuable explanatory remarks. It was highly esteemed by Bentley, and collated by his coadjutor John Walker, and will be welcomed in this complete form by students of the New Testament text.

We have received the third volume of Schaff's 'Religious Encyclopædia, or Dictionary of Biblical, Historical, Doctrinal, and Practical Theology, based on the *Real-Encyklopädie* of Herzog, Plitt, and Hauck' (Funk & Wagnalls), already reviewed in these columns. This volume completes the work, in advance of the revised edition of the German original, which has not yet reached the letter S. The American editor has had the benefit of several advanced sheets of that letter, but for the remaining titles he has had to use the last seven volumes of the first German edition. Half of the third English volume, however, is made up of original matter. A new and greatly enlarged list of contributors is attached, as well as a number of neatly-executed maps of Bible lands, and a list of "Errata and Addenda to the First and Second Volumes," which, we are pleased to see, has scrupulously profited by the critical remarks of our review.

Few theological critical writers enjoy a higher reputation for comprehensive and sound scholarship than Prof. Edward Reuss, of the University of Strassburg; yet, so far as we know, the first English rendering of any of his works, in French or German, is David Hunter's translation from the second French edition of his 'History of the Canon of the Holy Scriptures in the Christian Church' (E. P. Dutton). It will make the name of the veteran author more widely known among English and American friends of Biblical inquiry, and awaken a desire for an acquaintance with his larger publications, among which his voluminous Bible work ('La Bible: traduction nouvelle avec introduction et commentaire') occupies the foremost place. This highly valuable publication is as yet unfinished, while the author is just completing the eightieth year of his active life.

From Milwaukee we have received an English "school and family edition," in neat print and binding, of 'The Pentateuch,' published by Adolph Moses and Isaac S. Moses. It is evidently destined for use in Hebrew schools. It is, judging from a hasty comparison, a reproduction of the Authorized Version, with the exception of the poetical pieces, the rendering of which follows more recent translations by Jewish writers.

Mr. Christern has received the prospectus of a new Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities, just beginning to be published by R. Oldenbourg, Munich and Leipzig. Its full title is 'Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums zur Erläuterung des Lebens der Griechen und Römer in Religion, Kunst und Sitte.' It will appear in three volumes, under the editorship of A. Baumeister. The illustrations will be the special feature, and will be both numerous and fresh, the engraving being largely by a "process" of uncommon excellence and fidelity. Some 200 will be full page, some 700 will occupy half a page, and 500 will be scattered through the text.

From the same source we derive a catalogue (Part I.) of the library of the late Dr. J. Court, to be sold in Paris in the rue Drouot on May 8–10. Its richness in works relating to America (early voyages and histories) makes it well worth the attention of collectors.

Messrs. E. & G. Goldsmid, 12 Castle Street, Edinburgh, propose to republish Hakluyt's collection of voyages in a handy edition, the first since the limited reprint of 1809–12. They will include "every additional 'Curious, Rare, and Early Voyage and Discovery' translated or published by Hakluyt, or at his suggestion," with other desirable matter from the stores of the Hakluyt Society. Mr. Edmund Goldsmid will edit the series, which it is hoped to complete in five years and fourteen to fifteen volumes, at two to five shillings a part (according to quality).

Mr. Winfred A. Stearns, Amherst, Mass., will, if the requisite support be forthcoming, undertake the publication of a scientific journal under the auspices of the Massachusetts Agricultural College. It will be called the *Bulletin of the Natural History of the State of Massachusetts*, and will be exclusively devoted to the subject designated in the title.

With the July number the *Newport Historical Magazine* will be converted into the quarterly *Rhode Island Historical Magazine*, with its old scheme retained and enlarged. Its proprietors are the Newport Historical Publishing Company.

Le Français, published monthly at Roxbury, Mass., by M. Jules Lévy, is by all odds the best educational French journal ever attempted in

this country. It is now in its fourth year, but its support still seems to be inadequate. We cannot too strongly recommend it as an adjunct wherever French is taught. Not less than one copy should be taken in every school having classes in the language. *Le Français* will not only assist in mastering idioms and pronunciation, but, thanks to the editor's cultivated sense for selection, in forming the taste of the learner.

The *Publishers' Weekly* for April 5 is entirely a memorial number, embodying a sketch of the life of the late Frederick Leypoldt, the proceedings of the trade meeting in this city to take notice of his decease, his prefaces to his chief undertakings, the words of praise and regret from many quarters, and a list of his publications. Add, besides, a steel portrait, not quite subtle enough to express the finer traits of Mr. Leypoldt's physiognomy, and a tribute to the late Nicholas Trübner, whose death occurred almost simultaneously with that of the American bibliographer. In the *Weekly* for April 12, Mr. R. R. Bowker announces that he will assume the direction of this publication, keeping the same excellent staff, and retaining the services of Mrs. Leypoldt. This is equivalent to saying that the *Weekly* will maintain its high character for accuracy and independent usefulness. The supplement to the 'American Catalogue,' it is stated, will soon be pushed forward to completion.

The April number of *Longmans' Magazine* contains an account of the Macready riot in Astor Place, by an eye-witness, Mr. W. C. Miller. It is written with greater fairness and fuller knowledge than any which has hitherto appeared in print in England. It notes without irritation the double part played by "Ned Buntline," and it sets forth succinctly the success of the Seventh Regiment in clearing the streets.

Mr. Andrew Lang, whose 'Ballades and Verses Vain' are soon to be published here by Charles Scribner's Sons, has accepted the editorship of the English edition of *Harper's Magazine*, as *Harper's Weekly* informs us.

Among the new periodicals which have come to our table is *Wowapi*, "a magazine devoted to the cause of the Indians." It is, of course, published in Boston, the hereditary seat of pity for the aborigines. The typographical appearance is open and agreeable, but we find the contents somewhat too miscellaneous, and it is not clear just what audience is aimed at. It may be had of W. B. Clarke & Carruth, 340 Washington Street, Boston. Quite different in scope is No. 1 of the *Glasgow University Review* (Glasgow: Wilson & McCormick), which is not greatly above the level of college magazines in this country. It has for a frontispiece an etching of the Old College gateway.

The two volumes of "Stories by American Authors," which begin the series of the Messrs. Scribner, have a taking exterior, their bright chrome cloth covers setting off well the black imprint. The press-work is not quite up to what we might expect. The size is well adapted for the coat pocket or satchel.

A modest memorial of Newton Francis Whiting, late financial editor of the *Evening Post*, and for many years a financial contributor to the *Nation*, has been privately printed. It contains an excellent photographic likeness of Mr. Whiting.

Parts 101–105 of the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt), which close the seventh volume of this valuable work, are singularly barren of important biographical articles. In other respects they are above rather than below the average. Among the more significant articles is one on Secret Remedies (*Geheimmittel*, arcana), with a curious list of these, the price and the "worth" being added as in the case of the fertilizers reported on by our agricultural experiment stations. The series of articles relating to the Brain is extensive, and what is noticeable here—so different from what must have been the treatment fifty years ago—is that no mention is made of phrenology in describing the localization of cerebral functions, nor is any work on the brain earlier than 1857 cited. The Ear is another topic fully treated and illustrated. Under Learned Societies are given lists, useful if not exhaustive, for all the civilized world; and again under Geographical Societies. Projectiles and Ordnance have a good allowance of text and woodcuts, and another valuable list is that of general-staff maps for all nations. This warlike proficiency, by the way, would have led us to expect a more accurate account of the battle of Gettysburg than is given here. We must further mention an interesting article on the German National Museum, and two on Geneva and Genoa, both accompanied by plans. Excellent colored maps of Northeastern France and of Frankfort and its environs are superadded. The volume ends with the letter G, Trade Organizations being last among the longer articles.

It looks as if another instalment (the 22d) would complete the lingering task of Mr. J. ten Doornkaat Koolman, so conscientiously pursued for years, in the making of his 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: H. Braams). The two latest numbers carry the dictionary along to the affix *-wards*, identical with our English affix, as are so many of the words which we here encounter—*stoker, stop! stôrk, störm, strand, tide, twîg, tip, top, top-mast, up*, etc. Other forms are but slightly disguised, as, *stofe* (stove), *stôpe* and *stâp* (stoop, of a house), *stôl* (stool); *stuttern, trampeln, twisten, upholden; tîr-liren* (tirra-lirra), etc. Here occurs also the familiar childish game of *tik-tak-tuk*, in which the "tick" refers to the checking or pointing off of the squares. Under *swart* we recognize the familiar proverb of pot calling the kettle black, in "de pot wil de ketel 't ferwiten, dat hê swart is."

"Flip" and three other of Mr. Bret Harte's stories have just been published in a one-volume French translation by Calmann-Lévy, Paris.

The latest works by American authors which have been added to the Tauchnitz Series are a two-volume selection of Poe's tales and poems, with yet another biographical sketch by the irrepressible Mr. John H. Ingram; Miss Howard's 'Guenn,' and Mr. James's 'Siege of London.' Among the forthcoming volumes are Mr. James's 'Portraits of Places,' Mr. Howells's 'Dr. Breen's Practice' and 'A Woman's Reason,' Mr. Crawford's 'Roman Singer,' Dr. Holmes's 'Poet at the Breakfast Table,' and a new volume of Mr. Bret Harte's.

From J. H. Bufford's Sons we receive two large and well-executed lithographic portraits, one of Mr. Seth Low, Mayor of Brooklyn, an excellent likeness, if a little younger in appearance than his Honor appears to-day, and the other of the late Wendell Phillips, which is rather a popular portrait than a subtle one. The likeness is unmistakable, but not such as will commend itself to those who knew Mr. Phillips intimately.

We receive from C. Klackner, of 17 East Seventeenth Street, New York, an excellent large etching, by Mr. S. T. Ferris, of the late George Fuller's "Nydia," rendering admirably such qualities of Mr. Fuller's art as can be put into white and black; but as this painter's powers were eminently those of the colorist, it is impossible for any etching of one of his works to convey a satisfactory idea of it. The essay on the genius of Mr. Fuller, which accompanies the etching, is absurd, and mistakes alike the quality of Fuller's genius and the function of the arts of painting and etching. The best thing that can be said of Mr. Ferris's work is that he has given the quality and spirit of the painter's work in sincerity and with eminent skill. The *remarque* proofs are marked by a portrait of Mr. Fuller, etched in the margin of the plate.

We have also from the same publisher an original wood engraving by Elbridge Kingsley, of exceptional size (12x17) and very remarkable quality. It does not appear, however, that there is any gain in technical excellence to be obtained by this "original" cutting of the block. Nature-study and art-study both gain by being separated where practicable, in the final record, and Mr. Kingsley's power as a designer does not appear from his wood engravings as of the first order by any means, while his engraving cannot of course, as a whole, be better than his drawing. The higher qualities of design are not to be got before nature, and therefore the engraving, which is only a translation of the design, must suffer with it from a practice which is not founded on the requirements of art.

Hans Ellissen, bookseller in Leipsic, has issued a circular to German booksellers on the need of subject indexes to their trade catalogues, and enclosing a specimen of his own. Such indexes, he thinks, would cover a million titles, and be very useful. The *Neuer Anzeiger* thinks that the booksellers will not coöperate, and that he might, with as much chance of success, undertake an index of universal literature.

The desperate activity of the Bonapartist press in France is well illustrated by an amusing blunder recently committed by the *Pays*. An attempt is made to show that Paris is fallen from the high condition of splendor that formerly characterized that city, into a mere abode of mud, bankruptcy, and licentiousness. In support of this position, Mr. George R. Sims, "one of the most eminent writers in London," is quoted as saying that "Ichabod may be read on everything Parisian." The editor of the *Pays*, apparently never having heard of "Ichabod," seems to suppose that the eminent writer in London meant to use the word 'Ichaboe,' and proceeds to append the explanation that 'Ichaboe' is an island off the coast of Africa, famous for its guano. It might be held that the force of the figure is not weakened by change.

Professor Newcomb, who went out to observe the transit of Venus at Cape Town, South Africa, in 1882, remained abroad during the spring and summer of the following year, in pursuance of orders from the Navy Department, to collect notes on recent improvements in astronomical observatories, instruments, and methods of observation at the principal observatories of Europe. His report on this duty has lately been published as a Senate document, and contains detailed information of invaluable importance to persons who may intend to found new observatories, or to design or purchase new astronomical instruments. The establishments visited by Professor Newcomb, and from which his information was gathered, were the observatories of Paris, Neuchâtel, Geneva, Vienna, Berlin, Potsdam, Leyden, and Strassburg, and the workshops of the Messrs. Repsold at Hamburg. The great Vienna telescope, lately completed for the Imperial Observatory at that place by Mr. Howard Grubb, of Dublin, is the largest refracting telescope in actual use at the present time, its object-glass having an aperture of twenty-seven inches, or one inch more than the Clark telescope at the Naval Observatory, Washington. Professor Newcomb's report on the former instrument is principally in the nature of a comparison of its working with that of the latter. As a piece of mechanical engineering the Vienna telescope reflects great credit on its designer and constructor, but the

contrivances for the convenient manipulation and use of the instrument are in some regards defective. The figure of its object-glass Professor Newcomb pronounces perfect, in so far as he could judge from the character of the images formed by it. Its color-correction is less than in the Washington telescope.

—A correspondent at West Point advises us of an obvious slip in our recent review of Mr. Lowell's 'Hessians,' when we stated that only West Pointers could be officers in our army. This was said by way of extenuating the German practice a hundred years ago; and what we had in mind was the well-known inconvenience and difficulty which are experienced among us in promotion from the ranks, when the material from which we recruit is so inferior to that which is graduated from West Point.

—The annual systematic view of the German book-selling trade, presented by the *Börsenblatt*, affords not only interesting evidence of the great literary activity of the German people, but also a valuable means of comparing the number of their literary productions with the number of similar productions in other countries. The total number of works published in 1883 was 14,802, as against 14,774 in 1882. This increase of only twenty-eight appears in striking contrast with the increase of 754 in England, to which attention was called in No. 972 of the *Nation*. But although the difference between one year and another in the German book trade is not so marked as in some other countries, it is only necessary to observe the great number of valuable books issued to be convinced that Germany is still entitled to be regarded as in a very emphatic sense the nation of book-makers. While the number of German works issued was no less than 14,802, the total number issued in Great Britain was only 6,145, and the number in the United States only 3,481. The difference appears not less significant when we carry the comparison into details. For example, in theology, Germany published 1,504 books; Great Britain, 704; the United States, 375. In the domain of history, Germany produced 795; Great Britain, 414; the United States, 119. In medicine and hygiene, the number published in Germany was 922; the number in Great Britain, 163; the number in the United States, 211. But the greatest contrasts are in the number of works on the various departments of education and belles-lettres. The total number of books classified by the American *Publishers' Weekly* under the head of education and languages, is 197; the number in Great Britain, as given by the English *Publishers' Circular*, is 556; while the number in Germany, as given by the *Börsenblatt*, is no less than 2,300. To this last number, moreover, ought to be added, perhaps, 501 works that are classified as "Modern Languages and Old German." In the field of fiction there is a noteworthy variation in the proportions that elsewhere prevail. Owing, doubtless, to the vast number of "pirated" cheap reprints in the United States, the number of American publications under this head is 670, while the number in Great Britain is 349, and in Germany—evidently not so inviting a field for the "pirates"—the number is 1,207. In the literature of law and jurisprudence America produced in 1883 397 works; Great Britain, 139; Germany, 1,301. Though the systems of classification are not quite uniform in the three countries, they are approximately so, and the figures leave no doubt that in nearly every branch of learning the number of publications in Germany is about twice as great as the number in Great Britain and the United States combined. Of the comparatively small number of valuable books published in America, it would be interesting to be informed what proportion represents the work of American authors. No one can look over the statistics with care without being convinced that the year 1883 in the United States is distinguished by the paucity of its contributions to literature. How far this is owing to the absence of an international copyright law is at least an interesting subject for thought.

—In England a "Company of Authors" has been organized for the purpose of doing what it can to bring about that happy day when authors will not vex publishers, and publishers will not vex authors. That there is need of such a society has been evident ever since Thomas Campbell offered his famous toast to Napoleon Bonaparte, "because he shot a bookseller." But it is not so evident that the English "Company of Authors" has made a good start. The prospectus does not show that the enterprise has enlisted any considerable number of the greater names of contemporaneous authors, and without such names it is hard to see how any considerable success can be reached. Perhaps the fact of their absence is to be accounted for by the circumstance that the assistance promised by the Company is not needed by authors of the highest reputation. Among the aims of the new organization is to be noted "the cultivation of mutual help between authors, so that the young and struggling writer may look for and obtain friendly guidance and counsel from those who have already made their reputations." The prospectus informs us that the Company will not only give the members information on all points connected with publication, but also "will assess the merits of any MSS. that may be submitted to them for inspection," and "advise on all questions arising between author and publisher." It further intimates that the Company will endeavor to clear away much of the popular ignorance as to the cost of printing, binding, and advertising, and as to the best way of bringing a work before the public. Conspicuous also among the aims of the society is "the united and strenuous endeavor by every possible means to obtain for English writers the justice of copyright in the United States." The scheme to which the Company seems committed is that of Mr. Charles Reade, the substance of which is quoted with approval, and no stone will be left unturned "to awaken the nation to a sense of the injustice and iniquity of the present absence of international copyright."

—The aims of the "Company of Authors" seem to be so eminently praiseworthy, that it is not easy to withhold our best wishes for its success. It will doubtless do something to enlighten public opinion; but to suppose that it will bring about generally harmonious and sympathetic relations between authors and publishers, by any means hinted at in the prospectus, is to leave out of sight not only the essential elements of correct business relations, but also one of the fundamental characteristics of human nature. The real causes of dissatisfaction lie deeper than those assigned. The relations of authors and publishers are purely business relations, which are not conducted ordinarily in accordance with business principles. The author surrenders his MS. to the publisher, and receives in return a contract which promises a certain percentage on the copies sold. When the first accounting is made, it is probable that in nine cases out of ten there is disappointment on the part of the author. The reason is simply, let us assume, that in a vast majority of cases the author's first estimate of the importance of his work is greater than the importance attached to it by the public. But this cause of disappointment could not be charged upon the publisher, if the publisher were to prove to the perfect satisfaction of the author that all the copies sold have been accounted for. The publisher has only his word or the word of his bookkeeper to give. He has received what to the author is an indefinite quantity; that is to say, he has had printed an edition the number of copies in which the author has no means whatever of knowing, except from the publisher himself. The vicious nature of this general system is made clear by the simple statement that it affords an opportunity for cheating such as is afforded perhaps in no other business relation whatever. So long as this opportunity exists, and so long as there is a liability to disappointment on the part of authors, there will continue to be more or less of distrust and dissatisfaction.

—'The Teaching of the Twelve Apostles' (Scribners), Greek text with translation by Professors Hitchcock and Brown, of the Union Theological Seminary, New York, appears to be a valuable contribution to the Christian literature of the second century. A work of this name is cited among the apocryphal writings by Eusebius and Athanasius, and modern scholars had surmised its general character, but no text of it was known. Last year Philotheos Bryennios, Metropolitan of Nicomedia, published the Greek text of a small treatise entitled 'Διδαχὴ τῶν δώδεκα Ἀποστόλων,' from a manuscript of the eleventh century found by him in Constantinople in 1875, and from this the present translation is made. If we may accept it as a genuine production of the second century—and the internal evidence strongly favors its genuineness—it throws a curious light on the way in which Christianity was then conceived. The ethical part of the tract follows in general the precepts of the Sermon on the Mount and the Pauline epistles, but with a few noteworthy differences: the Golden Rule is put in negative form; instead of "Pray for them that persecute you," we have "Fast for them"; almsgiving is regarded as a ransom for sins; there is a definite warning against magic arts; and the methods of detecting false apostles and prophets are clearly stated: a sojourning apostle who stays three days at one house, or, on departing, asks for money, or one who orders a meal in the spirit and then himself eats of it, or one who does not what he teaches, is a false prophet. The ritual and governmental ideas are especially remarkable. The church officers spoken of are bishops and deacons, the "bishops" being doubtless identical with presbyters or elders; but the statement is too curt to found a theory of church government on. For baptism running water is preferred, though not held to be necessary; whether then the method is by immersion or affusion, is not clear. If cold water cannot be had, warm is allowed; and in the absence of a large mass of water it is directed that the administrator pour water thrice on the head of the candidate. This makes pouring a recogized mode of baptism fifty years after the death of the last of the twelve Apostles. In the celebration of the Eucharist the most noticeable thing is the complete absence of the idea of atonement; there is only thanks for "the holy vine of David thy servant, . . . and for the life and the knowledge which thou hast made known to us through Jesus thy servant." The conception of the rite is much less theological than that given by Justin in his First Apology. One is half disposed to think that our author was a Judaizer (he enjoins that the first fruits of wine-press and threshing-floor and oxen and sheep, and the first of a baking of bread, and of a jar of wine or oil, and of money and clothing be given to the prophets, whom he calls "your highpriests"—quite in the manner of the Old Testament); or that he belonged to some heretical

sect. However, it may be that he does not give the whole of his Eucharist-ritual. He is not a philosopher like Justin, nor a man of cultivation like the author of the Epistle to Diognetus, but a plain exhorter, who is concerned only to teach righteous living. There may have been in his mind vague theological ideas which he does not express. In speaking of baptism he says nothing of Justin's bath of regeneration, but confines himself to a bald statement of the outward ceremony. We can hardly, therefore, infer from the absence of the idea of atonement in his account of the Eucharist that there were Christians of that day to whom this idea was unknown —a state of things very improbable for that period. Moreover, he does seem to speak further on of "breaking bread" as a sacrifice. This tract is to Justin and the Epistle to Diognetus as the Epistle of James to those of Paul—a simple, straightforward, earnest exhortation to uprightness of life. Its Greek style is just what we should expect in such a writing in the middle of the second century. The picture given of the life of the Christians agrees with that which we find in the works known to belong to that time; and it enables us to understand how this compact body, with its lofty, unbending ethical code, made a deep impression on the heathen community. The relation of our author to our present New Testament text is too large a question to enter into here. The translation is very well done.

—One of the most interesting illustrations of the underlying religiousness, if that word may be allowed, of the American people has been shown within the last month by their reception of the 'Teaching of the Twelve Apostles.' A translation of the text, given by Harnack in a German theological journal, attracted the attention of the editor of a weekly religious journal in New York, who published an English translation of this German version. As soon as the text of Bryennios was received, professors in several institutions set about its republication in this country. The New York professors were first in the field with their edition of the Greek text, accompanied by a translation and brief comments. The Andover professors followed almost the next day with an independent translation, and a scholarly critique. A Baltimore professor at once gave four lectures on the text, to a company of students augmented by a number of ministers, Episcopal, Presbyterian, Methodist, Congregational, Quaker. A pastor in New Haven made the tract the theme of a pulpit discourse on Sunday. Almost every daily and weekly paper, which has come under the writer's eye, has contained a longer or shorter article on the subject—one religious sheet closing its notice, a column long, with the comatose remark, that the discovery will be of interest to students of church history, but to nobody else. A daily newspaper reports that twelve hundred copies of the New York reprint were sold the first day. In a Southern Young Men's Christian Association, a teacher of elocution was engaged to read aloud the tract to the members of the Society. Now, what does all this indicate? There is, as we have just shown, nothing reconstructive or destructive of Christian doctrine in the pamphlet. There is nothing polemic or apologetic about it. The early usages of the Church are indicated on some points a little more clearly than elsewhere, but there is nothing very decidedly to the advantage of any denominational creed or polity. Why then such eagerness in the American reception of this tract—so different from the German or the English reception—so very like the reception accorded to the revised New Testament, eighteen months ago? Is it Hebraism, or is it Hellenism; is it Americanism, or is it Puritanism? A shrewd observer, to whom we put the question, says, that Puritanism was essentially a rehabilitation of primitive doctrine, and to this he attributes this outburst of patristic zeal. On the other hand, the extreme ecclesiastical party, the Episcopal, has professed to be rehabilitating early usages. The Methodists also have aimed to be primitive Christians. So, too, the Irvingites, who believed that the apostolic rule was restored. All these elements appear to be combined in giving an eager welcome to the document before us. At all events, it is obvious that however creeds may differ, there is still in this country the most profound interest in religious questions, ready to respond to any new and fresh utterance of truth, whether it be an apostolic statement reaching us through the historic telephone from a period seventeen centuries ago, or the fresh restatement of an evangelist of our own day.

— Emanuel Geibel, whose death, at the age of sixty-eight, the cable announced a few days ago, was probably the greatest German poet of the present day, unless preëminence is to be accorded to Friedrich Bodenstedt. The lives of the two poets, indeed, present many points of resemblance. Both derived their early inspiration from travels in the East; both were tutors in the houses of Russian noblemen and subsequently became professors in the University of Munich; both acquired fame as translators from many languages only equalled by that of Rückert; and both vainly aspired to dramatic laurels commensurate with those won by them in lyric poetry. But while none of Geibel's productions achieved the renown and popularity of Bodenstedt's 'Songs of Mirza Schaffy'—those unique pseudo-translations from the Persian—his muse was more varied than Bodenstedt's. His ballads are among the finest in German literature, taking rank, after Schiller's and Goethe's, with those of Bürger and Uhland. He translated equally well from the French, Spanish, Portuguese, and modern Greek; and his recently published translations from Horace earned from a prominent German critic the encomium that they occasionally even surpass the original. Geibel outlived the reproach made him in his earlier years of having been chiefly a "ladies' poet," but his songs never really fired the popular heart as did those of Uhland and Herwegh. Indeed, he had little in common with the "bards of liberty," his famous utterance, "I will not be the slave of liberty," being characteristic of his reserve and conservatism; but the modern development of Germany found in him a warm and eloquent interpreter.

—At the Normal College may now be seen the series of electrotypes of the select coins of the British Museum which have been purchased for the Numismatic Society, to whose cabinets they will return after a further exhibition in various places in this city. No form of art among all which the Greek genius has left us is so serviceable for art-education as its coinage. Its compactness, its variety (scarcely two known coins of any type being of the same die), the wonderful range of subject and variation in treatment of subject, its portraiture, symbolism, idealism, its extraordinary power of rendering the largest qualities of plastic art in the compass of a coin, and the range of treatment of relief, from the lowest bas-relief to the highest, falling short of detached relief, are qualities which are combined in no other class of antique art products. This series, furnished by the authorities of the British Museum at a less cost even than that of some single original coins in the collection, should form a part of every art museum in America, and not much out of place would it be in our Mint, if anything could be hoped for in the way of artistic design from the men who furnish what must be admitted to be the least artistic coinage in the civilized world. The material for study in the finer qualities of art, the composition of line and mass, the vivacity and movement of the figure, the subtle management of relief in this series, which make the great glory of Greek art, will serve as an educator of taste more potent than all our city museums and collections put together. There is an additional value, not the least either, in the ancient coinage of Greece, that it shows the rise and decline of art better than any collection of statuary, because it carries its chronology with it. The present collection is divided into the periods of coinage from 700 B. C. down into Roman times, and the four earlier periods, coming down nearly to our era, will, so far as art is concerned, show all but its decay, and even the beginnings of that. Of special interest in the archaic period are the coins of Tenedos and Lampsacus, Posidonia and Metapontum (of Magna Græcia) not to be surpassed in delicacy and purity of design, and the last as showing the primitive manner of coinage at its best. In the second, the series of Elis, of Thebes, the lovely coins of Phæstus in Crete, of Naxos, Segesta, and Selinus in Sicily, of Thurium, Velia, Metapontum, and Tarentum, in Magna Græcia, and the perfection of Greek coinage from the cities of Amphipolis, Cyrene, Opus of the Locrians, the Arcadian League; and above and beyond all, not only for its beauty, but for its range through so many periods, the Syracusan series, will delight as well as educate all students. In the fourth period the portraits are the great attraction, and form the chief value of the epoch. Numismatic portraiture probably begins with the coin of Philistis, Queen of Hiero II. of Syracuse, and ends, as art, with the later Kings of the Macedonian dynasty of the East, that of Lysimachus being perhaps the finest, though as type of beauty a choice coin of Philistis bears the palm of all, earlier or later. The adaptation of the character of the coinage to commercial uses is well shown in the modification of the character of the relief, passing from the high, full modelling of the second and third periods to the flat coins of the fourth and succeeding, fit for packing into rolls, when money became plenty enough to be sent in large sums. This series includes coins of the Phœnician cities, Carthage, Tyre, Sidon, etc., as well as the Hebrew shekel. It is but a sample of the numismatic art which has come down to us, however. An eminent Italian collector has about 300 different types of the didrachm of Tarentum alone.

—Dietrich Reimer (Berlin) sends us an atlas of Mykenæ and environs, with two large maps, one of the city (17x22 in.), showing the excavations of Schliemann, and the other (19x21 in.) the city with the surrounding country as far as the Heræon, and including the "Mount St. Elias" (Helios), where are some remains of a Pelasgic temple and *hieron*. To say that the maps are the work of the German Staff is to assure their complete fidelity and topographical value. That the archæological indications are not of the same value is clear from the characterization of the structures about the monument excavated by Schliemann: the rude walls which surround and connect the ellipse of that structure with the preëxisting city wall being described as Cyclopean—a term equally applied to the city wall itself. The former are simply barbarous stone constructions, with no special technical character, and enclosing material borrowed from the ruined city, and are not to be classed with its original structures, being clearly of long subsequent date. The identification in the map shows that the authors had no recog-

nition of the technical distinctions between the various forms of structure which abound in the vicinity of Mykenæ. Apparently all the rough stone walls in the section delineated are indiscriminately marked "Cyclopean," although many of them are clearly nothing but terraces to hold up the arable land, and belong to all epochs except the most modern. This want of accurate classification of the remains of wall structure is unfortunate, as on it must depend the determination of the archæological position of any given fragment. The postern gate of Mykenæ, again, is placed at the bottom of the recess in the wall, while in fact it is at the opening of it; and the portion of wall which flanks it on the north, and is described as a tower, is simply the wall sufficiently thickened to stand alone, and faced on both sides, as they are both exposed, with worked stone. The explanatory hand-book which accompanies the atlas contains an admirable map of the entire Argolid, including Nauplia, Corinth, etc.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.—I.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, LL.D., President of the Philological Society, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part I.—A—Ant. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

THE first instalment of a great and long-desired work has finally made its appearance. Originated in 1857, carried on for some years and then practically abandoned, resumed again in 1879, it has seen, since the time of its inception, nearly a generation of men pass away before the first fruits of the immense labor expended upon it could be offered to the public. The delay, while in certain respects it has been annoying, is not on the whole to be regretted. It has been advantageous on many more accounts than those which would necessarily be implied in the opportunity given to embody the knowledge which has accrued in the interval. Severer methods of investigation and higher ideals of requirement now exist than did twenty-five years ago. Stores of information practically inaccessible then are now laid open. The extensive dictionary of German, begun long before this one was even contemplated, has, to be sure, hardly got beyond the middle of the alphabet; but, during the period under consideration, a great work of lexicography has been completed in that foreign tongue from which the English speech has borrowed a large proportion of its words. Not merely is the information the latter contains of especial importance, but the methods it employs furnish a standard to be imitated and, if possible, to be surpassed. Again, without intending to express any disrespect for the men who have had charge of this undertaking in the past, it is safe to assert that the present editor is in many points far better equipped for the work than those who conceived it and for a time carried it on. These various advantages have far more than counterbalanced the disadvantages of the delay. It is an act of simple justice to say that if this lexicon is completed on the plan on which it has been begun, it will take equal rank as regards its intrinsic excellence with the two great works published or publishing in French and German, and in many matters of detail will be superior to them both.

Such a statement implies more than it directly asserts. The difficulty of preparing a lexicon is far greater in the case of English than in that of any modern cultivated tongue. The other languages of Europe are comparatively homogeneous. The words they have adopted from foreign sources are limited in number; and, moreover, they have been largely introduced during periods when it is a matter of no special difficulty to trace their history and development. Not so with the English. It is not merely that its ordinary vocabulary is, to begin with, half Teutonic and half Romance: in each case these two elements have been subjected to peculiar influences that do not affect the character of any Teutonic or any Romance tongue elsewhere. The French that was carried over to England by the Conquest diverged in time not merely from the French of Paris, but from its parent dialect of Normandy. The Low-German that was brought to Britain by the English sustained more or less modification, and received more or less admixture, from the speech of the Norse invaders and settlers. In addition to this, the restless race that speaks our tongue has, during the various periods of its history, come into contact with almost all the peoples of the earth. There are few of them from which it has not borrowed some vocables that have finally become part of the common stock of communities scattered over the habitable globe.

This state of things of itself renders the task of preparing a dictionary of English one of special difficulty. When to it is added an immense literature which, in one form or another, runs back more than a thousand years, the task assumes enormous proportions. In this work the editor sets out to include all words that have been in use since the middle of the twelfth century. Up to the fifteenth century all dialectic forms and variations are registered. After that, it is only the literary speech that is regularly recorded. The work when completed will be, in consequence, a dictionary of early English as well as of modern English. It is only the special student who will fully appreciate the immense labor of registering the numberless forms in which words appeared in the various dialects during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries. Still, the ordinary reader can get some conception of the drudgery gone through in collecting, as well as the knowledge and accuracy required in condensing, such a mass of information, by consulting the variant forms under, for instance, *abide* and *ambassador*. This point needs to be emphasized, because, while work of this kind involves extraordinary toil in its preparation, it is packed away in so little space as to escape the attention of most.

Even without regarding these variant forms, the number of words recorded is something formidable. The part published ends with the suffix *-ant*, and its 352 pages embrace, according to the statement found in the preface, 8,365 words. A comparison with the corresponding portion of Webster will give a more definite conception as to the scale on which the present work is planned and carried out. The number of words in Webster under the letter A up to *ant* are a little short of 3,550, and they cover fifty-six pages. This proportion may not hold through the rest of the alphabet, but if it does, the words included in the present dictionary will be nearer 300,000 than the 200,000 that have been generally fixed as the approximate number. One specially interesting feature is also to be noted. The earliest and latest known instances of the occurrence of a word or of the sense of a word are always given with the exact date of each. These instances will inevitably be subject to great revision, in consequence of the discovery of still earlier or later forms or usages that are sure to be made with the information here contained as a basis upon which to proceed: but even now their value is as great as their interest, and the latter it is hard to overestimate.

There are three things in which the excellence of a dictionary mainly consists—the number and choice of words, their derivation and history, and the definitions of their meanings, with illustrative quotations. That the present work is not perfect, that it is fairly subject to some criticism, we shall have occasion to show before we finish. Yet in all three it reaches a high standard of achievement. Errors of detail will be pointed out in future; new light will make clear what is now imperfectly understood; but the general features are not likely to undergo any material alteration. This is especially true of the department of etymology. This portion of the work, abounding as it does in words from the Romance element, has indeed presented no special difficulties. Still, so far as it goes, it is eminently satisfactory. It is full where it is desirable that it should be full. On the other hand, it has avoided with a wise restraint the tracing of words to primitive hypothetical Indo-European roots—which seems to us a serious defect in Professor Skeat's very excellent 'Etymological Dictionary.' We could have wished in one or two cases that the editor had given us, as part of the history of the words, some illustrations of those excesses in derivation in which the scholars of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries fairly rioted. We instance the etymology of *almanac* given in Verstegan's 'Restitution of Decayed Intelligence.'

"They used to engrave," writes Verstegan, "upon certain squared sticks about a foot in length . . . the courses of the moons of the whole year, whereby they could always certainly tell when the new moon, full moon, and changes should happen, as also their festival days; and such a carved stick they called *al-mon-aght*, that is to say *al-mon-heed*—to wit, the regard or observation of all the moons. And here hence is derived the name of almanac."

Now this is certainly a very decayed sort of intelligence, but it seems to us to enter legitimately into the plan of a work which is largely taken up with recording the decayed ignorance of the past about words.

Etymology is a subject, however, which is in a constant state of development, and this part of the work can be dismissed with the statement that what is found recorded here is fully up to the present level of knowledge. When we come to words and definitions, there is ampler field for criticism, and what we are disposed to consider in some cases as mistaken fault finding. It is not likely that the editor would contend that the vocabulary contained here, immense though it be, is exhaustive. Five thousand authors have been read for this work, but English authors of the grade included in this dictionary number many more than five thousand. No one need fear that a great harvest of words does not still remain to be gleaned, especially from writers of an inferior class. The hope, indeed, of finding terms not included in it seems already to have stimulated many to examine obscure works that have probably never been read before during the present century, and are likely never to be read again. But this state of things is full justification for the course which the editor has been somewhat criticised for taking. He has admitted into the dictionary all words occurring in previous dictionaries, even when found nowhere else and apparently mere coinages of the individual lexicographers. It is unsafe to reject them, however, until the whole field of our literature has been gone over carefully and it has been shown by an exhaustive process that the word was never used in our speech.

Again, we are disposed to say that the criticism which has found fault with the numerous technical words included in this first part is hardly justifiable. That they are numerous, and give at times an extraordinary appearance to

the page of a so-called English dictionary, cannot be denied. But this is a point upon which there must always be the widest difference of opinion, because the technical vocabulary of an educated man is profoundly affected by his pursuits and his associations. Terms which seem to one person little less familiar than the words which are the expression of universal thought or feeling, may be to another not much removed from unintelligible gibberish. No one man can judge as to the propriety of introducing technical words. Absolute discretion in this respect must be left to an editor, because he has better opportunities than any one else to meet the views of wide circles. He may make mistakes, but he is not so likely to have made them as the man with a more limited range of vision, who censures him for introducing words he himself has never seen or heard before, and never expects to hear or see again.

MUSIC IN AMERICA.

Music in England.—Music in America. By Dr. F. L. Ritter. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

PROFESSOR RITTER has added to his previous valuable works on music these two volumes on musical history in America and England, which will be read with general interest. They are refreshingly free from pedantic, stilted phraseology, while the facts and opinions are expressed in a lucid style and with commendable frankness. The author does not content himself with a dry enumeration of events, but continually discusses the social aspects of his topic. His intention at first was to write only the history of musical development in America, but he soon came to the conclusion that a short preliminary volume on England would greatly facilitate comprehension of the early epochs. The first volume accordingly discusses the English ballad and Gregorian chant in their relation to national taste; the early contrapuntists; the composers of the Elizabethan epoch; the decline of musical art under Puritan rule; music in the Catholic, Lutheran, and Calvinist churches; the English cathedral service; English psalmody; and the history of opinions regarding musical æsthetics (about 60 pages), which may be regarded as a valuable supplement to Ehrlich's history of musical æsthetics in Germany since Kant. Much good would result if every clergyman in the country would read this first volume, which, the author hopes, "may possibly contribute towards removing the unreasonable prejudices entertained by many church members against music as an art: most of these prejudices are based on inherited traditional misunderstanding, or complete ignorance of the subject in question."

In America the history of music does not begin, as in Europe, with legends of Mercury and tortoise shells, but with the attitude towards it of the early Puritans. To them belongs the credit of having killed all musical spontaneity and originality in England up to quite recent times, and of having prevented the present generation from enjoying the works of a school of music which would doubtless have been as distinct and national in its flavor as the music of Italy, Germany, France, Hungary, and Poland. The germs were there, but fanaticism killed them. To psychologists a more remarkable problem has never presented itself than the explanation of this violent antagonism towards a harmless and refining art. A reaction against the excessive frivolousness of a pre-Puritan epoch is generally given as the cause, and this is evidently allied with the mediæval ascetic habit of condemning every pleasure as sinful. The Puritans, it has been said, condemned bear-baiting not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators. Perhaps in a similar way they, in their hearts, objected to music because it added to the happiness of its lovers, not because they considered it antagonistic to religion. Doubtless, also, an impotence of judgment must be taken into consideration—an inability to look at music apart from the frivolous surroundings with which it was often associated. Whatever may be the causes, the struggle of liberalism against ignorant prejudice presents many curious phases, which Dr. Ritter describes in the first chapters of his second volume, so that they possess a special interest even if the crude and incorrect religious tunes of the period in question can hardly be said to come under the head of music proper

In so far as music was tolerated in the early part of the last century, it was of a very peculiar quality. Only a few artificial tunes were allowed, and any innovation was regarded as sinful, just as among the ancient Egyptians. It was urged that time was wasted on music; that it was a contrivance to get money; that the names of the notes were "bawdy, yea blasphemous" (!); that the tolerance of regular singing would lead to the introduction of sinful instrumental music—this being allowed much later than vocal music, probably because the latter alone was capable of redemption through being wedded to religious words. And when we read how music was performed in those days, we do not wonder that many considered it the invention of the Evil One. One writer remarks that "we used to have some people singing a note or two after the rest had done. And you commonly strike the notes, not together but one after another, one being half-way thro' the second note before his neighbor has done with the first." "Some singers," we are told, "drawl out their notes beyond all reason; hence in congregations ensue jarrs and discords, which make singing rather resemble howling." Sometimes the notes were so much prolonged that, says Thomas Walter, "I myself have twice in one note paused to take breath, . . . and besides no two Men in the congregation quaver alike, which sounds in the Ears of a Good Judge like five hundred different Tunes roared out at the same Time." The climax was probably reached in the case where a minister, after a bad performance of his choir, read another psalm, and said, "You must try again, for it is impossible to preach after such singing."

For a long time the psalm-tune writers, Billings and his followers, had everything their own way, and it was not until the introduction of Italian and German musicians that good music began to obtain a footing. To-day traces of the psalm-tune epoch are to be found in our cities, while in country towns, East and West, it still retains much vitality, as is shown by the enormous quantities of (mostly trashy) Sunday-school and church music-books that are manufactured and sold every year. In our largest cities, the foreign element has slowly but surely made an impression. The Italians introduced the taste for highly-spiced and beautiful solo singing, and the wealth of the New World has always attracted the most famous European singers in such large numbers that it has at last resulted in their being more incisively and severely criticised on this side of the ocean than on the other. The love for choral music of a worldly kind was introduced by the German *Männergesang-Vereine*, and such early American choral associations as the Handel and Haydn in Boston. Orchestral and chamber music came to us entirely from the Germans, and how much it has remained confined to them could not be more strikingly shown than by the fact that when Mr. Theodore Thomas at the present day addresses an orchestra of 100 or 150 men, he uses the German language. There is, however, now growing up a generation of young American pianists, organists, and other instrumentalists, who are destined at no distant time to compete successfully with their German teachers; and, as for song, it is well known that Italian vocalists have become very scarce, and that Europeans have lately taken a great fancy to American singers, who may ultimately succeed in finding honor in their own country too.

Dr. Ritter gives detailed accounts of the earliest vocal and instrumental societies established in this country. To what factors he assigns special importance may be seen from the titles of the five periods into which he divides his history, viz.: Puritan Psalmody; The First American Composers; Establishment of the Boston Handel and Haydn Society, 1815; Introduction of Italian Opera, 1825; Establishment of the New York Philharmonic Society, 1842; Civil War. Among the most valuable features of the book are the tables giving a list of the most important works performed each year by the societies here mentioned and some others. By far the most significant *individual* factor in the development of music in America hardly receives sufficient attention. We mean Mr. Theodore Thomas, to whom only a page and a-half are devoted, whereas in proportion to his influence a whole chapter would not have been too much. Ever since he came to this country, almost forty years ago, Mr. Thomas has devoted his time and remarkable powers to the object of arousing an interest in good music. His standard was so high and his opposition to clap-trap and humbug so determined, that many were his disappointments, such as would have crushed a less energetic person. But he persevered, and to-day he stands recognized as one of the greatest conductors of the century and the most prominent musical figure in America. When he gave his famous symphony concerts in opposition to the Philharmonic Society, that association found that the only way out of their difficulties was to make a bold move and capture the general himself of the opposing army; and with him at the head this society in a short time became the equal of any European orchestra. Mr. Thomas not only, throughout his career, has endeavored to educate the metropolitan taste for classical and modern music, but has travelled with his orchestra all over the country, and thus produced an effect which is simply incalculable, since it is well known that nothing stimulates musical enthusiasm and a determination to study so much as the hearing of a perfect performance. Mr. Thomas's performances, too, have differed widely from those of most other travelling companies. It is customary to produce a new play or operetta in the metropolis with a good cast, a fine chorus, and a fair orchestra, so as to secure a long "run" and the favorable verdict of the press. Then the company is split up into several new ones, inferior performers are quietly substituted, and then sent north, south, west, and east to entertain provincial audiences, who must often wonder what those New York critics (whose articles are used as advertising puffs) *could* mean by praising such performances and such pieces, which, of course, lose all their good qualities by being thus misinterpreted. Mr. Thomas's procedure is very different from this. He does not, indeed, take his full orchestra into the country, but he takes as many as are needed, and they are the same men as are heard in New York, and all trained to perfection, or as near it as circumstances permit.

Of musical humbug there is unfortunately a great deal in this country. As Dr. Ritter observes, "some cities, and especially the rural

districts, are still the fat pastures on which an army of musical charlatans, ignoramuses, and cunning adventurers feed, under the names of convention conductors, leaders, organizers, lecturers, teachers, performers, &c." They profess to teach composition in a dozen lessons, singing or piano-playing in a month or two, and other atrocious impossibilities. Professor Ritter says he has a fund of amusing anecdotes and experiences illustrating the state of musical culture in America, which he promises to publish in a future volume of a more autobiographical cast. He has been criticised for omitting from his book the names of the more prominent American composers of the present day. But in the preface he states that he is engaged on a 'Dictionary of American Music and Musicians,' in which ample atonement will doubtless be made; and as all genuine artistic composition is of very recent date, it need not necessarily be included in a history of music. The only genuine *American* composer, whose songs are not mere outgrowths of European schools, is Stephen C. Foster. To him several appreciative and interesting pages are devoted, in which the relation of his compositions to the Southern negro melodies is pointed out. It is, indeed, a singular fact that these slave-songs are the only indigenous tunes we have. Folk-song there is none in America, and the author is inclined to attribute this also to Puritan influence; for "from the hearts of such people, in whose eyes an innocent smile, a merry laugh, was considered a sin, no naïve, cheerful, sweet melody could possibly spring."

Travels in Mexico, and Life Among the Mexicans. By Frederick A. Ober. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1884.

Mexico from the Material Standpoint. By Alexander D. Anderson. Washington: A. Brentano & Co.; New York: Brentano Bros. 1884.

Mr. Ober's book will hardly escape being considered belated. Five-sixths of it, as he tells us, was ready for the press a year ago, being based on the observations of a journey in '81-'82. "But perceiving a greater need of the public for full and authoritative statements regarding the resources of Mexico, and descriptions of the border region, . . . he laid aside his manuscript for a while and essayed another journey southward." It seems to us that the delay was but poorly made up for by the additional 100 pages which resulted. There is a tide in the affairs of books of this sort which it is well to take at the flood—certainly so if the main hope is to be led on to fortune by large sales. If Mr. Ober could have foreseen that, between the time of his journey and the time of his publishing, no less than fifteen books on Mexico would appear in English, some of them excellent pieces of work, it is probable that he would have been less indifferent to the growth of the beard in the shaving. As it is, he has allowed the field to be occupied by several dangerous competitors for public favor, and has permitted the lapse of time to vitiate some of his statements. It is rather amusing, for instance, to find him saying (p. 209) that he does "not fear to predict for 1883" a coffee crop of 10,000,000 pounds. This, for a book published in 1884, is a specimen of ex-post-facto prophecy quite after the heart of Kuenen.

Yet this unfortunate delay in publication ought not to blind us to the solid merits of the book. Its mechanical execution is altogether admirable, in fact sumptuous. The letter-press has that clearness and accuracy—if we except occasional slips in the Spanish, for which we presume Mr. Ober must bear the responsibility—which we are accustomed to expect at the hands of the University Press. Of the 190 illustrations, nearly all of the new ones are good, some real gems, while the reproductions have at least the charm of old friends. The style is not always as clear as one could wish, and sometimes drops into vulgarisms which may have been due to too great intimacy with the writer's friends the engineers; but, on the whole, is smooth and varied. There are passages giving striking descriptions. Take this as an instance: "In no country in the world can you pass so rapidly from zone to zone, from the blazing shores of the heated tropics to the region of perpetual winter, from the land of the palm and vine to that of the pine and lichen—for in twenty hours this can be accomplished, and the traveller may ascend a snow peak with the sands of the shore still upon his shoes." Who that has ever committed himself to the tender mercies of a Mexican "royal road" can fail to appreciate the following recipe for its manufacture? "Take one of our country lanes, cut ditches across it, dig deep pits in it, demolish a stone wall and cast it into the centre of it, run a few streams through it, and slush the whole over so that one can hardly keep his footing on it, and you have a Mexican country road in the rainy season."

Mr. Ober's accuracy, where he is not out of date, is highly commendable, and his close observation has hit upon many characteristic traits of Mexican life which tourists of less keen vision have passed over. He makes the curious mistake of putting the great Judas festival on Good Friday (p. 292), when its universal designation, *Sábado de Gloria*, should have taught him his error. He is wrong in saying that "no grave can be held longer than for a certain term of years" (page 265). Of the eleven cemeteries of Mexico City, all but one sell lots "á perpetuidad." Our author's botanical and archæological attainments stand him in good stead, and yield many an interesting identification. He does not, however, make good his somewhat boastful claim to have "enumerated and particularly described all the principal ruins and groups of ruins in Mexico" (p. 323, note). There are important ruins, within a day of Mexico City, which he does not mention.

The first part of the book, which recounts Mr. Ober's travels and explorations in Yucatan, constitutes one of its most interesting and original features. It is only the hardy tourist who goes further inland than Mérida. The single exception to be taken to this portion of the narrative is that it is not always possible, without close scrutiny, to be sure when Mr. Ober is telling us something which he himself has seen, and when he is taking a description from the older explorers. Thus one would be persuaded that some at least of his accounts of the Palenque ruins were given at first hand, were it not clear, from his itinerary, that he did not lie over a single steamer at Frontera. We do not at all wish to intimate that there is anything underhanded in this, but simply think it would have been better to draw the line a little more sharply between what is independent observation and what is borrowed description. Every traveller who is bold enough to defy the discomforts and dangers of the route to the great ruined cities comes back enthusiastic over the grandeur and suggestiveness of those enigmatic remains. We remember to have heard Prof. Alexander Agassiz declare that the ruins of Uxmal were the most stupendous thing of the kind in the Western hemisphere, not unworthy to be named beside the kindred glories of Karnak or Phylæ. Yet they are left almost absolutely unprotected, open to the most wholesale pillage, and undergoing rapid destruction. The Mexican Government has its face set too steadfastly toward the future to cast so much as a glance at these priceless treasures of the past. An appropriation of $100,000 would probably insure the preservation of what now remains, but everything has to make way for railway subsidies. If the riddle of these gigantic structures is ever to be truly read, the ruthless vandalism which is despoiling temple after temple, for the sake of building houses and fences (p 66), and which has already gone so far as to make some of the porticoes and façades figured and described by Stephens unrecognizable (p. 72), must somehow be stopped.

Whatever may be the case with these ruins of Yucatan, left so wholly on one side of all the frequented and comfortable routes of travel, it is certain that the new light poured upon the ruins of Central Mexico is calling for a revision of the older theories as to the high attainments of the Aztecs at the time of the conquest. Solis and Prescott are romancers, Wilson goes to the other extreme and abuses the privilege of doubting, as Milman said of Gibbon; yet the truth lies between the two and nearer Wilson than Prescott. Three hundred and fifty years, even with the holy intolerance of Spanish zealots thrown in, are not enough to account for the almost total lack of proof which the remains give of the extravagant and conflicting reports of the conquerors. It is almost incredible, on the face of it, to one who has seen the present Indian population of Mexico, patient, stolid, docile, tractable hewers of wood and drawers of water, that they can be the descendants of fierce and high-spirited warriors. Mr. Ober rightly emphasizes the possibility of valuable artistic results from the suggestions of historic association, natural scenery, and social customs which come to one from every quarter in Mexico. Unfortunately, native talent has thus far employed itself almost exclusively in "blindly copying saints, cherubs, angels, and ecclesiastics" (p. 326). Mrs. Foote's sketches in the *Century* of two years ago ought to serve as a hint, to painters, of the untrodden and delightful paths which await their feet in Mexico.

Mr. Anderson's pamphlet of 156 pages is a painstaking and conscientious compilation. His information is taken from the best authorities and is, so far as we have examined it, worthy of confidence. Yet we cannot help thinking that he wears rose-colored glasses. The question of the success of the thousand and one railroad enterprises, mining ventures, commercial undertakings, in which American capital is being so lavishly embarked, he does not consider to admit of argument. That Mexico is to see in the near future a wonderful development of her natural resources, and to experience a quickening of her whole national life, no one doubts. But it is easy to let one's fancy run away with him, when dealing with vast possibilities, and to overlook the necessity of gradual development, even in the nineteenth century. So it seems to us that Mr. Anderson does not give due weight to the objections to his argument, and rushes on to his wished-for conclusion with too great ease and certainty, as of a mathematical demonstration. He speaks with enthusiasm of the great undeveloped resources of Mexico in agriculture. Yet he scarcely alludes to the necessity of irrigation, the lack of facilities for which makes great stretches valueless, nor does he seem to be aware that all the really fertile and easily worked lands are already occupied. In like manner of mining. It is very tempting to read of the large annual production of gold and silver. But it ought to be remembered that the mining business is even more uncertain in Mexico than with us, and that, as is stated by good authority, fully as much foreign capital has been sunk in Mexican

mines, during this century, as has been taken from them. So, too, of the confident prediction that a limitless demand will soon spring up for our manufactured goods. It is, indeed, hard to be incredulous as the enthusiastic railroad agent displays before you his maps, and shows you how his line here strikes a city of 40,000 inhabitants, there one of 80,000, and just beyond one of 125,000. But you cannot forget that the Mexican census necessarily gets some color from the warm Southern imagination, and that, at best, two-thirds of these people have no wants, and are without the means to gratify them if they had them. So you must needs return a somewhat dubious answer to the eagerly urged question, Will it pay? and content yourself with that delightfully non-committal phrase of the country, which leaves all things to hope but nothing to promise, *Quien sabe?*

Epitome of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History. By Carl Ploetz. Translated, with extensive additions, by William H. Tillinghast. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

PLOETZ'S "Auszug aus der Geschichte" has long been known to all persons familiar with German instruction in history as altogether the best book of its kind now in use. It is almost too much to say "of its kind," for its peculiar value comes from the fact that it is quite of its own kind. A manual of history means generally either a dictionary of dates, or else an attempt to present in narrative form a connected view of the world's progress. Each of these forms has its place, but neither is quite what the instructor in history wants to put into the hands of his pupils. The mere list of dates is meagre. The brief narrative wearies and disgusts, while at the same time it encourages the pupil in the delusion that the whole story is, or ought to be, there between its covers.

Dr. Ploetz, a practical teacher for many years, saw this difficulty, and met it by producing a book which should lie just between these two extremes. He based his attempt on the sound theory that no book can replace the living word of the teacher, but that this living instruction must be accompanied by some solid preparation on the pupil's part. His book contains, therefore, whatever seemed to him necessary as a basis for more detailed instruction. It is first a dictionary of dates, so arranged by the aid of different types as to throw out into prominence the more important ones, and to show the subordination of the rest to them. But it is also a very successful effort to suggest more than the date and event. It aims to group facts about races and territories so as to show their essential connection. It traces by a word and a hint here and there the most important lines of intellectual and religious development. In short, it tries to answer just the leading questions which an intelligent pupil would be sure to ask at the outset of his studies.

We have said that this book presents whatever seemed to Dr. Ploetz necessary as a basis for instruction. No two men could possibly agree on just what was necessary for this purpose, and it was therefore natural that a man of independent scholarship, undertaking to put Ploetz into an English dress, would find much to add and something to omit. This is just what Mr. Tillinghast has done. Excellent as the original is, we have no hesitation in saying that the translation is a great improvement upon it. It contains considerably over a third more matter, mainly in the history of England and America, which were notably deficient in the original. China, Japan, and India also have been granted a space commensurate with their importance as factors in modern civilization. These are the absolute additions. Other portions are marked by the translator as having been considerably enlarged or changed. But, besides all this, it is evident upon every page that the work of translation has been done in no slavish spirit. Accurate and faithful where the original seemed sufficient for the purpose, the version departs from the text constantly wherever new light has been attainable. Practically, therefore, this is Mr. Tillinghast's work, based upon the plan and the text of Dr. Ploetz. While it is on some accounts to be regretted that the convenient form of the German manual had to be sacrificed, it would be hard to say what parts of the new volume we should be willing to miss.

Considering the great typographical difficulties arising from the use of several kinds of type, the errors are wonderfully few and of no real injury to the book. The result is a really beautiful piece of workmanship, a work destined, we believe, to become indispensable to every student and every teacher of history. Coming closely upon the recent volume of essays upon historical methods edited by Dr. Hall, it seems to mark an epoch in historical instruction in America. The day of untrained teachers and of unscientific methods, in this as in other fields of knowledge, is passing, and the time has come when scientific training will be a universal demand both in higher and lower teaching of this long-neglected subject.

A word of commendation should be given for the fidelity to the plan of the work shown in the chapters on the recent history of England and the United States contributed by Dr. Edward Channing.

La Vie Publique en Angleterre. Par Philippe Daryl. Deuxième édition. Paris: J. Hetzel et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

RECORDS of "impressions" are so abundant nowadays, that one takes up a new sample with a feeling of weary indifference. But the feeling soon disappears in the case of the present work. Anything more vivid and graphic than this Frenchman's pictures of English public life we have seldom taken in hand, and they are written in that crisp and animated style which makes the best French composition so attractive to read. The first chapter is a lively analysis of the difference between French and English current literature, especially novels. The author administers a very wholesome admonition to his countrymen, in pointing out that in England both writers and publishers aim at finding a place for their works on the open tables of all classes and ages, so that adults and young girls may frankly use the same material; and how much more valuable this practice is than, for the sake of mere artistic power (if it is such), to create a gulf between the two classes, and to make the older readers feel that their own pleasures must be carefully concealed from the younger if any purity of thought is to be preserved. We incline to the belief, or at any rate to the hope, that the greater freedom of the press under the Republic is gradually creating a reaction against the process which, extending through the two Empires and the Restoration, culminated in the filth of M. Zola. The chapters on the press will, we think, afford some new sensations, even to those who are most accustomed to the glorification of that mighty engine of modern civilization. Next follows the theatre, than which there is hardly any greater subject of contrast between England and France. M. Daryl is, however, much more complimentary than we should have expected to the English stage, and the fairness of the comparison makes it all the more interesting. "Philosophers and Poets" contains some graphic biographical sketches, but turns upon the idea that these classes, like other writers, aim to enter into the national spirit, to popularize their subjects, and to raise the general moral and intellectual tone of the people.

The second part treats of the Houses of Parliament, the elections, and the City of London. It is less entertaining and more historical, but in its sketches of individuals, notably of Bradlaugh and the Marquis of Hartington, maintains the full level. The author notes very acutely, in describing the Government leaders and the leader of the Opposition, that this is the particular in which constitutional government in Great Britain differs from any on the Continent, and, he might have added, in the United States. Instead of a "dictatorship of six hundred heads," or of anarchical factions pulling in every direction, Parliament is divided into two more or less well disciplined parties, following individual leaders whom they have chosen.

Part Third includes the Queen, the army and navy, and the courts. That the author does not seek to curry favor with the English is shown by the slight degree of reverence with which he treats her Majesty and, indeed, the House of Lords. This may come in part from the French spirit of democracy, but no doubt also from the Queen's deadly sin of "having a deep objection to French literature in all its branches." "The charming genius of France is a dead letter to this royal intelligence." M. Daryl's view of the British army is a good deal like that of the first Napoleon, that "the British infantry is the best in the world; luckily there is not much of it." A Frenchman would be likely to look with a more tolerant eye than a Russian upon the volunteers and the household troops, but both would conclude that the present military system of Great Britain mainly rests upon "the streak of silver sea."

Darwinism as Stated by Darwin Himself. Characteristic Passages from the Writings of Charles Darwin, Selected and Arranged by Nathan Sheppard. D. Appleton & Co. 1884. 8vo, pp. 357.

IT has been advertised that this volume has met with the approval of Mr. Darwin's family; it is also spoken of as by "Professor" Sheppard. But the selector's right to this title appears neither on the title-page nor in the character of the book; and we must think that "the approval of the family" is perhaps of as vague a nature The volume is very evidently not the work of a scientific man. It would seem that Mr. Sheppard (editor of 'The Dickens Reader,' 'Character Readings from George Eliot,' etc.), finding it impossible to make a 'Darwin Birthday Book' or even a 'Darwin Reader,' has contented himself with arranging "characteristic passages" in this less popular form for use at the fireside rather than in schools. The book is not worthless. It is at once, as Mr. Sheppard says, "authentic, brief, and inexpensive." It is not worthless, but it might easily be worth much more than it is; and Mr. Sheppard's assertion that "it cannot but be useful to those who are perfectly familiar with the writings of Darwin" has the least possible foundation. He adds that "it is designed especially for those who know little or nothing about his line of research and argument," and it is difficult to see how the same book can be of much value to both classes of readers. Its chief use, we think, will be among those who have read Darwin's books, but have not studied them, and do not own them. To such persons it will have the interest of any collection of long extracts.

As for its "special design," we should judge it, though unavowed, to be the recommending Darwinism to the "prejudiced"—the persuad-

ing them to swallow the salutary pill, presenting it as morality, and religion, and science, all mixed together and rolled into one. Mr. Sheppard speaks of "the fascination which will always be felt at the mention of [Darwin's] name," apparently conceiving "fascination" to be the emotion with which philosophic minds regard Aristotle or Sir Isaac Newton; and this "fascination" he seems to think will be increased by the perusal of a baker's dozen of short applauding judgments of "Darwin and his Theories from a Religious Point of View," which he prefixes to his volume—Darwin and his theories judged by the *Sunday-School Chronicle*, by President McCosh, by Canon Farrar!

Mr. Sheppard's part in the volume is strictly one of "arrangement." He has arranged Darwin's remarks on lines indicated by the titles and sub-titles of Darwin's books and chapters, but not by any means on precisely the lines on which Darwin himself marshalled them. And the result resembles what would be produced in an attempt to condense Gibbon by giving in alternate and repeated succession half his narrative of some battle, half his record of some legislation, and half his biography of some great man, the selections being intended (perhaps unconsciously) to demonstrate, not the course of history, but that the battle was necessary, the legislation wise, and the great man virtuous. Mr. Sheppard does not connect, even by an explanatory sentence, the passages he brings together. And with an accuracy which would be praiseworthy if it were not occasionally a little misleading, he retains even adverbs and conjunctions in their places. But he in this way sometimes forces a *thus*, or a *because*, or a *so* to perform a duty Mr. Darwin himself has not burdened it with, and slightly falsifies the truth of statement, to the regret of "those who are perfectly familiar with the writings of Darwin," and to the hindering of "those who know little or nothing about them."

Mr. Sheppard never, as we have just said, connects his chosen passages by an explanatory line, but he constantly breaks them by newspaper-like "headings," which, even when phrased in Darwin's own words, fail, for the most part, to define the subject neatly and delicately. His Table of Contents, therefore, has a singularly different tone from any in Mr. Darwin's volumes. We do not find in Mr. Darwin, for instance, "Letters retained in the spelling but useless in pronunciation," when it should be "Rudimentary organs may be compared to letters," etc. What is set forth by Mr. Sheppard in quotation marks (rightly) as "Characteristic Selfishness of Man," is entered by Mr. Darwin as "Attention paid by Savages to Ornament." Mr. Darwin's heading "Belief in God" flows from Mr. Sheppard's pen (still in literally correct quotation marks), "Ennobling Belief in God," and so throughout. But we lay down the book with a certain kindliness of regard, as we took it up with a certain hopefulness of interest; for if he is to be blessed who makes two blades of grass grow where there was but one before, he also may be thanked who, in any fashion, leads us to read again a page of Mr. Darwin's.

John Adams, the Statesman of the American Revolution. By Mellen Chamberlain. Boston: The Webster Historical Society. 1884.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S interesting monograph has two distinct claims to consideration. While it is a personal sketch of a somewhat familiar public character, it is at the same time a careful study of pre-Revolutionary tendencies, and gives especial prominence to the ecclesiastical issue as a leading cause of the Revolution. There is certainly nothing admirable in a certain type of historical investigation which aims merely to replace long-established theories with new ones. An accomplished living historian (Mr. James Gairdner, in his "Richard III.") has recently told his readers that he has become ashamed of his earlier efforts to prove "that traditional black was real historical white, or at worst a kind of gray." But Mr. Chamberlain's view of the pre-Revolutionary situation is much more than a "new view." Its basis may be found in the contemporary discussions of John Adams's own day; not merely in the sermons and letters of Jonathan Mayhew, Charles Chauncy, and Andrew Eliot, but in Samuel Adams's thoroughgoing letter of January 13, 1768, and John Adams's "Dissertation on the Canon and Feudal Law." Wherever the prevailing sentiment of the community was Puritan, it may well be believed that the conditions here described might very naturally exist. When, however, Mr. Chamberlain pronounces "ecclesiasticism a cause of the Revolution," he can hardly mean to indicate it as one which operated generally throughout the colonies. It was a far different set of conditions which gave rise to the Revolutionary movement in New York or in Pennsylvania; and different issues still are to be traced in the colonies further south. Even in Connecticut, where the ecclesiastical conditions were almost an exact reproduction of those in Massachusetts, the key to the situation is apparently not to be found in the fact that it was a Puritan community, but in the fact that, like the neighboring charter colony of Rhode Island, it was determined to maintain the privileges of local self-government guaranteed by its charter. On the other hand, the "apparent opposition to an American episcopate," which Mr. Chamberlain cites as existing in Virginia, is of uncommon interest when it is remembered that most of the Revolutionary leaders in that colony were connected with the Established Church.

The truth is, that no one theory is of itself sufficient to account for the Revolution. The substantial agreement and union which existed so early as 1776, and which made the Declaration of Independence possible in that year, are certainly remarkable, in view of the strikingly diverse conditions in which the Revolutionary movement had its springs, in the different colonies. We do not wholly share Mr. Chamberlain's strongly expressed conviction that there is so much "to unlearn" in studying the histories of this period. We would say, rather, that the partial views which too many of them present need to be supplemented by such discussions as shall exhibit in their just proportions other tendencies equally important. It can hardly be doubted that the American colonies have been too loosely regarded as uniform in their conditions and characteristics; it being assumed that the same set of theories and explanations will fit all alike. The study of these early political organizations as separate growths, with certain common tendencies, but with strongly marked individualism, has not been so common; though there are indications—and this very suggestive pamphlet is one of them—that the importance of such study is obtaining recognition.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Beard, O. T. Bristling with Thorns. A Story of War and Reconstruction. Detroit News Co.
Brands, O. M. Lessons on the Human Body. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Cheyne, Rev. T. K. Translation of the Book of Psalms. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Collier, P. Sorghum: its Culture and Manufacture Economically Considered. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $3.
Cornell, A. B. Biography of Ezra Cornell, Founder of Cornell University. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Dyer, Prof. Louis. The Greek Question and Answer. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Lamb, Mrs. Martha J. Wall Street in History. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Stretton, Hesba. Carola. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Roe, E. P. The Opening of a Chestnut Burr. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. 25 cents.
Smith, Rev. H. B. System of Christian Theology. Edited by Wm. S. Karr, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Todd, Lieut. A. The Campaigns of the Rebellion. Manhattan, Kan.: State Agricultural College.
Wilkinson, W. C. The Dance of Modern Society. Funk & Wagnalls. 60 cents.
White, T. E. The Lakeside Musings. Originally published in the Chicago *Tribune*. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.50.
The Pentateuch, or the Five Books of Moses. Milwaukee: A. M. & I. S. Moses. 30 cents.
Wright, Julia McNair. A Wife Hard Won. A love story. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Wherry, Rev. E. M. A Comprehensive Commentary on the Qurán: comprising Sale's Translation and Preliminary Discourse. Vol. II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Washburn, Rev. E. A. The Beatitudes, and Other Sermons. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.75.
Zöckler, Prof. O. Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften. Fifth half-volume. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck'schen Buchhandlung.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.—I.

THE dominant impression which the exhibition of the Academy leaves us, after a careful review of the 700 pictures exposed, is one of executive feebleness largely varied by sketchiness—or, rather, insufficiency of execution due to want of knowledge of nature—with here and there a noteworthy exception of faithful study and solid execution, but so few as hardly to modify the impression that it is an exhibition of the work of amateurs. An affectation of cleverness is too generally apparent, a most unmistakable indication that the body of the exhibitors care more to be thought experter than they really are, than to be sincere in their method or thorough in their results. It would be hard to find half a dozen pictures which bear evidence of exhaustive study of their subject—of a resolute attempt to know completely the material of which the picture is composed. Of the so-called pre-Raphaelite work there is nothing, and there is no need of anything, for the sole advantage of that intense investigation of nature's facts is as study, for the training of hand and thorough acquaintance with the parts of the subject-matter which enable the artist to express himself with facility and thoroughness. That none of this concentration and uncompromising struggle with nature and determination to get to the extreme limit of fidelity should be found in the younger men, is a discouraging symptom of our future art progress. The extreme realism in painting is not an end of art; but as matter of training, both for certainty of hand and complete knowledge of the material of which pictures are to be made, there is no evading it; and the young painter who cannot bring himself to it as matter of discipline and education will never go beyond the merely clever, the legerdemain of art, for which the French have coined the convenient word *chic*. The painter who is satisfied to work for *chic* may be left to flounder as he may; there is no real greatness in him or good work to be hoped for from him. All the great schools and all the great painters have begun in this absolute devotion to the faithful representation of their material, and with the most entire absence of any pretension to display of their own cleverness. Even Rubens, who can in no wise be considered a purist, began in a vein of elaborate rendering of detail which may be recommended even to American genius. To be clever or great is given a man; to be conscientious in training, sincere in study of the means of expression, which is the only way of fully developing the greatness, depends on the artist's will—on himself.

The only absolutely uncompromising study of nature, so far as we have yet observed in the exhibition, with exception of certain studies of still life, is the "Summer in France" of Henry P. Smith, No. 119, which the Hanging Committee has put where it can hardly be seen or studied. The color of Mr. Smith's picture is

faithful in a most remarkable degree; it is an absolutely honest record of the scene, and such a study as no man can make without getting better insight into nature and a firmer hand to follow her. The sea piece of Mr. Richards, No. 79, shows the advantage of the artist's long and faithful study of nature. Rarely have we seen so complete and accurate rendering of the particular phase of agitated sea as this: the habitual, every-day mood of the elements, with nothing dramatic or sensational—the waves coming in from the open, breaking on, and recoiling from, an iron-bound coast, the foam drawing out in the fine lines of the sea's spinning, the pale and uncertain green of the ocean woven in with foam and reflection of sky and rock and cloud—and all rendered without laboriousness, but free and rapid as the record of the unstable and uncertain element must be. But this freedom and this subtle truth could never be united without earlier labored and thorough study of the subtlest forms of water. The distance of Mr. Richards's picture is full of seaside poetry—the sunlight melting away the morning mists; and the massive distant cliffs, made huger and more imposing by the uncertainty of the fog, with the receding sea, so well and so consistently told. If we were to except to any part, it would not be on the score of fidelity, but of effectiveness—that the nearer rock masses are too much broken up—their fractures mar the breadth of the whole and the solemnity of the picture. A little unobtrusive study from nature, No. 302, by Frank Anderson, is the only other landscape work which we can find in the entire exhibition that attacks nature in the uncompromising, devoted spirit which seems to us so recommendable; and, if the work of a beginner, as it would seem to be, it is worthy of high praise not only for its sincerity and careful rendering of detail, but for the genuine feeling for color it shows. It is somewhat weak and uncertain in the extreme distance, which is a common defect of inexperience in studies of this kind, and which will work out.

In No. 686, "Woodland Brook," etc., by W. B. Baker, as in Mr. Richards's work, we recognize the riper result of the faithful study of nature, in the freedom and largeness of execution with which the detail is painted, the ready and rapid touch with which the foreground objects are given without in any way losing in quality of color. The intricacy of the shrunken stream finding its multitudinous channels among the stones and sedge of its autumn bed, the local color and character of the boulders which block its flow, the fallen leaves, and the broken material of a forest foreground, are all sufficiently well painted, and with a sure and ready hand, which can only have been made so by most careful study gone through in earlier years. The upper part of the picture, the foliage of the trees, and the glimpses of sky, showing through the tree tops, are unfortunately not in keeping with the spirit of the picture, and detract seriously from the *ensemble*. It is not that they are slightly painted in order to be less obtrusive, but that they are carelessly studied, and indifferently painted as a consequence, owing to want of knowledge or want of care for the completeness of the work, which, in either case, is a grave fault. The man who does not care for the completeness of his work cannot expect the public to care more for the work itself.

There is a treatment of detail which, in realistic work, is nobler than either the painstaking exactitude of Mr. Smith's art or the readier if not less faithful rendering of Messrs. Richards and Baker, namely, the suggestive method of masters like Bastien Le Page, and this seems to have been the aim of some of the exhibitors in the Academy, notably of Mr. Hovenden in No. 117, and of Mr. Bolton Jones in No. 128, works in which accident and the palette knife appear to play important rôles. In a great master like Le Page, where training has attained its highest results, this quality of suggestion of detail by apparently insufficient and very broad execution is the result of a profound knowledge of minute facts and an almost incomprehensible certainty and rapidity of hand, acquired in the only certain way—by severe and precise study of detail from nature. To hope to reach it by sheer accident, as Mr. Hovenden appears to have sought it laboriously, and Mr. Jones with more breadth, but hardly more completeness, is to deliver one's self to a will-o'-the-wisp. No good execution can be got at by any such means, and the successes of accident are sheer delusion—deception at the moment and paralysis in the future—to him who gives himself to their pursuit. A great master *may* do with a spatula, or with his thumb, if he will, more quickly and easily what he would otherwise have done with the brush; but until he can do it with the brush he cannot do it otherwise, and the effort of feebler men to catch in this way what they cannot render by simple and straightforward brush-work, is a pure waste of life. Mr. Jones is able to do with his pencil better work than is in this picture, and he ought to feel that it is not worth his while to sacrifice the genuine qualities of his pictures to the empty display of mere dexterity, which has no value whatever in the eyes of true taste. What men want is that a thing should be well done, and after that it is of minor importance how or how quickly it was done.

Mr. Smillie, in Nos. 214 and 174, in another way treats nature with the contempt that is not bred of familiarity. He mistakes largeness of treatment for want of detail, and his pictures, with certain fine qualities of color and general effect, are simply the beginning of what pictures of this class ought to be, the first stage of development, and by no means either finished pictures or motives of such value that they can dispense with finish. There are now and then landscape painters whose art is such that we overlook willingly the absence of truth to detail in the brilliancy of their motive or fervor of their imaginative powers; but from the landscape painter pure and simple, without imagination or deep poetic feeling, we ought to demand complete sincerity and as minute record of truth as he is capable of giving, and this is more than either of the Smillies gives us. They both can do better work and have done it.

Mr. McEntee redeems in part a careless and too conventional style of treatment of the detail of his pictures by a solemnity of feeling and breadth of effect which are not common among our landscape painters, and more suggestiveness in the treatment of his twilight effects. But in the large autumn landscape, No. 65, what justification is there for painting the foliage, admirable in general color, as if it were of some solid substance, through which no bird could ever fly, devoid of that quality which is the *sine qua non* of good foliage painting—openness, leafiness?

The laborious Sonntag again, while he follows the details of his landscape with patience, has grown conventional in touch; and stone, stick, and branch come pretty much the same to his brush. His arrangements are broad, but marred by the persistent glitter of his touch—too much sparkle, and sparkle not always in place.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1884.

The Week.

THE passionate desire of the Democrats for civil-service reform came out on Monday in the vote on the bill to abolish the four years' limit to the tenure of certain Federal offices. The majority for rejecting the unanimous report of the Committee in its favor was 141 to 99, of which only 27 were Republicans. The debate seems to have caused the wildest excitement among the Democrats, whose one strong political feeling seems to be hostility to any interference with the spoils system. On every other prominent question of the day they are lukewarm or indifferent. The only use of the four years' tenure is to furnish the Administration with a chance to give the office to a new man without having to give any reason for dismissing the old one. It also enables the office-jobbers to know for certain when there will be a vacancy, so that they can come to Washington and exert the "pressure" at the right time. It was condemned when enacted in 1820 by nearly every prominent man of the day of both parties, and has produced every one of the evils then predicted as likely to result from it.

State Conventions were held on April 16 in Pennsylvania and Illinois and three Southern States to appoint delegates to the National Republican Convention. The striking feature in the two Northern conventions was the perfunctory manner in which the one instructed its delegates to vote for Blaine and the other for Logan. It is very easy to see whether a body of this sort is heartily in favor of the thing it is set about to do, or whether it is merely registering a decree *pro forma*. In both cases the instructions were carried without opposition. In neither was there any forcible expression of confidence in the result. In Pennsylvania the "regulars" of the Cameron Machine had a majority of the delegates, as was proved by the only test vote which was taken. They defeated the Blaine men in the only important division that was had, by substituting the minority for the majority report on the Pittsburgh contested seats. The highest vote cast for delegate-at-large to the Chicago Convention was cast for James McManes, who has been under suspicion by the Blaine men from the beginning, and who defied the instructions of the State Convention at Chicago four years ago. It is apparent to the practised eye of the politician that beneath the instructions there was an array of hostility and an assemblage of doubt, and a looking forward to some other outcome than the nomination of Mr. Blaine at Chicago; all of which bodes no good to the "Plumed Knight." In the Illinois Convention the proceedings were similarly cut and dried. The only real outburst of enthusiasm was called up by the nomination of General Oglesby for Governor. This rugged veteran deserved all the applause he received. He had been cruelly treated by the party when he was set aside some years ago in favor of Logan as a candidate for re-election to the Senate. He is not, like Logan, an adept in the arts of the politician. He does not know how to use "patronage." The political machine is rather a bore to him. He is one of the sterling characters of the war and the anti-slavery movement, originally a Henry Clay Whig, a companion and follower of Lincoln, a passionate and rough debater on the stump, single-minded and "big-hearted." He is now well advanced in years, but there is a good deal of work left in him. That he will be elected by a sufficient majority there can be scarcely a doubt.

Conventions were held also in Alabama, South Carolina, and Tennessee. All were controlled by Federal office-holders, and all chose delegates in favor of Arthur. Such walking-machines, of course, carry no momentum. They bring numbers but not strength to the candidate for whom they cast their votes. It is customary for them to make valiant promises of victory if their candidate is nominated, but everybody knows it is not victory they are counting on in Alabama and Tennessee, but post-offices and collectorships and clerkships. Flanigan, of Texas, gave voice to the whole Southern mass at the last Convention when he exclaimed: "What are we here for, if not for the offices?" This guileless confession of faith was received with shouts of laughter from the galleries and the Northern delegates, and has finally passed into history. The Southern delegates who are ticketed to Chicago for Arthur are Flanigan men. Looking at the proceedings of the five conventions held on Wednesday week, we can see no evidence leading to the belief that either Blaine, Logan, or Arthur will receive the Chicago nomination. There is no heartiness in the support extended to either of them which is the presage of victory. If Mr. Blaine's character were unsullied, he would probably go to the Convention with a majority at his back, but if he has less than a majority in the beginning, he will have neither reserves nor recruits, and will soon fall out of sight. Those who are against Blaine know why they are against him. They are not open to persuasion. They are against him first, last, and all the time.

Mr. Blaine's "literary bureau" is kept very busy now, explaining that all developments which seem to show that his boom is on the wane are really signs that it is making progress. Several very ingenious bulletins of this sort were published on Monday by way of Washington. The statement having been sent abroad that the Iowa delegation would not be instructed for Blaine this year as it was in 1880, the hasty inference was drawn that there was a falling off in Blaine's strength in that State. How erroneous this view is, is shown by a "prominent Iowa man" whose explanation the bureau has obtained. He says it is true that the delegation will not be instructed, but it will be solidly for Blaine, and the omission of instructions will be due entirely to a growing "tendency to proceed carefully and with deliberation this year." As a matter of fact Blaine's strength in the State "has not been declining—if anything it has grown." The same thing is true of Kansas. All the Republicans there are for Blaine, and his nomination would be certain to make it the "banner Republican State," but it is thought to be wise policy to have no instructions this year. Some particularly irritating information about the falling off of Blaine enthusiasm in the historian's "home" has been published in the Boston newspapers recently, and this is thoroughly disposed of by a "member of the delegation" from Maine, who says: "Blaine is just as strong in Maine now as ever he was; if anything, he is stronger." In New Hampshire and Massachusetts, the "rank and file of the party is strongly in his favor," so that New England is practically solid for him. The real truth about the boom, therefore, as disclosed in these official bulletins, is that it has reached so high a state of development that its promoters are afraid to allow it to show its full strength. Wherever Blaine instructions are given it is to be understood that the Blaine sentiment is so strong that all efforts to restrain it have proved unavailing. Wherever Blaine instructions are not given, it is to be understood that they are withheld because the sentiment of the State is so unanimous for Blaine that instructions are unnecessary.

We are at a loss to understand the bitter and determined hostility of the *Times* to President Arthur and his political aspirations. For days and weeks its columns have bristled with headlines and paragraphs implying that to be "against Arthur" is the very summit and ideal of political merit. Nothing can be found in Mr. Arthur's Administration to justify such unreasoning rancor. The *Times* may think, as we do, that there are better candidates in the field, and that the nomination of Mr. Arthur would involve some risks to the party that might better be avoided. But if there are better candidates in the field, there are also much worse ones. If the nomination of Arthur would involve some risks, that of Blaine or Logan would involve far greater ones. The *Times* has, indeed, taken care to show that it is opposed to all three, but its tone implies that it deems Arthur the least desirable of all, whereas he is much to be preferred to either of his leading competitors. His Administration has been discreet, conservative, and cleanly. It will not suffer by comparison with any of its predecessors since Lincoln's. Indeed, it is above the average of *post-bellum* administrations in point of respectability. This fact cannot be rooted out of the public mind by newspaper asperities.

Secretary Folger's letter to Collector Duval, who tried to become a martyr by going out of office on the pretence that he was expected to support the President's candidacy against his honest convictions, is said by Mr. Blaine's friends to have given great comfort to the office-holders at the South, whose natural inclination is to support him, but who have hitherto

been afraid that if they did so it would cost them their places. Mr. Folger ought, however, to have put one thing more in his letter which would have, perhaps, destroyed their peace: he ought to have added that office-holders would not be allowed to abandon their work next June, and go off in swarms to attend political conventions. No private employer would permit the exodus among his clerks which will take place among the Government officials at the South this summer. All the prominent ones are going to Chicago to "shout" for somebody. They ought to be kept at home at their work. In any State in which the Republican party is so small that there is nobody to represent it at the Convention but office-holders, it will not hurt it to go unrepresented. In fact, the office-holders never go to a convention without hurting it greatly, because their business at conventions is, in the strictest sense of the term, private business.

The retirement of Mr. John Jay Knox from the office of Comptroller of the Currency is a loss to the public service of no common kind. The intelligence which he has brought to the complicated duties of his office has never been surpassed in any similar station, and has not been equalled in the particular station which he has so long filled. The national-banking system owes much of its present carefulness in detail management to his mastery of all the facts and principles of sound finance. His annual reports embrace perhaps the most complete and satisfactory arrangement of information needful to the business man, the student, and the legislator that has ever been furnished in this country on any economical subject. Mr. Knox resigns the Comptrollership to take the presidency of the National Bank of the Republic in this city.

The anti-Hungarian agitation in the Pennsylvania coal regions threatens now to produce a riot. The respectable portion of the community are said to be opposed to violence, but are also opposed to the Hungarians on sanitary grounds, fearing that the filthy habits which they have brought with them from Europe will produce a pestilence when the hot weather begins. They are therefore said to be secretly agitating for a mob in the interest of hygiene. The coal companies, on the other hand, in whose employ the filthy Hungarians are, declare that they will "treat all alike"—which means, we suppose, that they will call in the police and the troops, no matter who makes a disturbance. The curious belief in the efficacy of a mob to cure any social trouble seems to be in some parts of the country a marked feature of the day. In Cincinnati it was resorted to to effect an improvement in the jury system, and the Pennsylvanians seem to think that it will answer the purpose of a board of health. The fact is, that, as an instrument of government, a mob can be used for any purpose and at any time and place. The Hungarians have had their warning, and they have made no real effort to become clean.

It cannot be alleged that the Hungarians are heathens, or dark-colored, or do not come here to remain. What is charged against them is that they work for low wages, and live in a squalid and filthy manner. How this difficulty is to be got over it is hard to see. There is no standard of living which can be called American, and which a man can be compelled to adopt in order to entitle him to a residence in this country. Nor would it be possible to prescribe such a standard by legislation. All the newest comers have excited reprobation among the older ones on this score, except the first white settlers, who always lived better than their forerunners, the Indians. But the Irish have always been much complained of, and the Germans to some extent, by the native Americans, for not dressing better, and not keeping their houses in better order, and not having nicer "table manners." No one has hitherto thought of reforming these things by violence. The Hungarians, however, though probably not real Magyars, but Slovacks, or Wallachs, will probably defend the right to be dirty, like men. It is an ancient and inalienable right. No man can forfeit it except by becoming an inmate of a jail under a judicial proceeding. In that case he may lawfully be forcibly washed and compelled to put on clean clothing.

Great sympathy will be felt in many quarters for Mr. John J. Corneilson, a leading lawyer of Mt. Sterling, Ky., who had to cowhide Judge Reid of the Superior Court of that place, on Wednesday week, on account of a decision of the Court in which Mr. Corneilson's conduct of a case was severely reprehended. Judge Reid, before receiving his chastisement, pointed out to Mr. Corneilson that he had taken no part in the hearing or the judgment, and was absent when the decision was delivered; but Mr. Corneilson was in possession of "convincing and almost conclusive evidence that Judge Reid had been a traitor to his interests in the case named, and on the sly was doing all he could to slander him (Corneilson) to the other members of the Court." He accordingly caned him severely. The duty was made all the more painful by the fact that Judge Reid is an elder in Mr. Corneilson's church, and that it is hardly likely that Judge Reid will now be able to hold up his head in the community without murdering or trying to murder Mr. Corneilson. It is not long since a dissatisfied suitor, Buford by name, had to murder a judge of the Kentucky Court of Appeals, which shows that the bench of that State is really in great need of purification.

The dulness of the money market the past week was broken for an instant by a drop in sterling exchange below the gold-exporting point. Notwithstanding this, upwards of $2,500,000 which had already been taken for shipment was sent, the gold exports for the week being more than $5,000,000. The cause of the decline in sterling is attributed to a resumption of grain shipments. These have been small as compared with former years, but they show a considerable gain upon previous weeks of the present year. It is thus made to appear that there is still a market in which we can sell our surplus if we will accept the market price. This is no small encouragement, since it seemed at one time as though there were no bottom, the downward movement at Liverpool keeping even pace with that of Chicago. Another fact of the first importance is that the area of spring wheat sown this year will be larger than that of last year instead of smaller. This is made clear by the reports gathered from all parts of the spring-wheat territory by the Chicago *Tribune*. This state of things, so contrary to general anticipation, is explained in part by the large immigration to Dakota, where spring wheat is an indispensable crop, and in part by the fact that the farmers received high prices for their last year's crop, the bulk of the loss falling upon speculators. The price of wheat advanced nearly 3 cents at Chicago during the week, and that of corn 3¼. General trade shows no change, although the advance in raw cotton holds the market for cotton goods steady.

The stock market during the week has been unsettled by a simultaneous decline in all the Gould properties. Wabash, preferred and common, fell three points in one day, and recovered nothing. They declined again the following day. The sales were small, and there was no perceptible short selling. Missouri Pacific fell even more heavily, and Western Union touched the lowest price it has seen since the panic of 1873. The impression on the street is that Mr. Gould has got tired of holding the market up, and is unloading regardless of consequences. The Vanderbilt properties have been well sustained, and the Northern Pacifics have shown a slight advance in both stock and bond issues in consequence of large earnings for the first half of April. The earnings of other Northwestern railroads are satisfactory. Union Pacific, on the other hand, continues to show a serious loss as compared with former years, and the price of its stock has fallen below 67. This, for a property paying 7 per cent. dividend, seems very low. It betokens, of course, an apprehension on the part of investors that the competitive forces at work in the far West are too strong and too persistent to be soothed or overcome. The situation of the Trunk Line Pool is unchanged, and we hear no more of the "clearing-house plan" for the maintenance of rates, although it is understood that the project is still under consideration. The coal roads, which have held their own remarkably during the long and severe shrinkage on the Stock Exchange, have begun to feel the effects of the depression of the iron trade. Lackawanna declined two points, but is still nearly ten points higher than it was at the close of 1883. Reading fell off nearly four points, the agreement to restrict production having had no effect on the market either for coal or for stocks.

The appearance of Mr. A. Oakey Hall as a municipal reformer in London, warning the British against the proposed elaborate change in the government of London, is certainly one of the strangest incidents of a strange period. The despatch only gives a very meagre account of his objections to Sir William Harcourt's new bill, but they seem to be all included in the term centralization, to which his remembrance of the Tweed Ring, of which he was a member, makes him unalterably opposed. There are several things, however, which prevent his experience being

valuable for Londoners. One is, that there is not and will not be universal suffrage in London. Nobody but people who pay the direct tax known as poor-rate will vote. Another is, that the tradition that only men of education and good social standing are fit for office still has a strong hold on the English mind among all classes, and is likely to continue to have it till the constitution of English society has been greatly changed. A third is, that there is no Irish population in London, as there is in New York, accustomed to act blindly under a leader, and large enough to give a majority or nearly a majority at the polls. The production of a Kelly in London is impossible at present. In fact, we do not know yet what kind of person the English demagogue will be, or how he will be created. Neither the ancient demagogue Cleon, nor his modern counterpart, the ignorant humbug and blatherskite of which we have several specimens on this side of the water, has yet appeared in England. The men whom the Tories denounce as demagogues, such as Gladstone and Chamberlain, would be considered in New York too superfine and conservative for daily use.

The London parish vestries, which did a good deal of the municipal administration, and which the present bill sweeps out of existence, came nearer in their composition to our Board of Aldermen than anything yet witnessed in England since the abolition of the old municipal corporations in 1832; but we do not believe the liquor interest ever figured prominently in them, though it is in England a very powerful interest in politics, and counts for a good deal at a general election. It has not as yet, however, summoned courage to put its grogshopkeepers into office. The great brewers make a considerable figure in political and social life, and in Ireland have contributed one member to the peerage; but the retail dealer still lives modestly in the background.

It will not do to swallow all the news about the doings and plans of the Irish dynamiters, because their object is to excite alarm and uneasiness in England, and if they can do this by circulars, and proclamations, and rumors in the newspapers, it is, of course, much cheaper and safer than doing it by explosions. Patrick Joyce's manifesto is, doubtless, intended to take the place of a small explosion. But at the same time the probabilities seem undoubtedly strong that the Irish dynamiters have joined forces with the heterogeneous crowd of Continental malcontents, and have secured their aid in the construction of infernal machines. If the subject were not so horrible, there would be something comic in the discovery that the supplies of dynamite of late used by the Irish in England were procured from France, while the London press were calling for a change in the American law as the sole mode of cutting these supplies off. That Irish aid will be very valuable to the Continental conspirators there is little doubt, because probably no malcontents in the world are now as well off in money matters as the Irish. No others have as thriving a population as the Irish-Americans are to draw on for funds. The Russian Nihilists and the French and German Socialists are for the most part wretchedly poor, and are deserted by such of their associates as manage to reach prosperity in this country. The Irish hatred of England, however, is one of the anti-social passions on which worldly success seems to produce but little effect.

The news about the English dynamiters is getting to be nearly as confusing as the news from the Sudan. It is now said that the police have been unable to trace any connection between the French dynamiters and the late outrages or attempts at outrage in England. Moreover, it is denied that any dynamite factory has been discovered in the north of France. It will probably soon be denied that anybody takes small cakes of dynamite over to England sewed up in the lining of his clothes. The trial of the men lately arrested is said to promise "startling revelations." Several prominent Irishmen in France have been interviewed, and all but one condemn the dynamite policy *in toto*. The Dublin *United Irishman*, too, asks very reasonably why, in talking of the connection of the Irish-Americans with these things, no attention is paid to the fact that the most prominent and widely circulated Irish newspapers in this country give no countenance to the dynamite policy at all, and that the bulk of the Irish-Americans have probably no connection with it. The reasons are probably three in number. One is, that when you wish to discredit a community, it is always wise to single out its worst members as specimens of the whole. Another is, that the dynamite papers make a show in money subscriptions which greatly impresses the imagination, and affords good grounds for the belief that they must have very powerful numerical support. The third is, that Irish disapproval of the dynamiters, like Irish disapproval of the assassins, is apt to be very faint, if expressed at all.

Both the *Pall Mall Gazette* and Mr. Labouchere, in his amusing character of *Truth*, have made defences of the practice of publishing tittle-tattle, apropos of the "trouble" into which Mr. Edmund Yates has got himself. The *Pall Mall Gazette* says that Lord Coleridge himself, in spite of the severity with which he reprobated the practice in passing sentence on Yates, is in society a brilliant retailer of personal gossip, and has brought back from America a good many of the sort of stories about men and women which make the society journals attractive. There is no denying, too, that the talk of most people in society consists of gossip about persons, and that to a large proportion of those who have anything that can be called social life, personalities are the most interesting topic of conversation, and that any circle from which a heroic effort is made to exclude them, is apt to become very dull. But these defenders of newspaper tittle-tattle overlook the fact that in this, as in many other things, much depends on the degree to which it is carried. Gossip, like scores of other human amusements, becomes harmful by excess, and the objection to newspaper gossip is that it is nearly always excessive. Every man knows that his personal peculiarities, his looks, his character, his ability, his fortune, his tastes and surroundings are a frequent topic of chit-chat among his friends and acquaintances—that is, among the people whose houses he frequents, or who frequent his, or whom he meets at the houses of others of the same circle. These, however, do not number probably, in the case of the most sociable, or popular, or best known men, over 500 all told, and what they say about him he hardly ever hears. Most of what is said it would probably pain him to hear, either as being wounding to his self-love, or as indicating that more was known of his private affairs than he would like to have known.

When this tittle-tattle finds its way into print, however, it undergoes a very serious change. From being the gossip of a few score, it becomes the gossip of many thousands or millions. It deprives the victim of all refuge. It makes not only his wife and children, but the servants in his own house, participants in the joke or story against him, and follows him with ridicule or discredit to all hotels, watering-places, and steamboats in the civilized world. All this is of course still more cruelly true when the victim is a woman. Personal gossip has undoubtedly been from the earliest ages the chief amusement of mankind, and will probably continue to be so as long as humanity is the chief interest of human beings; but as long as it had to be spread by word of mouth it was comparatively harmless. The society newspapers have undertaken to erect factories in which gossip is prepared for the market and spread by steam machinery. Of course a great deal of the gossip turned out in this way is harmless, but any of it that is harmful is terribly harmful. The editorial oversights and mistakes, even if few in number, deal deadly wounds. To many people, too, even what an editor thinks a kindly "notice," with which any man or woman ought to be pleased, is undiluted pain, for there are some even yet to whom publicity of any kind is a simple calamity. They are probably becoming scarcer as the years go by, but they still linger among us in considerable numbers. Society editors find it hard to understand them, or sympathize with them, but they are none the less God's creatures, and are entitled to humane consideration.

General Gordon's account of his situation is at once pathetic and comic. He is in no particular danger. He has provisions for five months, and is only hemmed in by "500 determined and 2,000 ragtag Arabs." Five hundred men, however determined, cannot take the place or surround it, and the ragtag men can only capture couriers, and probably have no fire-arms. Moreover, the rising of the Nile next month will force them all to withdraw to a greater distance from the town, and make better navigation on the river. But he sorely wants a few men who can fight. He would take two or three thousand Turks if he cannot do better. In default of these he would like a million dollars, and invites American and British capitalists to subscribe. Here is a chance which ought to make the teeth of dealers in "futures" water. A Sudan loan is probably the finest chance they ever got, because there is more "future" in it than in all the pork and corn and cotton in the United States.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 16, to TUESDAY, April 22, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE United States Senate on Monday passed the Bankruptcy Bill by a vote of 32 to 15. The House, by a vote of 175 to 44, passed a bill creating a Bureau of Navigation to look after American commerce. The bill to remove the four years' limit to the terms of such Federal office-holders as postmasters, collectors, district attorneys, etc., was voted against by 114 Democrats and 27 Republicans, receiving 47 less than a majority.

The Senate on Friday, before passing the Post-office Appropriation Bill, increased it by $3,499,500, making the whole amount almost equal to fifty millions, the amount asked for by the Post-office Department for the year ending June, 1885. This includes an increase of $300,000 for the railway post-office clerks and large sums for mail transportation.

The House Committee on Appropriations on Monday decided to non-concur in the Senate amendments to the Naval and Post-office Appropriation Bills, whereby the aggregate sum was much increased.

The House bill increasing the pension list was passed on Monday, ayes 165, nays 57. It includes "every person specified in the several classes enumerated in the pension laws of the United States, who served in the field in the military or naval service in any war in which the United States has been engaged for a period of three months or more, and has an honorable discharge, and is not receiving a pension or a greater pension than that provided for herein, but who, by reason of any wound, injury, or disease which there is probable cause to believe originated in said service in line of duty, and not the result of his own misconduct or bad habits, or other known cause occurring since such service, is now disabled, in whole or in part, for procuring his subsistence by manual labor." On Tuesday there was a debate on the Tariff Bill. The House has decided to hold evening sessions hereafter, for debating that measure.

The House of Representatives on Saturday passed a bill establishing a Bureau of Labor Statistics, with a commissioner at its head. It is a scheme on the part of the Democrats to catch the labor vote.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights, and Measures on Wednesday unanimously agreed to report favorably the Lacey bill to prohibit the issue of Treasury notes of less than $5, and to provide for the issue of one, two, and five-dollar silver certificates. The provision of the original bill providing for the suspension of the coinage of the standard silver dollar when the amount of those dollars in the Treasury exceeds $20,000,000 (not held for redemption of silver certificates of the denominations of one and two dollars) was stricken out.

The House Committee on Ways and Means on Monday authorized Mr. Hurd to ask the House to suspend the rules and pass a bill reducing the duty on works of art to 10 per cent.

At a meeting of the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections on Monday it was decided to close the Copiah and Danville investigations.

Attorney-General Brewster on Thursday sent to the Senate a report on the compensation of the Government counsel in the Star-route cases. He does not think the amount they received was excessive. He says: "These prosecutions have not been without their usefulness either. I have been informed by the Post-office officials that they have saved the Government in that department alone $2,000,000 per annum."

President Arthur has referred to the Senate the question of the removal of Collector F. N. Wicker, of Key West, Fla., for alleged collusion with Aguero's band of Cuban filibusters, which recently sailed from Key West.

The Secretary of the Treasury and the Attorney-General have issued orders to their agents in the cities bordering on the Gulf of Mexico to keep a sharp lookout for Cuban insurgents, and to intercept any filibustering expedition bound for Cuba.

The Department of Justice at Washington has made an arrangement with John A. Walsh by which he will go to Washington to testify in regard to Kellogg in the Star-route cases. The case will be called on April 29, when Walsh will testify.

The Pennsylvania Republican State Convention met at Harrisburg on Wednesday. Galusha A. Grow was chosen permanent Chairman. The Committee on Resolutions was instructed by a vote of 200 to 37, before leaving the hall, to bring in a resolution naming James G. Blaine for President and Robert T. Lincoln for Vice-President. A platform was adopted with the usual high-tariff plank. It also recommends suspension of the standard silver-dollar coinage and the retirement of the trade dollar, endorses President Arthur's administration, mildly commends civil-service reform, and favors James G. Blaine for President, and Robert T. Lincoln for Vice-President. A test vote on the admission of certain delegates showed that the old Machine, under the leadership of Quay and Magee, was still in the ascendant, the vote being 128 to 117. Six delegates-at-large to the National Convention were elected. Although instructed to vote for Blaine, their personal sentiments are not strongly in his favor. Gen. E. S. Osborne was nominated for Congressman-at-Large.

The Alabama Republican State Convention elected twenty delegates to Chicago on Wednesday, nineteen of whom will vote for Arthur on the first ballot. The Illinois Republican State Convention nominated Richard J. Oglesby for Governor by acclamation. The delegates-at-large to the National Convention are instructed for Logan.

The Indiana Republican Convention on Thursday elected four delegates-at-large to Chicago. They favor Edmunds, Harrison, and Gresham. Delaware elected five Blaine and one Arthur delegate. Of the Tennessee Republican delegates eighteen are said to be for Arthur, four for Blaine, and one for Logan.

At the New Jersey Republican Convention on Thursday a strong anti-Blaine sentiment was developed. Of the four delegates-at-large, Phelps is for Blaine, Ford for Edmunds, Sewell and Gardner "for the best man." The platform contains a strong civil-service reform plank.

The South Carolina Republican Convention on Wednesday selected delegates to the National Convention. Most of them are negroes and uninstructed. President Arthur's Administration was endorsed.

Tilden delegates were elected on Thursday by the West Virginia Democratic Convention.

The conventions in this city called to elect Congressional district delegates to the Republican National Convention were held Saturday night. Fifteen of the sixteen delegates chosen are nominally in favor of President Arthur's nomination.

The General Street Railway Bill was passed by the Assembly at Albany on Thursday by a vote of 79 to 45, after one of the most disgraceful lobby scenes that have been known in a decade. The agents of the rival cable and surface roads were present in force, and shameless in their solicitations. They were driven from the Assembly Chamber by order of the House, but plied their trade near by. Before the final passage of the bill several amendments were adopted removing certain objectionable features. At Albany on Tuesday, the Senate concurred in the Assembly amendments, and finally passed the bill.

Sheriff Davidson, of this city, was acquitted, on Thursday, of the charges of extortion and grand larceny. The Sheriff announces that, so far as it is in his power, any irregularities in his office shall cease from this time forward.

The Chicago Civil-Service Reform Association has sent to each of the Chicago Congressmen a circular asking them to support the bill repealing the four years' limitation upon the term of certain Federal officers.

A riot took place at Braddock, Pa., on Thursday morning between Poles and Hungarians, employed at steel works there. Three men were injured. The riot was the result of race hatred. The mob was dispersed by an organized body of citizens.

The steamship *Oregon*, of the Guion Line, arrived off Fire Island at 4:42 P. M. on Saturday, having made the quickest trip on record between Queenstown and New York. She made the run of 2,861 miles in six days, ten hours, and ten minutes, an average of 18.57 miles per hour.

A distinguished audience attended the formal memorial service in honor of Wendell Phillips at Boston on Friday. A prayer was offered by the Rev. M. J. Savage, and an original poem was read, written by Mrs. Mary E. Blake. Mr. G. W. Curtis was about three-quarters of an hour in delivering his oration, which is highly praised for its eloquence and just analysis of the great orator's character.

Mr. Thomas G. Appleton, of Boston, died in this city on Thursday, at the age of seventy-two. He was a brother-in-law of the poet Longfellow. For many years he has been distinguished as an intellectual man, a wit, a writer for the press, and an artist. He was wealthy and gave liberally to Boston charities.

Alvin J. Johnson, a well-known publisher of this city, died on Tuesday, at the age of 58. His most important enterprise was Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia.

FOREIGN.

At 9:30 o'clock on Tuesday morning an earthquake shock of considerable force was felt in the eastern counties of England. Localities in Essex and Suffolk were the scenes of greatest disturbance. At Ipswich, the capital of Suffolk County, the shock was so severe that the walls of the houses were perceptibly shaken. Colchester in Essex was the centre of the most serious disturbance. The concussions lasted half a minute. All buildings were shaken. The tall chimney stacks of the factories crashed to the earth, and other lofty structures were destroyed. The spire of one of the largest churches in the city, 150 feet in height, fell to the ground. In one part of the town a fire was caused by the shock. In private houses furniture was overturned and broken. The people were terror-stricken. The shock was also felt at Chelmsford, Southend, and Shoeburyness. In London there were numerous indications of the proximity of the earthquake. The telegraph instruments were shaken, and the shock was distinctly felt in Cheapside and Fleet Street.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday George J. Dodson (after making a report on the appearance of cattle disease in Cambridgeshire, which, however, he showed not to have come from America) made a motion to restore the Cattle Bill to the original form in which it was introduced in the House of Lords by Baron Carlingford. The bill as amended went too far, and would hamper trade. It was understood that the Government attached great importance to Mr. Dodson's motion, which was, nevertheless, rejected by a vote of 185 to 161. Eighteen Parnellites voted against the Government. The Government asked for time to consider the position in which they were placed by the vote. On Friday they will state the course they intend to pursue.

There are rumors of the early retirement of Mr. Parnell from the leadership of the Irish Nationalist party. Two reasons for this step are assigned—one, that he is tired of Parliamentary life, and the other that the party is wearied of him.

A number of rifle cartridges were found on Tuesday at the Four Courts, Dublin. The officers of the court and the jurors have received threatening letters. A notice has been found in Phœnix Park, near the spot where Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under-Secretary Burke were assassinated, declaring that the Invincibles are impregnable.

The activity of the Irish Anarchists in France continues unabated. The funds of Fenian agents in Paris have been recently augmented by the receipt of $3,000 from America. Small packets of dynamite have been forwarded from France to England, amounting in the past three weeks to a total of 250 pounds. A girl carried most of it across the chann l. The dynamiters in England are opposed to isolated attempts. They contemplate a general explosion in various parts of the country on a certain day and hour. The total amount of the dynamite fund is £16,600. £4,000 has been expended in the various dynamite attempts, and for the defence of the dynamiters who have been arrested.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* has had interviews with prominent Irishmen in the French capital. Patrick Casey is strongly in favor of the dynamite policy, and upholds the Irish Invincibles in the doctrines they avow and the course they pursue. He declares it probable that the dynamite policy will be extended to the blowing up of Atlantic passenger steamers, and afterward of merchantmen, thus ruining England's commerce. James Stephens and John O'Leary condemn the dynamite policy, but advocate an armed revolution.

James Stephens is discussing in Paris with prominent Irishmen the formation of a new Irish party, which shall embrace the societies now existing which disapprove Mr. Parnell's theories as well as those which oppose the use of dynamite, the object being to secure united action. A conference will soon be held in Paris to decide upon the platform and future operations of the new party.

The Paris police authorities have decided to expel from France two Austrian Socialists who were recently arrested. The police believe that they will presently have secured sufficient evidence to justify the expulsion of several prominent Irish-Americans. On the other hand, it is reported that the French authorities deny that they intend to expel suspects. No trace has been found of the reported dynamite factories in the North of France. The English detectives have failed to connect any of the Irish-American suspects in France with the plots.

The celebration of the tercentenary of the foundation of Edinburgh University was continued on Thursday by the conferring of honorary degrees to the number of 120. The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon the notable visitors. Among this number were Mr. James Russell Lowell, the American Minister, and M. de Lesseps, who were loudly applauded. Among those honored with the degree of D.D. was Professor William Henry Green, of Princeton. Mr. James Russell Lowell made a speech at the celebration on Friday, expressing the pleasure which he, who had been a teacher for twenty years, felt at meeting the students face to face. He dwelt on the importance of the teacher's position and the responsibilities of youth. The celebration was brought to a close on that day with an illumination of the city.

Queen Victoria was on Saturday reported ill at Darmstadt. She was better on Sunday.

A despatch from Khartum to the London *Times* dated April 7th said: "The people are heart-sick of hoping for English relief. The town is now in the centre of an enormous rebel camp. Our Krupp munition is rather short. The situation is critical. The rebels have frustrated an attempt to send a steamer to Berber." An English lady at Cairo on Thursday offered a reward of $100,000 for the rescue of General Gordon.

Gordon telegraphed under date of April 9th that a merchant had reached Khartum from El Obeid after a journey of twelve days. The merchant reports that the Tegeba tribes had twice defeated El Mahdi, who suffered heavy losses, and that El Mahdi is now as completely hemmed in as General Gordon is. This is doubted.

Under date of April 9, the foreign consuls at Khartum report that General Gordon considers that the time for retreating has arrived. He will send with Colonel Stewart and Vice-Consul Power, who are to return to Lower Egypt by way of Abyssinia, all foreigners who choose to accompany them. He himself has no intention of retiring. He hopes that England will yet send him aid.

General Gordon telegraphed on Thursday to Sir Evelyn Baring that his position was hopeless unless Zebehr Pasha were sent to Khartum immediately. Zebehr Pasha is willing to go to Khartum and act under the authority of the Khedive, but not under General Gordon. The British Government will not send Zebehr.

It was reported from Cairo on Sunday that General Gordon had given notice to the British Government that hereafter, owing to the difficulty of sending messages, he would act on his own responsibility. General Gordon telegraphed as follows to Sir Samuel Baker, under date of April 8: "We have provisions for five months, but we are hemmed in by 500 determined and 2,000 ragtag Arabs. Our position will be much better when the Nile rises. Senaar, Kassala, Dongola, and Berber are quite safe for the present. Do you think that if an appeal was made to the millionaires of England and the United States for £200,000 it would be available?"

It was telegraphed from Cairo to a London newspaper on Monday that General Gordon had sent a telegram to Sir Evelyn Baring expressing the utmost indignation at having been abandoned by the British Government, and asserting that he would act independently. It is believed in Cairo that the Government has determined to despatch the utmost available force of all arms of the Egyptian army to Khartum. It is hoped that the force will be ready to start in six weeks.

Three hundred Egyptian troops and six hundred non-combatants, preferring to make the hazardous attempt to march to Berber to starving inside of Shendy, set out a few days ago from the latter place. Part of the number went slowly by steamer down the river, while the others marched along the river bank. When two hours' distance from Shendy they were attacked by Arabs, and, after a short fight, all the troops excepting a few were massacred. The Arabs afterward captured Shendy. Few escaped the general massacre. Two thousand men, women, and children were slaughtered. Many of them were refugees from Khartum.

There was a rumor at Cairo on Tuesday that the rebels had captured Berber.

The London *Times* on Wednesday announced that Mr. Henry M. Stanley, the African explorer, had resolved, before leaving Africa, to reach from the Congo country one of the Egyptian stations in the Monbuttu country, on the River Welle. This is the task that General Gordon was intending to attempt before he was diverted to Khartum.

A Paris newspaper asserts that M. de Brazza, the French explorer in the Congo country, has signed a treaty with the "most powerful sovereign in Western Africa," who has placed all the right bank of the Congo, from Brazzaville to the Equator, under the protection of France.

General Millot, commander of the French forces in Tonquin, in a telegram dated Hanoi, April 16, said: "The enemy has again been encountered not far from Hunghoa, and completed routed. After the engagement we destroyed the citadels of Phu-lam-tram, where the leaders of the Black Flags had taken refuge. Our forces are now following the right bank of the river Dai with the object of threatening the enemy in the south and obtaining redress for the massacre of the missionaries. The Black Flags have withdrawn to northern Tonquin."

In a recent speech at Périgueux, Prime Minister Ferry of France gave a general discussion of the present political situation in France. He said that most of the foreign questions which were awaiting solution when he assumed office had been settled. He spoke in high praise of the gallantry of the French troops in Tonquin, and said that to it was due the settlement of the troublesome Tonquin question. Coming nearer home, the speaker said France could never allow foreign interference with her legitimate interests in Europe. In his opinion, French democracy could exercise a peaceful and salutary influence on Europe, which had suffered in the past from a failure to preserve a proper balance of power. The true policy of France should be to continue firm and steadfast in her present course. The time had now arrived, the speaker thought, when the country was ready to discuss the revision of the Constitution. The Government was desirous of such a revision, but thought it should be moderate and based upon the actual terms of the Constitution at present in force.

The appointment of Prince Chun, the Emperor's father, to the control of the Grand Council of the Empire of China, has met with great opposition, but the Empress has overruled it. The anti-foreign party is now in the ascendant.

Monsignor Rende, the Papal Nuncio, has returned to Paris from Rome, charged with a special mission to Prime Minister Ferry, which is expected to influence the future relations of France and the Vatican. Rumors are again afloat to the effect that the Pope will presently seek an asylum in France.

At a Spanish Cabinet council on April 15, the King expressed his fears that the United States might refuse to take cognizance of the protest forwarded by the Spanish Government on account of Aguero's escape, and at first opposed the presentation by Señor Valera of the protest to the Washington Government. Señor Canovas del Castillo, however, carried his point, and the instructions were forwarded.

The Spanish Government has taken into serious consideration the subject of the economic crisis in Cuba, and is preparing radical reforms in Cuban affairs. Expenses are to be reduced from $36,000,000 to $27,000,000 per year.

The Nihilist organ, the *Messenger of the Will of the People*, which has a large circulation in Russia, will soon publish an article by Degaieff, the leader of the assassins of Lieutenant-Colonel Sudeikin, describing the latter's character, which is portrayed as a type of the social and political immorality of Russia. He was an adventurer, utterly unscrupulous, and aimed at the office of Minister of the Interior and the dictatorship of Russia.

Dr. Windthorst, leader of the Ultramontane party, intends to move in the German Reichstag an amendment to the bill prolonging the anti-Socialist law which will render it more lenient. He will also move a resolution proposing that the penal laws, and especially the press law, be made more stringent so as more efficiently to combat social democracy. He intends further to ask the House to consider the penal law which deals with the illegal use of explosives.

The Mexican Government is negotiating with the representative of the Franco-Egyptian Bank in the City of Mexico, for a loan of $20,000,000, $10,000,000 to be paid to the present administration and $10,000,000 to the incoming administration.

NEW YORK IN NATIONAL POLITICS.

A MORNING contemporary, discussing the Utica Convention, says that "every Republican vote will be wanted in November." This is quite true. New York will be the most influential State of the sisterhood at both the National Conventions to be held this year. Her influence is not measured by the number of her population merely, but is much greater by reason of the balance-of-power vote which she holds between the two political parties. Even this does not measure her full importance. If she were strongly Republican, or strongly Democratic, she would count only for the number of votes she is entitled to cast in the Electoral College ; but being doubtful as well as preponderant, her position is such that each party must take her for the starting point of all its calculations, and, in choosing a candidate, must satisfy or seek to satisfy the voters of this State before consulting the preferences of any other. Ohio holds the place next in importance to that of New York, being the only "October State," but she is of less consequence because she has never deviated from her fidelity to the Republican party in national elections, and also because her vote is not absolutely requisite to the success of either party. The party which carries New York can dispense with Ohio. Neither party can afford to lose New York, or to put her vote needlessly at risk. She is the political *sine qua non* of the Union.

This peculiar position is the result of circumstances—the circumstance that votes of the States are cast each as a unit, that of New York being very large ; and the circumstance that all the Southern States are Democratic, while most of the Northern ones are Republican. The citizens of New York have never been elated by their disproportionate political importance. Their sense of responsibility has perhaps been heightened by it. The growth of the independent vote in the State, which is by no means confined to persons of Republican antecedents, is due, in part at least, to the fact that independent voting can be made tremendously effective. That it has become so is recognized on all hands. The issues which have divided parties for a whole generation are so far decayed and withered that the most puzzling question a voter can ask himself is, what *principles* he expects to sustain and uphold by his vote. If a Republican asks himself this question and pursues it to a logical answer, he will probably conclude that his only reason, aside from the force of habit, for voting as he does, is that the Republican party embraces the major part of the educated, sober, honest, and law-abiding class in the community, while the Democratic party embodies the larger share of the ignorance, drunkenness, knavery, and unthrift. Not that there is any distinct party line separating the vicious and unprincipled from the pure and good, but that there is, in the belief of most Republicans, a preponderance of the latter in their own party. Nevertheless, the feeling that the worst Republican is better than the best Democrat is not nearly so common anywhere as it was a few years ago, and it is less common in New York than in some other States where all possible wickedness is freely ascribed to the Democrats, because they have never had the opportunity as office-holders to show how much mischief they are capable of. The State administrations of Tilden, Robinson, and Cleveland have been as respectable and conservative as those of Fenton, Dix, and Cornell.

Because New York is a pivotal State, because she has a large and growing independent vote which perceives no difference between the two parties, except as the Republican party is believed to embody the larger share of thinking, steady-going people, it is of the first importance that no shock should be given to this belief by the nomination of a questionable candidate for President. The Democrats can bring their rank and file up to the support of a shady character much more readily than the Republicans. The Democrats could nominate such a candidate as Butler with much less risk than the Republicans would incur in nominating Blaine. If it be true, therefore, that "every Republican vote will be wanted in November," the Utica Convention (in session as we go to press) should be careful not to choose delegates to Chicago committed to a candidate whose nomination would lead to instant and fierce rebellion in the party. Mr. Blaine is the one candidate about whom the minds of the great body of New York Independents is made up. What they know of him they have learned from his own testimony, and not from the accusations of enemies. Their misgivings are, therefore, unappeasable. Their repugnance toward him is more deep-seated and irreconcilable than it is toward Mr. Arthur. The nomination of the latter would not lead to rupture or revolt in the party. The nomination of the former would. It would give the State to the Democrats by the largest majority that has been cast for any Presidential candidate since the war. It will be useful for the Utica Convention to remember that Garfield's majority in the State was only 0.27 of one per cent., equal to about one vote in 350. Not to mention more recent elections, it is worth asking whether there is any margin in such a majority to warrant the taking of unnecessary risks in an election at which "every Republican vote will be wanted in November."

"VINDICATION."

WE print elsewhere another communication from the correspondent whose inquiries led us a week ago to reproduce the chief objections to Mr. Blaine's nomination for the Presidency. About Mr. Holmes's dislike of what he calls "insinuations in regard to Mr. Blaine's ability, his book, his living in Washington rather than in Maine," and so forth, nothing needs to be said except that it is Mr. Blaine and his buglers who keep this sort of gossip going in the press; and that anybody who professes not to know what they mean by it is too guileless a person to be argued with. Freedom from newspaper notice of his sayings and doings is as much within Mr. Blaine's reach as that of any other man in the community. The reason he gets too much of it is that he thinks a good deal of it useful to him just now.

The important point in Mr. Holmes's letter is the stress he lays on Mr. Blaine's election to the Senate in Maine, after the publication of the Mulligan charges, as a "vindication." The loose way in which this term has been employed in politics of late years has made it very useful to a certain class of statesmen, and we are glad therefore to have an opportunity of defining its meaning. A man who is accused of wrong-doing may be "vindicated" in either of two ways. He may show that the charge is untrue, or that some persons in whose estimation it was expected to injure him attach no importance to it. We believe the dictionaries will justify the application of the word to both of these processes. But they are very different processes, and politicians when they get into trouble have of late been in the habit of shifting the term from one to the other, as best suits their purpose or their needs. One of them may be called vindication by proof, and the other vindication by hurrah. A member of Congress, for instance, is charged with corruption. He has absolutely no defence on the merits; but he goes back to his district, and, by a skilful use of his machine, a careful avoidance of all discussion of the charge, and a vigorous fanning of the enthusiasm of his personal followers, he may secure the latter kind of vindication; or, in other words, may prove that the charge has not damaged him with his constituents sufficiently to prevent his reëlection. But this vindication may be due either to the ignorance of his constituents about the charge, or to their unwillingness to undergo the mental trouble of inquiring into it, or to the lowness of their own moral standards. Illustrations of this are fresh in everybody's memory.

Tweed was vindicated in this way by reelection to the State Senate after his frauds had been exposed. When the late Judge Barnard had been convicted on impeachment, and his sentence was under discussion, the question of inflicting the extreme penalty of perpetual disqualification for office was decided in the affirmative, largely, we believe, under the influence of the consideration that, if it were not inflicted, he would go back to the very scene of his enormities and get himself vindicated by a reëlection to the bench. Vindications of this sort occur in this city every year. Elsewhere Robeson has thus been vindicated; so has Keifer; so has Benjamin F. Butler; so have many others. There is hardly anything in the way of vindication that a well-organized machine may not be made to do in many small constituencies, as long as the master hand has hold of the crank. In fact, the use of the electoral machinery for this purpose is one of the greatest triumphs of modern political management. But, of course, as soon as he has achieved it, a politician always turns round and begins to use the term vindication in the other sense, as proof that the charge against him was really untrue. He talks of his renomination or reëlection exactly as if it were the submission of the accusation against him to a competent tribunal, and its dismissal after a careful examination of all the facts. In other words, he describes as a verdict of "Not guilty" what was really a verdict of "We did not know much about the matter, and

took no trouble to inform ourselves, and, anyhow, did not care a cent whether the charge was true or false."

This vindication by hurrah can only, however, be made to take the place of vindication by proof in small constituencies, where the candidate has some personal hold on the imagination, or affection, or pockets of the voters. It cannot be safely tried by any man outside what in political parlance is called his "home." Before other constituencies than his friends and neighbors, and especially before the vast constituency known as the nation, nothing will save a public man but vindication by proof. In that forum he has to face the conscience of the whole people, and no defences but defences on the merits are allowable. It would be a sorry day for the United States if it were possible to convert the election of the highest officer of the Government into a vindication by hurrah, and we may be sure no such phenomenon will be witnessed. Anybody who asks for the suffrages of the American people must have a real answer on the merits to any charge of personal or political baseness that may be brought against him. He cannot dispose of it by ignoring it, or mentioning the names of friends of his who do not believe it.

In fact, it is for every party the soundest policy to discourage the claims of champions who have even ill-founded accusations long standing against them. From "campaign charges," started at the opening of the canvass, or in the heat of it, of course no candidate can be protected; but such charges seldom injure anybody. But accusations which have long hung over a man's head, and which, for whatever reason, whether his misfortune or his guilt, he has been unable to refute, ought to constitute an absolute bar to a Presidential nomination. No man, however gifted or valuable, or ill used, has any right to have the Presidential canvass turned into a judicial inquiry into his personal or political honesty. There are tribunals created for the express purpose of carrying on such inquiries, and to them any politician who feels badly the need of investigation ought to resort. Mr. Blaine in all his troubles has avoided this method of redress. The only answer he has ever vouchsafed to the damaging revelations of his own letters is, that the Committee before which they were produced was largely composed of "rebel brigadiers." His political supporters are now, after having had seven years to think over it, unable to do any better. They are quite ready to talk about the scandals with which nobody has ever said he was connected—of which we admit there are thousands; but about the scandal which is really damaging him they are as silent as the grave.

THE PROPOSED COURT OF APPEALS.

THE Davis bill for the relief of the Supreme Court, substantially in the form in which it passed the Senate last year, has been reported by the Judiciary Committee of that body. It provides for the appointment of two additional judges in each circuit, and the creation of a Court of Appeals in each of them which shall relieve the Supreme Court by stopping and disposing of business on its way there. As there are nine circuits, the bill will make necessary the appointment of eighteen more Circuit Judges. The Court of Appeals is to consist of the Supreme Court Justice assigned to the circuit, the Circuit Judges and two of the District Judges (to be designated by an order of the Court). Any four of them are to constitute a quorum. In this circuit, for instance, embracing the districts of Vermont, Connecticut, and New York, the Court would consist of Judge Blatchford, Judge Wallace, any two of the following District Judges, viz.: Judges Coxe, Brown, and Benedict, of New York, Judge Wheeler, of Vermont, Judge Shipman, of Connecticut, and the two new judges. As Judge Blatchford's time is fully occupied with his work at Washington, the Court would usually consist of any four of these excepting him.

The right of appeal to this Court from the Circuit or District Court will exist in all cases where the property in dispute exceeds $500 in value, or when the court below shall certify that the matter involved is of sufficient importance to warrant an appeal. The decisions of the proposed Court of Appeals are in almost all cases to be final upon questions of fact, but a review upon the law may be had upon writ of error or appeal, in the manner now provided by law, to the Supreme Court of the United States, in cases where the matter in controversy exceeds in value $10,000, exclusive of costs, or where the adjudication involves a legal question of sufficient importance to require that the final decision should be made by the Supreme Court, or a question upon the construction of the Constitution, or of the construction or validity of a treaty or of a law of the United States. In patent or copyright cases in equity, a review by the Supreme Court may be had, without regard to the amount in dispute, upon questions of law or fact, provided that the Court of Appeals shall certify that the question involved is of sufficient importance to render it proper that the final decision thereof should be made by the Supreme Court.

The imposition of the $10,000 limit is, as we understand the matter, useless and otherwise open to criticism. The only reason for its introduction ever put forward was that it would relieve the Supreme Court. But if the Judges of the Court of Appeal are to have the right to certify cases to the Supreme Court without regard to the amount involved, the limit seems to become of no value. Why should an $11,000 case go to Washington as a matter of right, without regard to the triviality of the questions involved, while a $9,000 case, involving the same questions, is refused access to the Supreme Court, on account of the triviality of these questions? Further than this, it is now urged by the friends of the $10,000 limit that, as a matter of fact, the expense of taking a case to Washington, without any intermediate Court of Appeal, is so great that unless something like $10,000 is involved it does not go there; and this may very likely be the case. But then, if a heavy pecuniary limit is fixed by the circumstances of the case, why put one in the act at all, when the only effect of it is to enable the enemies of the scheme to raise the cry that the Supreme Court is to be made a "rich man's court"?

It is rather startling that within a very few years, after adding nine new Circuit Judges to the Federal judiciary in order to relieve the Supreme Court, we should now be called upon to add eighteen more, besides new appeal machinery for the same purpose, the condition of the Supreme Court being worse than ever. The Federal bench will, if the bill pass, be well equipped. With nine Judges of the Supreme Court, twenty seven Circuit Judges, and fifty-three District Judges, it ought to be able to dispose of its business. The development of the judicial system of the United States, no matter at what point we observe it, seems to follow a certain law of evolution, which tends to make the ultimate Court of Appeal a tribunal solely for the consideration of points of law reserved from trials below. The judges of last resort in almost all the States try appeals only on paper, and never meet juries, see witnesses in court, or actually try a case. The old system of having the same judges administer justice in the trial courts, and pass upon the final appeal, sitting in banc, handed down from the earliest times, lingers on in the Supreme Court at Washington and a few State Courts as a sort of "survival." With the new Court of Appeals, we presume the judges will see less and less of their old circuit business, and will in the end be confined altogether to points of law coming up to them from all parts of the country, while for most purposes the new court will within each circuit play the part that the Supreme Court now does for all of them.

EGYPTIAN ADMINISTRATION AND ADMINISTRATORS.

CAIRO, March 25, 1884.

To the outside public the only interesting questions relating to Egypt are those connected with the relinquishment of the Sudan, and with the nature of the relationship which is in course of being established between England and Egypt. But to those responsible for the government of Egypt from day to day those questions are comparatively remote, and, momentous as they are, are capable of being even left out of account in the course of grappling with pressing problems which can scarcely brook an hour's delay.

Such a one is the problem of the functions of the mudirs and the police. It is found that the reforms which have been somewhat spasmodically introduced in consequence of Lord Dufferin's recommendations, have gone too far in the direction of paralyzing executive and administrative force in the provinces. The new Criminal Codes, constructed on the French model, have introduced a hierarchy of *procureurs* and *juges d'instruction*, who have, it is alleged, encroached to such an extent on the functions of the police and the mudir that offenders of the worst kind are allowed time to escape, or to obliterate the traces of their guilt before the tardy foot of scientific legal investigation can reach them. It is said that, according to the new system superimposed on the country, there are three stages interposed between the original complaint of a crime having been committed and the first real trial before a court of first instance. The police are informed of the offence. It is their duty to communicate at once with the "Parquet," an institution of great prominence in the French system, which, according to English ideas, would be a sort of Crown Prosecutor's of

fice. The Parquet, or so-called "Ministère Publique," communicates the fact and circumstances of the offence to the *juge d'instruction*, a judge of the Court of First Instance delegated for the purpose of investigating, with the aid of police placed at his disposal, the circumstances of all crimes committed in the district. His report, founded on examination of witnesses, perusal of documents, and, if necessary, inquiries on the spot, is presented to his Court of First Instance, and affords the groundwork of the whole proceedings.

It is obvious that, as a purely legal machinery, nothing could be better than this. At the earliest possible moment the burden is shifted from the shoulders of the quasi-military police, and relegated to legally-qualified practitioners in the closest relations to the court before which the trial takes place and to the ministry of justice. If the court is dissatisfied with the mode of collecting the evidence, or calls for what is named a fresh "instruction," all the apparatus is in its own hands and subject to its constant supervision and control.

On the other hand, those responsible for the good administration of the country allege that serious delay is occasioned in tracking offenders and following up the indications of crime while still fresh. It may be that the police have to travel or send to a great distance to communicate with the local *procureur*. Any way, the proceeding of search is interrupted and passed on to a wholly different class of officials, just at the point when prompt and continuous action promises to be most fruitful. A further complaint is made that the service of the police under the *juges d'instruction* is most unfavorable to police discipline, and is attended by the proverbial consequences of impotent attempts to serve two masters.

It is curious that each of the rival systems—which may be roughly classified as the magisterial, or English, and the procurial, or French system—has its champion in an eminent English administrator. Sir Benson Maxwell, at one time English Chief Justice of the Straits Settlements, and now at the head of the judicial administration in Egypt under the title of Procureur-Général, has become the champion of the method of search of which the *juge d'instruction* is the main instrument. When first he reached Egypt, nearly a year ago, he was a stout opponent of the new Codes and the French system of criminal investigation. He loudly professed that he knew nothing about them, or so far as he knew anything he disliked them. But longer familiarity with the working of the system, or a deeper acquaintance with the condition of the country, or a more hopeful view of the judicial *personnel* who would fill the new posts, brought about a complete change of view. Sir Benson Maxwell has, indeed, introduced many beneficial changes into the substance of the Penal Code, and especially in the matter of evidence; and no doubt, if the field were quite free for a choice between English or Anglo-Indian and French methods of procedure, he would unhesitatingly prefer the former. But he regards the aggressive claims of the police as a perilous harking back to the illegal and anarchical system of government by autocratic mudirs. He fears that what has been gained for law is too precious to be lightly parted with; and till it is proved, after fair trial, that the new system is unworkable, it ought not to be sacrificed because of what are perhaps only momentary obstacles.

The champion for the magisterial and police system of criminal investigation is Mr. Clifford Lloyd, English "Inspector of Reforms," and Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of the Interior. Mr. Clifford Lloyd is well known as one of the most energetic of Irish magistrates, and he has also had administrative experience in India. In some senses—and those, in the eyes of his numerous opponents, not wholly good ones—he is the strongest Englishman in Egypt. He has nearly absorbed into his own hands the whole and irresponsible management of all the numerous matters which fall under his department. He has already reorganized the prisons, and made a special department of them under the Inspectorship of Dr. Cruikshank, an Englishman of long-tested capacity in the East. He has placed sanitary matters under another competent Englishman, Dr. Sandwith. He has given the most important impulse of the Home for Freedwomen Slaves. He has invented, and is in the course of imposing, a municipality of Alexandria. Above all, he has concerned himself for months past with the reorganization of the constabulary, and, during the absence of General Baker in the Sudan, the whole of this interminable task has fallen upon him.

Now, like Sir Benson Maxwell, Mr. Clifford Lloyd, on his first arrival in this country, some eight months ago, protested against the relations created by the new Codes between the courts of justice and the police in the matter of the investigation of crime. Like Archimedes in search of a lever, he sought for the police magistrate or justice of the peace, as the true and sole medium of communication between the police and the Court of First Instance. Instead of undergoing any change, Mr. Clifford Lloyd's views on this point have only been confirmed and developed. He complains now that the mudirs, robbed though they are of illicit means of oppression, have had no compensating power accorded them. The mudirs themselves have come in large numbers to Cairo, refusing to be responsible for the preservation of order if their powers are not enlarged, the police placed more under their control, and the functions of tracking crime and criminals up to the point of trial restored to them. Mr. Clifford Lloyd believes their complaints well founded, and is bent on bringing about the changes they demand. But he intends to couple it with great changes in the *personnel* of the mudiriate, with a new system of records and inspection, and with a stern, centralized, and English control of the police. However, the victory will not be won at once. A.

MALLET DU PAN.

PARIS, April 9, 1884.

THERE is a singular contradiction between the world of facts and the world of ideas. The principles of the French Revolution have never been more completely in the ascendant than they are at the present moment in France; they are not only triumphant in the common law, they are also triumphant in the constitutional law. We can see the famous device "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity" on all our monuments. I beheld it only a few days ago in huge black letters on the wall of the chapel called the Expiatory Chapel, erected in 1815 in memory of Louis XVI. and of Marie Antoinette. At the same time, it cannot be denied that in intellectual circles there is a strong reaction against the Revolution and its principles. The various histories of that epoch, written by writers of the Liberal school, such as Thiers, Mignet, Louis Blanc, Michelet, Lamartine, are looked upon almost with contempt by the new historical school, which hates great theories, and professes to be only satisfied with hard facts and with documents. The historical school sees France diminished, deprived of some of its old provinces, isolated in Europe, surrounded with a chain of monarchies which are its natural enemies, deprived of any other influence but that of its vices and its pleasures. It has begun to doubt the virtue of the famous principles of 1789, and it has begun a grand inquest upon the events of the Revolution.

I will say at once that this inquest is not always conducted with great wisdom. The documents which are now assembled are not all of equal value. Taine, for instance, in his great work on the Revolution, which is not yet finished, has thrown together a multitude of small facts which are as apt to conceal as to reveal the truth. The new school seems to consider all documents as equally valuable, all letters as genuine, all private papers as valuable. The archives of the Foreign Office have lately been open to the public, and we must expect to find an immense amount of despatches written by the ministers of the French Republic, of the Directory, and of the Empire. Some of them have already been published, and their republication has not added much to our knowledge. There must, in the end, be some choice in the materials employed by history; we cannot build a palace with stones of every sort and of every size. Among the most remarkable observers of the French Revolution M. Taine cites four, Rivarol, Malouet, Gouverneur Morris, Mallet du Pan. I will speak to-day of the last, as M. André Michel has just published two volumes of the 'Inedited Correspondence of Mallet du Pan with the Emperor of Austria.' This correspondence embraces the years 1794 to 1798, and the manuscripts of it are preserved in the Archives at Vienna.

Mallet du Pan belonged to a family which had left France, not at the time of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, but long before, at the beginning of the wars of religion in France. This family had settled in Geneva; one branch had returned afterward to France, another had remained in Switzerland. Mallet du Pan was born in 1749. He was prepared for political life in Geneva. At the age of twenty-two he wrote his first pamphlet in defence of his party. He saw in this miniature state all the elements of political strife—the struggle of the old patrician families and of the democratic party, little revolutions, small *coups d'état*, perfect anarchy, followed by dictatorship. He left Switzerland for France after 1789, and became one of the writers of the *Mercure de France*. He was already a friend and a correspondent of Voltaire, of Samuel Romilly, of Linguet. The *Mercure* was, so to speak, a post of observation. Mallet du Pan could write afterward to Hardenberg: "No personal views, no political engagements, no passions influenced my writings. I am not a Frenchman; I was born a Republican; I have deserved the attacks of all the extreme parties; but thirty years of experience under a popular Government did not allow me, during the first days of the Revolution, to perceive its utility. I did not doubt that, undertaken by corrupt men, leading a presumptuous, frivolous, ardent, and perverted nation, it would be the misfortune of Europe, after having been the misfortune of France." Mallet du Pan, in his *Mercure*, was like the experienced sailor who sees the signs of the tempest; he was not intoxicated by the theories which began to agitate France long before 1789.

The letters of Mallet du Pan may be reckoned among the most valuable papers that the historian can consult on a period which will always be counted one of the most momentous in modern times. Mallet du Pan played a part which was a very new one: he was a journalist at a time when journalism was in its infancy. He had correspondents in all parts of France, and, it may be said, of Europe; he was a sort of political agent without any definite credentials. His curiosity seems to have been boundless: he collected information on every subject. He was

not a statesman, but he was a public man. Taine justly remarks in the preface which he has written for these volumes of correspondence, that Mallet du Pan had a rare faculty: he could discern all the forces which were at work around him, and choose good specimens of each group of men. "On our political assemblies, the parties and their followers, his judgments are exact and penetrating: I have never found him in error. . . . Sometimes in rapid outlines, sometimes in large and profound sketches, sometimes in finished pictures, he represents whole classes—the nobility, the clergy, the Parisians, the provincials, the administrators of the Constituante, the proconsuls of the Convention, the functionaries of the Directory, the men of the Terror, the men of Thermidor, the men of Vendémiaire, the royalists within, the emigrés without, the Feuillants, Girondins, Jacobins of all epochs. . . ."

Mallet du Pan saw very early that the Jacobins would become in the end the dominant faction in the Revolution: he understood them as well as Burke, and "nobody," says Taine, "better understood their fanaticism, their instincts, their sectarian ways, their dogmas; their ascendancy over minds destitute of culture, the strength of their propagandism, the power and the danger of their dreams, their capacity for destruction and their incapacity for reconstruction, the mechanism by which their doctrine transformed a half-lettered man or a useful workingman into a 'philosopher with a pike,' and by which they conducted him from ignorance to presumption, from enthusiasm to crime, by persuading him that he was saving his country and regenerating humanity." The judgments of Mallet du Pan are very severe, very hard; for he was by principle a Liberal, and the Revolutionists were essentially intolerant. They had all imbibed the views of Rousseau. The dream of Rousseau was a sort of socialism in which the state was omnipotent, the individual completely sacrificed to the community, public authority entering into all the details of life—in the relations of the family, of capital and labor, in education. All conditions were to be levelled, all religions abolished; society was to be remodelled. From 1789 to the Consulate these ideas became completely dominant; few understood a Republic in which the individual would have his own free domain. Mallet du Pan was among the few who dreamt of a reconciliation between the rights of the state and the rights of private conscience.

He fought the battle of individual conscience with the greatest courage. For forty months, he assures us, he never went to bed with any assurance of being alive the next day. After a vain struggle, he was obliged to run away, and he took refuge in Switzerland. When this country was conquered by the French armies, he was banished by a special decree of the Directory, and fled to England. "I have lost everything," said he, "in losing Switzerland—country, relations, friends. . . . Switzerland, like Athens after the invasion of Alaric, is now nothing more than the bleeding skin of a victim offered in sacrifice." He founded in England the *Mercure Britannique*. "But for the hospitality of the English people, I should still," he said, "be experiencing the torment of silence." It was while he was still in Switzerland, in 1794, that he began to correspond with the Emperor of Austria, under the cover of Count Colloredo, and with Prince Hardenberg, the Minister of the King of Prussia. This work gave him some means of subsistence. He was ruined; he had been obliged to leave everything in France—his library, his manuscripts, his silver. He was on the point of making himself a schoolmaster when he received the first overtures from Vienna and from Berlin. He was known as a man of honor, and had already accomplished two secret missions, one to Monsieur and the Comte d'Artois at Coblentz, and another to the Emperor and the King of Prussia at Frankfort. The letters of Mallet du Pan can therefore be classed among the despatches of that occult diplomacy which has always been a necessity in troubled times. Mallet du Pan wrote to the sovereigns in the character of what he called a "European." "Every man," said he, "has the right to show his alarm. Every European must take part in this last combat of civilization; we are all, with all our goods, in the same ship."

The correspondence is of such a detailed nature that it can hardly be analyzed. It follows almost day by day, from 1794 to 1798, the transformations of political parties in France. It analyzes all the elements of French society, thrown into the crucible of the Terror. You might as well attempt to describe the movements and the shades of the clouds during a tempest. Mallet du Pan had essentially a philosophical mind, and he indulges in generalities more than in anecdote. In this respect he differs essentially from the writers of the preceding time. He has no sense of humor; he is always indignant, always serious; his irony is terrible. He distinctly foresaw that the régime which immediately followed the Terror could only last by a series of continual wars, and he felt instinctively that a happy and bold military dictator would draw the curtain on the Revolutionary drama.

When Mallet du Pan was obliged to go to England, he was exhausted by his great labor, and his health was already failing. He had lost all hope: everything was giving way before the French Revolution. He made his last effort in the *Mercure Britannique*, and two years after having landed in England he died at the age of fifty. His articles and letters have not the grace of Rivarol nor the sublimity of Chateaubriand, but they are models of political analysis, and they are inspired by a sort of contagious conviction. They are the protest of a virtuous mind against a sanguinary school; they are a long commentary on the cry of Mme. Roland: "O Liberty, how many crimes are committed in thy name!"

Correspondence.

THE BLAINE BOOM AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your leading article on "The Blaine Boom," called out by my letter which you headed "A Blaine Inquiry," ignores the main thought I advanced; so I ask for more room in your columns in which again to emphasize that thought.

In 1876, when the Democratic party in Congress, new to power and eager for political capital, set dozens of committees at work to find something damaging to the character of Blaine, Bristow, Morton, and other Republican leaders, the animus of the movement was so evident that it went far towards starting a presumption of innocence for the accused. With the acutest Democratic noses on the scent, they failed to run down any substantial game, and returned from the hunt with such undisguised panting and chagrin that the object was clearly seen to have been destruction rather than justice. It cannot be doubted that this was, and is now, the judgment of the country; for these men who had thus been "investigated" lost no whit of popular regard, and notably Mr. Blaine. It is unsafe to say that this public judgment is wrong; usually in this country the worth of a public man is pretty accurately estimated by the people. Mr. Blaine has been a Senator from Maine, and has been chosen to the highest Cabinet position in our Government by James A. Garfield, since the charges you so clearly state were first published; and, without a single office at his command, and hence no machine, there is considerable sentiment in his favor in Michigan. The great party heat of 1876 has died away, and a popular indifference to party ties is generally acknowledged to be gaining the ascendancy—a fact that heralds the approach of independent thinking and voting—yet it is certain that Mr. Blaine will have a strong following in the next National Republican Convention, and that he is not regarded by the mass of the people as a dishonorable man.

While I do not enter upon a vindication in detail of Mr. Blaine, I have said enough to show that the charges, however ugly your powerful article makes them appear, are by no means fastened, and that he is yet entitled to the consideration usually shown to honest men. I look, therefore, upon insinuations in regard to his ability, his book, his living in Washington rather than in Maine, and the reports about his domestic arrangements and happiness, as unfair; it is inference such as may be employed against any public man, to claim that they are "advertising devices" used to catch the Republican nomination for President. It may be for his pleasure to live in Washington, and certainly it must be advantageous for an historian who needs access to libraries and public documents. It is not at all strange, in these days of enterprising publishers and newspaper reporters, that passages of his history should be printed in advance of the book. As an "advertising device," to increase the sale of the proposed book, such a scheme would be looked upon as shrewd and commendable. Indeed, I cannot remember one insinuation of this kind in the *Nation* the immediate cause of which is not susceptible of reasonable explanation, or that has been sustained by anything but the caustic humor of the editor.

I am not a special champion of Mr. Blaine, although, in common with many, I have some admiration for the man who marched down the halls of the American Congress "like an armed warrior, like a plumed knight"; but I am contending for the principle that damaging statements of the motives as well as of the actions of men should not be made except on very strong proof. Given the power with the pen that the editor of the *Nation* possesses, I could write plenty of cutting paragraphs about President Arthur's and Secretary Lincoln's designs on the Presidency. There is opportunity for misconstruction of motive in nearly every man's life, and the injury that is done by that kind of writing to individual character and individual happiness and prosperity is great. The injury is not to individuals alone, but is sustained by the whole country, whose reputation depends upon the reputation of its leading men. I am convinced that, in the long run, great charity in dealing with the motives of our public men would have a marked influence in producing among them a higher tone and a more conscientious devotion to duty; whereas the opposite spirit has the tendency to lower their average worth. Let there be, therefore, all possible criticism of measures and views, but unworthy motives should be ascribed only when conviction is overwhelming.

H. M. Holmes.

Lansing, Mich., April 14.

LIQUOR-DEALING AND CRIME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As one of your oldest subscribers I must express my deep regret that I cannot conscien-

tiously renew my subscription, since you condescend to make common cause with the temperance fanatics. I abhor and oppose intemperance as much as any of these. But a nation that elevates inebriates to the Presidency and honors drunkards, cannot promote temperance by violating the principles of personal liberty and by stigmatizing the wine-producer and liquor-dealer. We might as well try to suppress arson by legislating against the manufacture and sale of matches while we defend the incendiary, and honor him if he succeeds in getting a large amount of insurance-money; we might as well charge the manufacturers of pistols and bowie-knives with the murders committed unpunished in some parts of our country.—Yours respectfully,

ISIDOR BUSH.

ST. LOUIS, April 13, 1884.

[This may be all true, but it furnishes no reason for "stopping your paper." You can only justify your refusing to listen to us any more on any question by alleging that it is immoral to differ with you on the temperance question. Do you hold this view? If so, when did you become the depositary of pure truth and right about liquor, so that nobody is fit to discuss with you who does not acknowledge your authority?—ED. NATION.]

"MASKS AND FACES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on Charles Reade, you speak of the dramatized version of 'Peg Woffington.' Permit me to correct a very common mistake that "Masks and Faces" is the dramatized version of 'Peg Woffington.' During my residence in London I happened to be a frequent visitor at the house of Tom Taylor, who at one time took occasion to explain to me the creation of the above novel and drama. The novel was not yet written when Charles Reade approached Tom Taylor for the purpose of writing jointly the play. Reade had the subject in his mind, but felt incapable of dramatic work. Tom Taylor then lived in Chiswick, and Charles Reade joined him there at his residence. Reade wrote the play to the best of his ability during the daytime, when Taylor was away; the latter, on coming home, used the scissors freely, and quite exasperated Reade by the many alterations which were found necessary for dramatic purposes. Finally, when the play was finished, to give free vent to his own impulses on the subject, Reade decided to put it in a form more familiar to his own pen, and wrote the novel. The latter was published almost simultaneously with the production of the play, and it was already then commonly believed that the play was an adaptation of the novel. On Taylor's suggestion, Reade corrected this erroneous impression in the introductory remarks to a later edition of the novel.

As both men are now dead, perhaps it may not be out of place, from respect to their memory, to publish what I feel sure they wished to be known.—Respectfully yours,

OTTO E. LOHRKE.

BRICK CHURCH, ESSEX COUNTY, N. J., April 19, 1884.

EXCESSIVE LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am amused as well as gratified that anybody should be "waiting" for a communication from me upon "responsible government," as I have felt that your readers were something more than satiated with that kind of diet. However, I beg to shake hands heartily with "Bluenose," and to express satisfaction with the opportuneness of my silence, since it has procured from him an utterance so much more valuable, if only from its novelty, than any of mine would have been. I have long felt that the Canadian Government might furnish us with valuable illustrations, but, in the first place, I possessed but little information, and did not know how to get more, and, in the second place, though our people might be willing to learn something from Great Britain, they are quite too lofty to think of taking lessons from our colonial neighbors. In one point the letter of your correspondent is very interesting to me, as I have always regarded biennial sessions as a movement exactly in the wrong direction. If the Government were carried on as it ought to be, by the executive branch, and the Legislature limited to its proper functions of "critics with the power of the purse," then, as he says, the sessions would be matters of public interest instead of public dread. On the other hand, if the Legislatures are to exercise, as now, not only their own functions, but those of the executive, then less frequent sessions would merely remove the machinery of government further from the public view, and would make the legislation, if less in quantity, as well as the administration, worse in quality than now. It is thought necessary for the efficiency of the German army that it should go through an elaborate and expensive system of annual autumn manœuvres. Our political "autumn manœuvres" are just as necessary to keep the people in training. If they work badly, the remedy is not in infrequency, but in finding out *why* they work badly. I am reminded of an anecdote, of which the want of elegance may perhaps be pardoned for the point, of a woman who said she did not see how people could comb their hair every day, as she only combed hers once a month, and then it almost killed her.

One would think that this winter's session of Congress, not to speak of the State Legislatures, might convince the public mind of the necessity of some change in the direction of leadership, system, and individual responsibility. Lest other localities should be pining for more light, I will say that I am ready for missionary work in any part of the United States. G. B.

BOSTON, April 19, 1884.

THE WAR OF THE HELLENISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In *Harper's Monthly* for May is an article on the life and work of Dr. Schliemann, a labored and excessively one-sided argument to prove that Schliemann has a right to a position as a scientific investigator. It is not pleasant to say disparaging things of either Schliemann or his supporters; but when credentials which carry on their face such pretensions as do those of Schliemann, are offered for general circulation on the strength of certain endorsements, it is just as well to examine the endorsers. Mr. Mahaffy, the writer of the article in *Harper's*, is a Hellenist better known in England than in America, and better known, where known, for his curious blunders as to classical matters than for his insight or sound critical faculty. No scholar who has lived in Greece can have ignored the extraordinary errors of fact in the books on that country written by Mr. Mahaffy; and only a few weeks ago the *Academy* contained a review by him of a book on Greece, in which he gives the singular information that the audience in the Theatre of Bacchus could not see the Ægean from their places—perhaps the most remarkable blunder even he ever made in reference to the localities of Athens. For trustworthy scientific statement or opinion, it would be hard to find a professed Hellenist so hopeless as Mahaffy, or one so generally recognized by scientific Hellenists as unreliable in his conclusions or observations. His endorsement of Schliemann's paper is worth no more than would be that of a penniless man on the note of hand of a bankrupt.

If it is intended by force of clamor to give Schliemann scientific authority, and his theories currency and weight, then those who value the true conclusions of scientific investigation above all personal interests must raise their voices, even in personalities, to meet the issue. Neither Schliemann's theories nor his opinions have the slightest scientific value, nor does the opinion of Mahaffy add a feather's weight to them. The article in *Harper's* contains some double-pointed shafts, but the real animus of it may be found in the concluding sentence:

"But if Dr. Schliemann could harbor in his large heart the feelings of an ancient Levite [?], he might well reflect that his enemies, the pedants, have been discomfited and brought to confusion. The ablest and most learned of them, Dr. Brentano, has lately committed suicide; and if his English disciple has not gone so far as to copy him literally in this, he has at least gone as far as charitable adversaries can desire in committing archæological suicide, by maintaining theories which blot him out from the number of incipient students in that science."

Poor Brentano was an archæologist, which no supporter of Dr. Schliemann is. The English disciple alluded to is Professor Jebb, of the University of Glasgow, a scholar and Hellenist of the first order, who had the assurance to differ, courteously, and, it seemed to me, too deferentially, from Schliemann's theories of Troy; respecting the excavator's motives and enthusiasm, but showing from the vantage of his better knowledge of the authorities that certain of the Doctor's views were untenable. That he showed it conclusively is an opinion shared by most scholars whom I know, but from that day Schliemann and every one to whom he gave employment have attacked Professor Jebb with a personal rancor of which the above quotation is an example. When the controversy is carried into American literature it should be unmasked, and the combatants given their true devices.

I have in this controversy not even the bias of a personal acquaintance. I never saw Professor Jebb or Mr. Mahaffy, nor have I ever had a controversy with either. As to Dr. Schliemann, while I respect his enthusiasm and liberality, and recognize his genial personality, I must again declare my firm conviction that he has done more to retard archæological study and progress than to advance them, and that his methods and conclusions are alike obnoxious to true science.

We learn from the last *Academy* that

"The May number of *Harper's* will contain an article on 'Dr. Schliemann: his Life and Work,' by Prof. Mahaffy, who is at the present time Dr. Schliemann's guest at Tiryns."

An article so absurdly eulogistic as that alluded to justifies a great deal of that munificent hospitality which Dr. Schliemann's fortune makes it possible for him to offer to his coadjutors. It is to be hoped that the Greek archæological authorities will look sharply after the excavations at Tiryns (one of the most important sites in Greece), for reasons which will be readily understood by those who read Prof. Jebb's article on Schliemann's methods in the current number of the *Fortnightly Review*.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

NEW YORK, April 19.

THE GERMAN SPELLING REFORM AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When, in my communication printed in No. 980 of the *Nation*, I said that final *d* in Ger-

man words was pronounced like *t*, except, perhaps, in dialects, I meant to say that (if I remember right) Fritz Reuter sometimes used final *d* in his Low-German works; but as I had not read these for some six years I could not express myself positively on this point. But as I have received letters from various subscribers of the *Nation* on this subject, most of whom are against the proposed change of final *d* into *t* in inflectional words, I must state here that, although true phonetic spelling reform would hardly allow of any deviation from its standard rules, I do not consider that point of such weight as to render its acceptance obligatory. Indeed, I for my part think that changes in the present spelling, to be acceptable to the general public, and not to the learned alone, should be as slight as possible, although it will be hard to draw the line after strict logic is given up.—Very respectfully, OTTO WOLLERMANN.

BROOKLYN, E. D., 80 Second St.

Notes.

JOHN WILEY & SONS have in preparation 'The Orchids of New England,' a popular monograph by Henry Baldwin, with forty illustrations, mostly drawn from nature; and 'Roadside Songs of Tuscany,' by Miss Alexander, edited by John Ruskin, in which the reproduction of the original flower designs by this lady will prove a task of more than ordinary delicacy.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish a 'History of the Coup d'État,' by M. de Maupas, Prefect of Police; 'Pictures of Life and Character,' from *Punch*, after John Leech (in the Parchment-Paper Series); and 'The Parlor Muse,' a selection from recent *vers de société*.

J. R. Osgood & Co. will issue this month 'Over the Border,' a description of summer travel in Nova Scotia, by Miss E. B. Chase; 'Three Villages,' sketches by W. D. Howells; and 'Song and Story,' by Edgar Fawcett.

Robert M. Lindsay, Philadelphia, will have ready on May 15 a choice edition of 'Jane Eyre,' to be called the "Haworth Edition," in two volumes 8vo, printed from new type on laid paper, and illustrated with eight etchings of the principal places of interest described in the book, as well as with an etched portrait of Charlotte Brontë, by eminent American artists. Add thirty-eight ornamental letters of appropriate design. The edition will be limited to 500 copies.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately (by arrangement with John Murray) a 'Memoir of Alice, Princess of Great Britain and Ireland, and Grand Duchess of Hesse,' with a selection from her correspondence, edited by the Princess Christian, a sister of the Princess Alice. The correspondence commences in 1862, the year in which the marriage of the Princess took place, and is complete, without interruption, to the time of her death, in 1880. The volume will contain two portraits. They have also in preparation 'Tableaux de la Révolution Française,' edited, for the use of students in French literature, by Profs. T. F. Crane and O. G. Brun, of Cornell University, with an introduction by President A. D. White; 'Outlines of Roman Law,' comprising its historical growth and general principles, by William C. Morey, Professor of History and Political Science in the University of Rochester; and 'British Orations,' being a selection from the more representative and important orations by British orators during the past century, uniform with 'American Orations,' now in press.

The Cobden Club Prize Essay for 1883 is announced for immediate publication by T. Fisher Unwin, London, under the title of 'The Future Work of Free Trade in English Legislation.' The author is Mr. C. E. Troupe, B.A., of Balliol College, Oxford, and the subject is treated under three heads—Financial Reform, Free Trade in Land, and Monopolies. Apropos of the approaching Wyclif quincentenary, Mr. Unwin will publish on May 1 a little volume, 'John Wyclif, Patriot and Reformer,' written by Dr. Rudolf Buddensieg, of Leipzig, one of the chief living authorities upon Wyclif, and one of the editors of the Wyclif Society. The book will comprise a memoir of the reformer, and also an interesting selection from his writings, translated for the first time from the original Latin MSS. in Dr. Buddensieg's possession and elsewhere. In style the volume will be uniform with the Parchment Edition of 'Luther's Table-Talk,' published by Mr. Unwin last year.

We regret to record the fact that all the papers and material for the second volume of Colonel Claiborne's 'History of Mississippi,' the first volume of which was published in 1880, were recently destroyed by fire in the burning of the author's residence, and there is no hope that the work will ever be completed.

In commemoration of the seventieth birthday of Ernst Curtius, on September 2, it is proposed to present the veteran historian and archæologist with his own bust in marble. A circular addressed to his American admirers, asking their coöperation, has been issued by Mr. George Bancroft, President Carter, of Williams College, and Mr. Robert P. Keep, of the Williston Seminary, East Hampton, Mass.

The Rev. Charles Morris Addison, Arlington, Mass., has been solicited to act as the American representative of the Wordsworth Society, founded four years ago in England, with the aim of promoting the study of this poet, and illustrating by publications his life and writings. The annual subscription is ten shillings, and entitles members to the annual volume of transactions, while membership conveys also the privilege of forwarding literary contributions for reading and consideration at the annual meeting.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, have made a pamphlet of "The Bitter Cry of Outcast London."

Roberts Brothers have issued a cheap edition, in paper covers, of Philip Gilbert Hamerton's 'Intellectual Life'—a work the wide circulation of which is assuredly a public benefit.

'Le Mariage de Gérard,' by André Theuriet, is the latest of the "Romans Choisis" published by William R. Jenkins.

The "Science Ladders" of "N. D'Anvers" have been united in one volume, each retaining its own pagination, by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Robert C. Adams's 'History of the United States in Rhyme' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) may have some use as a corrective of the blues, but is otherwise a good book for children to avoid. The exigencies of the author's scheme, in which every line ought to tell, are well exhibited in the following verses:

> "The Seminoles, in Florida,
> By Osceola led,
> For years maintained a bloody war;
> *They slaughtered Major Dade.*"

Mrs. Martha J. Lamb has reprinted from the *Magazine of American History* her series of papers entitled 'Wall Street in History' (Funk & Wagnalls). It is an essentially light and popular retrospect, in which the antiquarian bias of the author predominates as usual over the strictly historical. Still, the volume is worth preserving for reference. Some of the illustrations are curious, and perhaps the earliest are the best.

The first chapter of Mr. Henry Parker Fellows's 'Boating Trip on New England Rivers' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) is entitled "An Inland Voyage on the Sudbury, Concord, and Merrimac Rivers," and thereby suggests a comparison with Thoreau's well-known log of the same course. In a literary point of view, nothing could be more disastrous; but there might be some slight reward in contrasting the number of obstacles now existing to the navigation of those streams and the number which Thoreau met with. The Housatonic and the Nashua are the other streams essayed by Mr. Fellows, whose narrative is hardly up to the guide-book standard, though its merit is altogether that of the guide-book. The illustrations, from pen-sketches, are of a rather primitive character.

John Wiley & Sons publish a 'Ruskin Birthday Book,' "collected and arranged by M. A. B. and G. A." No modern writer lends himself so readily to the compilation of books and extracts as Ruskin, for his really brilliant and incisive passages of eloquence are jewels of speech, which are often quite independent of the setting in which he puts them, and generally depend more on their verbal form for their force than on any logical connection or agreement with what is said before or after. The book is got up in excellent style, and tastefully bound, and preceded by a fair portrait engraved from a late photograph with full beard.

The *Bibliotheca Sacra* for April prints Dr. Von Holst's inspiring talk at Oberlin last fall on "The Irrepressible Conflict," which is alone worth the price of the subscription. So, to thoughtful minds, but in a different sense, is the paper in the same number on "Heredity and Depravity," by Professor Stuart Phelps. Since its transfer from Andover to Oberlin, by the way, this quarterly has fallen under the management of Professors G. Frederick Wright, Judson Smith, and Wm. G. Ballantine, the senior (formerly associate) editor representing much more truly, we should say, than Professor Phelps the "reconciliation of science and religion."

An unusual number of Massachusetts notables are commemorated in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April. Passing by the opening paper on the Rev. Edwin H. Chapin, as not adding much to our previous knowledge of its subject, we can mention an interesting memoir of Edmund Quincy, the fourth of his name in direct succession (1681–1738), by his descendant, the late Miss Eliza Susan Quincy; more of Mr. John T. Hassam's researches concerning the descendants of Ezekiel Cheever, the famous master of the Boston Public Latin School; and the latest of Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England." These last deal with Sir George Downing and his kindred; with William Hathorne and his brother Nathaniel, ancestors of the novelist; with Pepperells and Phipses; with Simon Bradstreet, and with an ancestor of the Massachusetts Sedgwicks. Mr. Waters has now established "beyond a doubt, whereabouts in 'Our Old Home,' that elder England beyond the seas, we must look for the ancestry of one of the most widely known among the distinguished sons of old Salem." The Hawthorne seat was in Berkshire, near Binfield and Bray, Cruchfield and Oakley Green. But our romancer, unhappily, was denied the pleasure of this recognition.

The first article in the March number of the *Antiquary* is by Mr. A. Lang, who continues here his controversy with Mr. Sayce (in the *Academy*) as to "The Iron Age in Greece." He appears to have established his point, that iron was known and used much earlier in Greece than Mr. Sayce would admit; but it still seems to us to be proper to speak of the Greeks of Homer's time as in the "bronze age"—so far as such a distinction is properly used at all—for it is manifest that bronze was at the time the usual material

for weapons and other implements, iron being known, but not being yet in common use. Mr. Wheatley's second paper on the history of the house treats of "the living rooms," and he notes that the word *parlour*, used in the sixteenth century for "the ordinary living room," has in England been degraded to a room on the ground floor, while in the United States, "I believe, . . . the name parlour is still treated with some respect." This appears to be one of the many instances in which the American colonies preserved the usage which was current in England at the time of their settlement. Mr. J. T. Bent gives some interesting extracts from letters of Philip II., in relation to an invasion of Ireland in 1579-80, "an expedition which had in it all the elements of success, but which, through the want of prompt and generous action, resulted in failure." Mr. Brown continues his sketch of the earlier life of Thomas Cromwell down to the fall of Wolsey and his own establishment in the King's favor. In this important period Cromwell appears to have acted first and mainly for his own interests; but it is added that he, "now that he had made his own position sure, did his best for Wolsey." Other papers are upon drinking vessels in the form of a bear (with curious illustrations), the prisons of Venice, Bishop Parr of Sodar and Man, and church bells of Bedfordshire (illustrated).

From the Johns Hopkins University we have No. 1 of the third volume of "Studies from the Biological Laboratory," containing papers by H. W. Conn, on the significance of the larval skin of decapods, and on the life history of Thalassema; and by Henry Leslie Osborn on the gill in some forms of prosobranchiate mollusca. A number of plates accompany these papers.

Dr. Herbert B. Adams's contribution to vol. i. of Dr. G. Stanley Hall's "Pedagogical Library" has been selected to lead off the second series of the former's "Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science," under the title of 'Methods of Historical Study.' To the consideration of "special methods" is now added a longer chapter on "new methods," partly consisting of the author's social-science paper last September at Saratoga. This valuable survey of the modes in which the study of history is being pursued at various institutions in Europe and America enlarges, as is natural, on the Historical Seminary in Baltimore.

A Philadelphia auctioneer advertises for sale Abbottsford's Waverley Novels. He will probably sell them to the man who lately bought "a descriptive book, published in Latin, of Raymond's opera of 'The Lulli,' bound in heavy glazed sheepskin, and issued in 1651"; or to the other who asked at one of our public libraries for "Charles Kingsley's 'Scouring of the White House.'" Possibly it would be liked by M. Vallée, who, in his 'Bibliographie des bibliographies,' has introduced a M. Neveu in place of M. Forestié, usually styled *neveu*, to distinguish him from his uncle of the same name. But Philadelphia is not alone in having bibliographical novelties to dispose of. A Boston auctioneer was to sell this week a copy of "Xenophon's Cyclopædia."

C. Eichler, 27 Behrenstrasse, Berlin, W., sends us his priced catalogue of casts of ancient, mediæval, and modern sculpture, the availability of which in cheaply endowing our higher institutions of learning with a nucleus of art models is not appreciated as it ought to be.

The fifth half-volume of the 'Handbuch der Theologischen Wissenschaften' edited by Dr. Otto Zöckler, has been issued at Nördlingen (C. H. Beck'schen Buchhandlung).

The Annisquam Laboratory will reopen at Cape Ann on June 20, through the liberality of the Woman's Education Society, and under the direction of the Boston Society of Natural History, as heretofore. The term will close on September 1. The low tuition fee varies with the length of study. Applicants for admission should address Mr. Alpheus Hyatt, Curator of the Boston Society.

— In our recent notice of 'Darwinism as Stated by Darwin Himself,' we expressed a doubt whether Mr. Darwin's family had given their approval to this work. It is now brought to our notice that this may be taken to mean that the compilation was unauthorized, and we have been shown a letter from Mr. George H. Darwin, of October 8, 1883, giving his consent on conditions which have been strictly complied with. It is but just to state, also, that although Mr. Nathan Sheppard does not in his book style himself "Professor," his publishers are quite justified by our American usage in mentioning him by this title, which has been rightfully his in times past.

—The *North American Review* for May contains an article on "Illusions of Memory," by Prof. Henry F. Osborn, who has been carrying on a systematic inquiry into the subject for two years by means of an extensive correspondence. The phenomenon he has undertaken to investigate is familiar to every one, and has been noticed in literature by Dr. Holmes, Walter Scott, Rossetti, Wordsworth, and Hawthorne. The illusion is that something is not new (though we know, or think we know, it to be so), but a repetition of a preëxistent state of fact or state of mind. It may be a scene, or it may be a conversation, and with some persons it may even be a dream; but whatever it is, the consciousness of recollection is imperfect and illusory, for we seem to recall it without being able to recall any of the concomitant circumstances. Scott speaks of the curious "sentiment of preëxistence" accompanying or producing it, and this is a point which Professor Osborn seems to have overlooked. We will at least, for the benefit of all inquirers into this curious subject, throw out the suggestion that this illusive action of memory differs from the ordinary voluntary or involuntary action in the following way: ordinarily, in recalling a fact or event, we seem to ourselves to bring it as a piece of the past into our present consciousness, but we never lose our consciousness of the present as such. Memory in its illusive action reverses this process, and seems to transfer the present scene or conversation, or whatever is going on, to a past consciousness, a sort of mnemonic background which is suddenly revived with such force as to produce that "preëxistent" feeling noticed by Scott. The gentleman who has asked us to suggest this analysis of illusive memory says that in his own case he chiefly notices it in conversations, the illusion being so strong that in many instances each sentence as it is uttered is illusively recognized; but never without the "preexistent" feeling. Professor Osborn seems to think that there is no real difference between incomplete or partial memory and the phenomenon in question, and he believes that in all such cases there is some real basis in the past, which if we could recall it would clear up the mysterious feeling produced. But can this be so when a partly recalled bit of the past—*e. g.*, as in the case of a half-remembered face, or a half-recognized passage from a book—fails utterly to produce the "preëxistent" sensation? This explanation seems inadequate.

—The *Atlantic* for May contains an article on "Matthew Arnold as a Poet," by Harriet Waters Preston. In it she analyzes with a good deal of skill the sources of his inspiration, which in the last resort must be confessed to be chiefly Doubt. If Doubt is the inspiration of the age, then he must divide with Clough the honor of being the most representative poet of our time. She points out, however, what many of his critics overlook, that Mr. Arnold himself discovered, after many attempts with the lyre, that prose was his real vocation, and his prose is the prose of a poet—a poet *manqué*, his enemies would say—clear, pointed, imaginative, well knit. In his essays, however, what his admirers most enjoy is the keen assaults he makes upon the generally accepted intellectual order of the modern world, which he attacked in England because he happened to be an Englishman, but which he would have attacked here had he been an American. This is what made his lecturing trip to this country so odd, for in a genuinely democratic and utilitarian country no one is likely to be so unpopular as a man who attacks prime articles of the democratic and utilitarian faith. The truth is that there was no real knowledge of Mr. Arnold, and very little natural tendency to an appreciation of his writings here, while there was an honest, Philistine desire that he should, as a "visiting Englishman," have a good time, and take back a pleasant idea of this country. The press was always, therefore, under restraint with regard to him, which was not thrown aside except by the Chicago newspapers when they read the *Tribune* hoax—on which for twenty-four hours they gave the "children of light" a faint idea of what they would have said before had they felt it fair to do so. The discovery that they had not been able to distinguish between his style and that of a common penny-a-liner capped the climax, and we doubt if it will ever be really known exactly what was thought about Mr. Arnold in Chicago. Mr. Richard Grant White has an article on "The Anatomizing of William Shakespeare," in which he shows what fools Shaksperian critics often make of themselves by attempting to see too much in a plain matter. But his account of Shakspere makes us hesitate to accept even Mr. White as a final judge. Is there sufficient warrant for the following passage?

"In Shakespeare, nature produced as nearly as possible the supernatural. Springing from nearly the lowest social level, without education, without instruction, without discipline of any kind, with limited means of obtaining knowledge, at twenty-two years of age a poverty-stricken vagabond, by the time he was forty years old he had done that which places him at the intellectual summit of the human race. This he had done with no strong impulse to literary art, no social aim, religious or political, no motive of intellectual ambition, but merely at first to earn his bread, and afterward in the furtherance of an almost sordid desire for money, and for the poor sort of consideration which is awarded to the possessors of money. In all he had his heart's desire. The outcast of the dirty little village returned to live in its largest and handsomest mansion; to have the profitable investment of his money in parish 'securities' accepted, and even solicited, as if it were a favor; to take his place among the notables of the neighborhood, where the meagre annals of his life give us our last glimpse of him standing against the interests of the poor, and on the side of grasping privilege. The world's history has no record of a similar achievement."

As we really know little about Shakspere, and find so much enjoyment in his plays, is it necessary that the scanty outline handed down by tradition should be filled out with such a black portrait as this? Is there no golden mean between making him a demigod and a sordid money-getter and "monopolist"?

—The advertisements of Matthew Arnold's books which so frequently appeared during his stay among us, never, to our knowledge, contained a mention either of his 'Isaiah xl.–lxvi., with the Shorter Prophecies Allied to it,' published in 1875, or of his 'Isaiah of Jerusalem,'

which was issued just before his departure for this country. And yet these little books, with their introductions, are publications of even general interest. The introduction to the older Isaiah, in contradistinction to whom the younger is to be designated the Babylonian, is, in fact, a charming piece of work. Were these books excluded from the lists on account of the heterodoxy which lies in their very titles, as compared with the one superscription of the whole of the canonical book of Isaiah? But this is a heterodoxy from which few of the most learned Bible students of our time—Christians or Jews, professors or divines—are free. Be this as it may, there is nothing more reverent in tone than Arnold's remarks on his two Isaiahs, the respective contemporaries of Sennacherib and Cyrus, unless it be irreverent to couple the name of a Hebrew prophet with that of a Greek bard, as in the following: "From no poetry and literature, not even from our own Shakspere and Milton, great as they are and our own as they are, have I, for my own part, received so much delight and stimulus as from Homer and Isaiah." His admiration of the sublimely ethical spirit which breathes from the glowing words of the original Isaiah and "the great unknown," generally designated as Deutero-Isaiah, is expressed in terms full of pathos and yet not uncritical. Arnold's Old Testament criticism, it is true, is neither original nor profound. He is not a Hebraist, nor does he pretend to be. But he has penetrated, with warm feeling and keen sagacity, into the essence of Hebrew prophetic poetry, and has possessed himself, with clear-sighted discrimination, of the fruits of modern research. His caution in adopting conclusions seductive by their brilliancy is as commendable as it is rare.

—His conservatism in regard to the style in which the book of Isaiah is to be presented in English garb is, perhaps, excessive. He was guided by it when issuing his edition of the last twenty-seven chapters, and he clings to it still, though he acknowledges that he "went too far" when he said that "he would forbear to alter the old version of Isaiah where it made sense, whether the sense made was that of the original or not." His present standpoint is this: "The old version is not to be departed from without necessity. It comes from a great flowering-time of our literature, and has created deep and powerful sentiments; it is still the prime agent on which we have to rely for the attainment of our prime object, that Isaiah may be enjoyed fully. Increase of knowledge enables us to see mistakes in the old version, and to correct them; but only mistakes, real mistakes, should be corrected, and they should be corrected gently." In adherence to this rule, he finds it necessary to make only three changes in the first chapter. In reality, he attempts only a new edition of Isaiah "in the Authorized English Version"—as the title-page of the recently published half has it—with corrections and notes, and not a new translation. He leaves many of the false tense-renderings unaltered, and deems the use of "Jehovah" or "Yahveh," instead of "the Lord," inadmissible in a version intended to be enjoyed by the mass of readers; for "*Jehovah* and *Jahve* have a mythological sound, and to substitute them for *The Lord* disturbs powerful sentiments long and deeply established already." There is much to be said against this latitudinarian view of the rights and duties of translators or editors of writings generally presented and received as sacred, but this is not the place for expatiating on the subject. What we chiefly mean to point out is the sentimental process by which rational criticism is here tempered into harmony with pious clinging to time-hallowed inaccuracy.

—Any "culture question" you can start is sure in advance of plentiful discussion. Both those who are satisfied and those who are dissatisfied with their own training fancy that they have a personal interest in the matter and a right to be heard; and the ball, a very old ball, that Mr. Charles Francis Adams set in motion last summer—it seems an eternity since—has been kicked vigorously backward and forward by feet of every shape, size, and shoeing, and that without lighting once on any new ground. One of the last players of the game is Prof. Louis Dyer, whose daintily printed paper, "The Greek Question and Answer" (Boston: Osgood), contrasts with the business-like simplicity of the garb in which "A College Fetich" appeared, very much as the author's fastidious way of handling the matter is contrasted with Mr. Adams's direct and uncompromising style. Professor Dyer goes in with full conviction—less could hardly be expected of a Grecian—but he does not hurt himself or his cause by over-vehemence. He begins with a good-natured laugh at the "modernists" for insisting so much on French and German, which they do not know, in preference to the Greek they have totally forgotten. As the *Nation* pointed out at the opening of the fray, men are always imagining that they would have learned French and German if they had not been obliged to study Greek; the fact being that those who really master Greek are, in the present stage of culture, almost sure to learn French and German also. Unless we are prepared to acknowledge a radical inferiority of Americans to Germans, it cannot be admitted that there is any insuperable difficulty in acquiring a fair knowledge of two or three modern languages, together with enough Latin and Greek to understand what the Romans and the Greeks mean to modern times. "The French and German substitute for elementary Greek," says Professor Dyer, "is too easy or too hard, and its discipline may always be eluded": too easy, as he explains, because modern languages, in their structure, phraseology, sphere of thought and life, are all too much alike; too hard, because an attempt to substitute higher French and German work for elementary Greek study postulates effort far beyond the learner's power, while the discipline may be eluded by a brief residence abroad. As to the other answer to the Greek question, "Natural Science," Professor Dyer is "far more inclined to come to terms," and frankly admits the importance of the new training; but that new training is needed "to supplement, not to supplant, the old." Literature and science must be insisted on for all, and the Greek answer to the Greek question is, "Greek and science—science and Greek." There remains only one question, that of proportion—unfortunately, as difficult as any. How much science? How much Greek? The problem of proportion was a vital one to the Greek toper, as it is to his modern brother. How much wine to how much water? Shall we pour the wine on the water, or the water on the wine, or blend the two deftly by a simultaneous outpour? Luckily, or unluckily, these culture questions adjust themselves after a little agitation; and educators and theorists, college presidents and Greek professors, have less to do with the result than they are apt to fancy.

—The National Academy of Sciences held its annual meeting at Washington, April 15–18, with the usual attendance of about thirty-five members. For the four public sessions, which were attended perhaps less numerously than in some former years, papers were entered to be read by G. K. Gilbert, T. Sterry Hunt, Simon Newcomb, A. E. Verrill, Ira Remsen (2), Elias Loomis, C. S. Pierce, the same and J. Gastrow, S. P. Langley, J. E. Hilgard (3), E. D. Cope (2), Theo. Gill, the same and J. A. Ryder (2), Geo. F. Barker (2), Geo. J. Brush, H. A. Rowland, B. Silliman, John S. Billings, A. W. Wright, Elliott Coues, and H. L. Abbott. Most of these were read in person or by proxy, and some others were presented, by invitation, by persons not members of the Academy. The Council of the Academy remained after election nearly as before. The mortality among the academicians has been great of late, no fewer than fourteen vacancies having been occasioned by death during the past two years. The membership stood at eighty-nine only when the Academy entered into the yearly election of new members. Those whose names appeared on at least twenty ballots, and on two-thirds of the total number of ballots cast, were five, namely: Edward S. Dana, of New Haven; A. B. Comstock, U. S. A.; Sidney I. Smith, New Haven; W. K. Brooks, Baltimore; C. E. Dutton, U. S. A., who were accordingly elected members of the Academy. This gave three to the physico-mathematical and two to the biological wing of the Academy; mineralogy, geology, engineering, invertebrate zoölogy, and embryology being the more special subjects represented by the new members. The general representation of the different departments of science has not materially altered of late years, and the policy of the Academy continues much the same.

—The *Messenger of Europe*, the largest and best managed among the Russian monthlies, furnishes in the first two numbers for 1884 (the nineteenth year of its existence) several valuable contributions of general interest. A reproduction of Turgeneff's portrait, after a water-color drawing made in 1839, is not exactly a work of art, but in comparison with late photographs it shows how much had been preserved of youthful traits even into the sixties, and P. V. Annenkoff's account of the young poet's life from 1840–1856 is a fine revelation of the development of this remarkable man. For many years the opening pages of the January number have been set apart for Turgeneff. Last year he sent "Clara Milich," the last tale from his pen, but with the request that it should be placed second after some till then unpublished verses by Pushkin which had come into his possession. This year the editor has in a sense still filled the first pages as of old, with the portrait frontispiece just mentioned, and the succeeding poem, "On a Turgeneff Theme," by Andreyevski, inspired by the sketch entitled "Enough!" Turgeneff's contemporary, F. Dostoyevski, is discussed in a review of his recently-published biography and correspondence. The "long-suffering poet" who, after ten horrible years spent in the prisons of St. Petersburg, in the mines of Siberia, and in exile, was forced to earn his living by writing novels, often mentioned with envy his fortunate friend Turgeneff, though he always willingly admitted Turgeneff's superiority. Since Dostoyevski, by the way, is so little known among the English reading public, we wish to call attention to the elegant German translation of his 'Crime and Punishment,' translated by Wilhelm Henckel, with the name of the hero, Raskolnikoff, as title (Leipzig, 1883). While few will be pleased with Dostoyevski's characters, they are, in their way, not less true than Turgeneff's, and the remarkable psychological problems will excite the deepest interest. Alexander Pypin, the celebrated author of the history of the Slavic literatures, contributes new studies on the popular element in Russian literature. Among the poems, those of Starostin show great talent, though we are surprised to see that the editors

of the *Messenger* did not recognize the first of the poems as a mere translation (but a very able one, indeed) of Goethe's "Zueignung" to 'Faust.'

—It has always been one of the principal aims of the *Messenger of Europe*—as its title suggests—to make the Russian public acquainted with the newest products of European literature. Of late that programme has been enlarged, and due attention is also paid to our American authors. Thus, we noticed last year a translation of Cable's 'Belles Demoiselles Plantation,' together with an interesting essay on Cable and his position in American literature; and the two numbers of the *Messenger* before us contain an admirable translation of Henry James's 'Siege of London.' In the department of reviews we meet with a prospectus for a complete edition of Shakspere's works in Russian, by A. Sokolovski. "Hamlet" has already appeared (the seventh complete translation of this tragedy), and others are soon to follow. Under "Domestic Politics," the condition of the peasantry and various proposals for its amelioration still form the main topic. Let us hope that before long the best of these theories will be more energetically put into practice than heretofore.

—The *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* for March contains, among other articles, one of great interest on some Greek vases found at Marseilles while digging a dock. The illustrations to the article show two forms of *oinochoë*, with a ground plan of a portion of an ancient cemetery exposed by the excavations M. Albert Dumont classes these vases with those found at Melos, at Mykenæ, and in general among the Cyclades, while he relates them to those found at Hissarlik and Santorin. They are, however, according to M. Dumont, of the end of the fourth or of the third century B. C., although the vases found at Melos and Santorin, to which they are related, are supposed to be the earliest Greek ceramics known. The fact is that in these manufactures the types survived for centuries, and some still in use are found in excavations of the most archaic material. In excavating the oldest part of Gnossos, a quantity of oil-jars were found, which, when shown to the inhabitants, were greeted with utter derision, and the excavators were accused of hiding modern oil-jars, to be dug up as antiques, so perfectly were they reproduced by the jars of present manufacture. The water-jars borne on the shoulders of the youths in the frieze of the Parthenon may be seen to-day in some of the Greek islands, employed for the same purpose and carried in the same way. When we know that the plough of Hesiod and the loom of Penelope are still in use in the greater part of the classical world, we need not be surprised to find vases of the most archaic form in tombs of the fourth century. The *Bulletin* contains also an important illustrated article on the monuments found at Delos, by M. Reinach, and an article on the recently-found inscriptions relating to the accounts of Eleusis, by the director of the School, M. Foucart.

—New York concert audiences are, as a rule, quite undemonstrative compared with those in some foreign cities. This is true in regard to solo as well as orchestral performances, and it strikes one occasionally as odd that a favorite singer who, at the opera, is recalled again and again, should not get enough applause at a concert to cover his exit. On extraordinary occasions, however, this apathy is cast aside, and such an occasion was the last rehearsal and concert of the Philharmonic Society, when Herr Scaria made his first appearance in New York. No singer has ever won a more immediate and emphatic success, and the fact that we have had no first-class bass singer here for years makes it especially pleasing to record this success. Herr Scaria was recalled again and again, amid enthusiastic applause and bravos, until he must have imagined he was back in Vienna, which has the most demonstrative audiences in the world. In him the audience made the acquaintance of a basso who, more than any other male singer, has realized the meaning of Wagner's vocal method. To hear him sing "Wo berg' ich mich" from Weber's "Euryanthe" (the starting point of the "music of the future"), and, still more, Pogner's Address from "Die Meistersinger," is to hear, not only a beautiful vocal instrument, so to say, but a speaking vocalist—that is, an artist who enables the audience to enjoy not only the music but the poetry at the same time. This is a matter of tremendous significance. In Italian operas, and in most German operas previous to Wagner, the vocalists take very little pains to pronounce the words distinctly, and the librettos generally are so silly that the audiences are only too glad to ignore them entirely. The music is, therefore, exclusively *instrumental*, for the vocal cords of man or woman constitute a physical instrument just as much as a clarinet or an organ pipe. In Wagner's operas, on the other hand, a vocal style is chosen which obliges and enables the singer to pay as much attention to the poetry as to the melody; and as his librettos are impressive and well constructed dramas in themselves, the gain is immense. He gives us *two* arts in place of but one, even in the concert hall, apart from action and scenic surroundings. Wagner himself fully appreciated the manner in which Herr Scaria realized his ideal, singing not only with his vocal cords, but with his head and his heart as well; for he does not memorize the text like a parrot, but studies its meaning and gives utterance to the feelings embodied in it. To judge such an artist with reference to the vocal cords alone would be to show a lamentable misconception of what the essence of music is. If Mme. Patti sings out of tune (and she *does* sometimes, persistently), we lose everything, for she gives us only beauty of tone and execution, and no fine poetry. But if a Wagner interpreter makes a technical mistake we lose only a small proportion of that which constitutes his art. Herr Scaria may be safely judged even from the Italian point of view. No other living bass has such a rich, sonorous, broad, smooth, and thrilling voice; and while in Wagnerian melodious declamation it is unrivalled, it is almost equally effective in cantabile of greater rhythmic regularity. The Philharmonic audience which applauded Herr Scaria with such unusual enthusiasm, felt vividly wherein his power lay; and if they will reflect on the points here suggested, they will be able to realize the significance of dramatic vocalism, and to understand why Wagner's operas have driven those of the old school from the stage in Germany.

LORD LYNDHURST.

A Life of Lord Lyndhurst, from letters and papers in possession of his family. By Sir Theodore Martin, K.C.B. London: John Murray. 1883.

"CALL no man happy until his death," says the simple wisdom of ancient Greece. "Call no man happy," adds the ripe experience of modern England, "until you know who has been his biographer." Of biographical good and bad fortune Lord Lyndhurst has had more than his share. In one respect he was fortunate beyond his deserts. It was a happy day for the fame of John Singleton Copley when Lord Campbell published a libel entitled a 'Life of Lord Lyndhurst.' There were, it is true, facts about his lordship's career not calculated to raise his character among a generation who admired the genius and dignity of the aged ex-Lord Chancellor, and had forgotten the dubious features of Copley's manhood or middle age. And upon these discreditable facts Campbell dwelt with all the malignity of a mean man, who had suffered under the patronage and kindness of a brilliant rival. But Campbell's attack missed its mark. Malignity was apparent in every line.

"The Life of Lord Lyndhurst," wrote Chief Baron Pollock, "is a most disgraceful production. It is written with the utmost possible malice and ill-will; it rakes together all the scandal and falsehood that was ever invented or written about Lord Lyndhurst. It is dishonestly publishing as true what is notoriously false, and insinuating by a sneer matter for which he [Campbell] knew there was no pretence whatever. It is a biography written for the express purpose of degrading and vilifying a great man, whom he hated chiefly because he was aware he was largely the object of that man's contempt."

The public took the view expressed, with the exaggeration of friendship and partisanship, by Chief Baron Pollock. Lyndhurst had followed to the letter the advice given by an aged historian and controversialist to a young man, who complained of the detraction of theological or political enemies—"Survive them." Some men outlive their fame. Lyndhurst outlived his infamy. He was in 1860 the last and grandest survivor of a generation of political heroes. Every one could see that Campbell was by nature a slanderer and a liar, and it was easy and pleasant to conclude that everything said by him against such men as Brougham or Lyndhurst, whose very vices were better than his virtues, was a slander and a lie. No conclusion could better have served Lyndhurst's reputation. By the rarest good luck, the invectives of an unscrupulous enemy had in his case all the good effect which could result from the eulogies of disinterested friendship. If only Sir Theodore Martin could have left well alone, Lyndhurst might have been called happy.

But the blessing of Lord Campbell's detraction has now been more than balanced by the curse of Sir Theodore's apology. To write the apology of a slandered hero is always an act of dubious wisdom. Excuses are in such a case emphatically accusations, and at the very best an apology recalls to men's memory that there was something in a man's life which needed defence. Most of us had forgotten that the venerable peer who, in his ninety-second year, commanded universal admiration, had been a turncoat. To revive this disagreeable recollection was at best a poor service to Lyndhurst's memory. The only vindication for raking up old accusations could be the possibility of showing them to have been essentially false. The question which every student of Martin's 'Life of Lord Lyndhurst' must candidly and carefully ask himself is, whether the author has succeeded in showing that the imputations under which Lyndhurst suffered were groundless. We answer with confidence that there never was a defence which more completely broke down than Sir Theodore Martin's apology for the career of Lord Lyndhurst. Such success as it may for a moment have with readers unversed in historical controversy will arise from their not observing that Sir Theodore makes his own opinion of his hero pass for evidence of that hero's real character; and, moreover, to save Lyndhurst from the weight of an accusation which he, it may be suspected, bore lightly enough, imputes to men such as Lord Denman either inconceivable ignorance or still more inconceivable mendacity. This, be it remarked, Sir Theodore Martin does

without in reality bringing a single important new fact, as to Lyndhurst's career or character, before the public. He virtually assumes that the charge made against Lyndhurst was false, and that a politician whom we venture to say no one, friend or foe, held during his lifetime to be a statesman of high (political) character, was in effect a man who always acted politically on the highest principles.

Let us see exactly what the substantial charge against Lyndhurst was. It can be described very simply. What men like Lord Denman said was, that Copley, till between the age of thirty and forty, was known among all his friends as what we should now call an advanced Liberal, and that he suddenly, on the invitation of Lord Liverpool, threw over his known principles, and came into Parliament as the nominee of the Tory Government. Having once taken a side, he played with great success the part of a Tory partisan or leader. The true gist of the accusation is not that he played the game recklessly, though this was true of some parts of his career, not that he played it dishonorably, but that he treated politics as a game, and, when his friends were giving up all hopes of place for the sake of their principles, took that side, in what seemed to him a mere game, which he held likely to win, and betrayed the fact that he either did not know what political principle meant, or was willing to throw over principle in order to gain wealth and power. To say that Sir Theodore Martin does not disprove this charge is gravely to understate the extent of his failure. His own book is almost enough to establish in substance the truth of the accusation brought against his hero.

The evidence against Lyndhurst is excessively strong. The best, and in such a case almost the only, proof of what were known to be a man's opinions in early life, is the report of friends who must have known the facts, and whose character is a guarantee that they do not willingly misrepresent them. No boldness of assertion can dispose of the language of such a man as Denman. In private, in public, and to Lyndhurst's face, he asserted that the latter was, till at least the age of thirty, known to his friends as a Liberal. Our space prevents us from quoting the once celebrated debate in which Denman charged Lyndhurst before the Peers with political apostasy. But we venture to say that whoever reads the language of the Chief Justice will feel sure that Denman was, both before and after the debate, firmly convinced that the charge was true, and, further, that he had good reason for the conviction. Denman, it must be remembered, spoke out plainly what scores of Lyndhurst's associates both said and believed. Lyndhurst was impelled by every possible motive to deny and dispose of a most damaging imputation. Had he really contradicted his assailant, we should still say that if universal report and Denman's word were to be weighed against Lyndhurst's official assertions, it was, as a matter of evidence, the probable conclusion that Denman spoke the truth. But Lyndhurst does not really contradict his accuser. Denman's assertion was, that, holding Whig principles, Lyndhurst became a Tory placeman. Lyndhurst in effect replies: "I don't precisely recollect what my principles were, but I can assert that I never belonged to any party or political society whatever. I never embarked in politics, and I never wrote a political article on either side of any question which might have been agitated. This was my conduct till I came into Parliament twenty years ago."

These words one may believe to be strictly true. A man may have held Whig principles, may have been known to all his friends to be by conviction a Whig or a Democrat, and yet may never have joined any political society, or have written an article on any political topic. Lyndhurst's defence, in short, as put by himself, is at bottom not that he never held Liberal or Democratic opinions, but that, never having committed himself to any political party, he had a right to take whichever side in politics suited him best. If he then played the game fairly, his own conscience as a man of honor was satisfied. With the idea that politics was not to be treated as a game at all, Lyndhurst had at no period any sympathy whatever, and his real defence, as far as an apology can be made for him, is to be sought in a direction toward which Sir Theodore Martin has hardly turned his attention. Lyndhurst's view of politics was shared by the majority of politicians in the early part of George the Third's reign. Lyndhurst was over thirty when he joined Lord Liverpool's Government. He retained, we may fairly suppose, the feeling of the generation among whom his youth had been passed. He acted in a way which would have excited little attention and have incurred little blame from men of the world in, say, 1780 or 1790. What was peculiar in Lyndhurst's position was, that the feeling among the best men of the day with regard to political principle had been for twenty or thirty years gradually changing. In 1815 or 1820 men were prepared to blame conduct which would have met with no great reprobation thirty years earlier. In 1830 and 1835, the moral tone of public life had risen still higher. The best Whigs and the best Conservatives could not understand how any man of intellect or of honor could look upon politics as a game to be played mainly with a view to achieving personal success. In this gradual change of public sentiment Lyndhurst did not share. His commanding intellect and his dignity of manner concealed from others, and perhaps from himself, the thorough want of seriousness which characterized his public career. We may well believe that he did not in politics violate any rule which he held binding on a man of honor. If he had publicly joined the Whigs, he would probably have stuck to them more consistently than did Brougham. He knew what was meant by party loyalty. But of politics as a matter of principle he had no conception whatever.

This view of his character is not the product of Whig animosity. It has been entertained and expressed by persons whose opinion no one dares to treat with disrespect. No one dares to question the moral insight of Frederick Denison Maurice, and this is how he writes in 1840 (when he was thoroughly out of sympathy with the Whigs) of Lord Lyndhurst: "The candidates [for the post of Lord High Steward, at Cambridge] are Lord Lyndhurst, the cleverest of turncoats, and the very ideal of able, unprincipled Conservatism; the other, Lord Lyttelton, a young man of Whig connections, in his character earnest and sincere, and with an intellect of the highest promise." Add to this the comment of Maurice's biographer:

"Lord Lyndhurst was at that time [1840] leading in the House of Lords an Opposition as different in character from that of Sir Robert Peel, as two forces allied in opposition to a Government could well be. In my father's view, Peel was defending what he himself at all events believed to be valuable institutions. Lyndhurst was defending what he knew to be abuses, simply because he could thereby get a majority."

No one can deny either the moral impartiality or the intellectual insight of Walter Bagehot. Let the reader then weigh the full weight of this passage from Bagehot's estimate of Lyndhurst:

"Few men led a laxer life; few men, to the very end of their life, were looser in their conversation; but there was no laxity in his intellect. Everything there was braced and knit. Great oratory is but a transitory art; few turn even to the best speeches of the past, and even the best of these are so clogged with the detail of the time that they are dull and wearisome to a hasty posterity. Few will recur to Lord Lyndhurst's speeches, but those who do so will find some of the best, if not the very best, specimens in English of the best manner in which a man of great intellect can address and influence the intellects of others. Their art, we might almost say their merit, is of the highest kind, for it is concealed. The words seem the simplest, clearest, and most natural that a man could use. It is only the instructed man who knows that he could not himself have used them, and that few men could. Such was the great man whom we have just buried—great in power, but not great in the use of power; a politician, not a statesman; a man of small principle and few scruples. Of him, far more truly than of Burke, it may be said that 'to party he gave up what was meant for mankind.' He played the game of life for low and selfish objects, and yet, by the intellectual power with which he played it, he redeemed that game from its intrinsic degradation."

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.—II.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, LL.D., President of the Philological Society, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part I.—A—Ant. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

It is not on grounds like those mentioned in our former article that we should criticise this dictionary, so far as we are disposed to criticise it at all. The fault we should find with it is that there has been neglect, comparatively speaking, of authors of the highest class, and too much prominence given to those of an inferior grade. It would be perhaps ungracious for an editor to refuse wares from whatever quarter brought, or to discourage enthusiasm to whatever quarter directed; but a reviewer may be justified in expressing surprise of a mild type at the taste which has selected some of the works that have been read for this dictionary. The illustrative quotations are, for men engaged in the profession of writing, perhaps the most important part of any lexicon. It is always desirable to ascertain the usage of an age; but it is the usage of its best authors we wish, and not of its poor or poorest ones. To record that best usage is a main duty of any dictionary. If, for instance, a word is employed in the same sense by Tennyson and the author of the 'Letters to the Joneses,' there ought not to be the slightest hesitation as to the writer from whom the quotation is taken. In the one case, the authority for the usage is of the highest kind; in the other, the selection chiefly shows that the word existed at the period indicated. We fear that, under a mistaken idea of exercising a catholic spirit, the editor has at times been tempted to reject an illustrative example from a great writer, and put in its place one from some writer whose name is little known, or which, if known, carries but little weight. We could certainly furnish many instances of the neglect of the former, whether due to accident or design. We go further: The use of a technical word by a great writer ought ordinarily to be recorded in preference to a similar use by a specialist. Goldsmith, for instance, uses *anastomosis* ('Citizen of the World,' Letter xviii.); and his employment of it is more worthy of record than any here given, because it denotes a tentative transition of the word from the language of anatomy to that of pure literature.

It is from this comparative—we do not say actual—neglect of writers of literature pure and simple, that words and usages found in the very writings which have been read for this

work have in some cases not been recorded. An editor is, of course, largely at the mercy of his readers; but to some extent he can control them, for he can insist upon the great authors being read with special care. We shall give instances of omissions that have come under our own observation, sedulously avoiding any that we have happened to see noticed elsewhere. Chaucer uses *alone* in the sense of 'devoid of,' where he describes Cryseyde as "alone of any friend"—a usage not here recorded. Nor is *age* found in the sense of 'an old man,' a meaning given it in Marlowe's "Faustus" (act v., sc. 3, 4to of 1604); nor again in the sense of the Latin *lustrum*, which it bears in Ben Jonson's "Alchemist," where Sir Epicure Mammon tells a disbeliever that the elixir of life will restore the possessor "to the fifth age." Nor is Surrey's division of life into three "ages" placed among the illustrative quotations. Of compounds we notice the absence of *angry-sounding*, applied to the drum in Peele's "Farewell to Norris and Drake"; of *all-witted*, applied to a lady in Ben Jonson's "Every Man Out of his Humor"; of the sense of *almond-flower* in Peele's "David and Bethsabe," where he speaks of "water mixed with purest almond-flower." In the last-named author's "Clyomon and Clamydes," *ames*, a word occurring in the expression "God's ames," is not recorded: nor is the use in this drama of *a* meaning 'I'; nor the same word with the possible sense of 'thou,' which latter Dyce gives as certain. A use of *Alpha* without 'Omega' as a name for God, which appears in Greene's "Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay," is not included. More remarkable is the omission of a word occurring in one of the classics of our literature. Dryden, in his great political satire of "Absalom and Achitophel," speaks of *Adam-wits*; but this word, which most readers find to need explanation sorely, is not contained here, though other compounds of 'Adam' are. Again, in this work under *Æolian* there is the definition of 'Æolian harp'; but nobody could get from anything said under "Æolian" hardly even a suggestion of what Gray meant in the opening line of the ode on "The Progress of Poesy":

"Awake, Æolian lyre, awake."

Again, *alfresco* is given here as an adverb; but there is nothing to indicate such a usage as is found in Scott's "Fair Maid of Perth," where he makes the Duke of Rothsay say, "I love the al fresco of the river."

A closer attention paid to works of pure literature would, moreover, have shown occasionally forms earlier or later than those given or indicated here. *Amazonian* in the sense of 'Amazon' is found in Marlowe's "Tamburlaine"; *Adonai* occurs in the writings of both Greene and Peele; *anchovies* (with the spelling 'anchouies' in the folio of 1616) is found in Ben Jonson's "Cynthia's Revels"; *achive* for the sake of the rhyme appears twice in "Clyomon and Clyamedes"; and the form *aconiton*, following the Greek, is seen in Lodge's "Euphues Golden Legacie."

This last reference leads us to mark the omission of illustrations of the peculiar language of Euphuism, or of any record of its fanciful herbs and minerals. We are not disposed to affirm that these should be included, yet it is hard to say why a dictionary which registers a fabled plant like *alimon* should hesitate about adopting specimens of Euphuism such as are seen, for instance, in the following quotations, which we take from Greene's "Dorastus and Fawnia":

"The tree *Alpya* wasteth not with fire, but withereth with the dew."

"The herb *Anita* growing higher than six inches becometh a weed."

The peculiarity of the words and forms noticed here as having been omitted is that they occur in the very works which other quotations show have been read for this dictionary, and that they come so largely from writers holding high literary position. The editor, dependent as he is upon the services of volunteers, can hardly be held responsible for the failure to record them; but in the admission of new formations he subjects himself to a certain degree of criticism for his own course. The principle that should be adopted in regard to these seems to us plain. Everything which is likely to be met with widely in the present time, or met with at all in coming times, ought to be included. Every non-technical word, therefore, used by a great master in any department of intellectual effort ought to be recorded; but it is idle to attempt to collect the numerous formations of the hour, which never stray beyond the newspaper columns or books where they originate, which have no more circulation in speech than a leaden coin has in currency. No dictionary can record all, and the addition of any merely swells its size without increasing its value. The only justification for the insertion of any such terms is either some peculiar happiness in their formation, or the fact that they express with precision a thought or feeling that has never been expressed before. On this principle we should, therefore, throw out in this work, on the authority given, such words as *abjective*, *academize*, *acclaimer*, *aladdinize*, *allegedly*, and about a dozen more. There is less reason for their introduction because in nearly every case they are either self-explanatory or explanatory from the context.

So much for the words included in this work. The definitions are in general so full and so excellent that we need here only to call attention to a very few that seem to us to require revision. The third definition of *absinthe* is obscurely expressed. It is impossible to tell from its form whether the word 'none' contained in it refers to the wine and wormwood, or to the wine alone, or to the wormwood alone. Of course, if the reader knows the fact, he will not need to consult the dictionary. We venture to suggest also that the second meaning given to *abider*, 'one who sustains an attack or stands his ground,' is not altogether a satisfactory interpretation of the sense in which Sidney and Raleigh employed it in the two quotations given. In both cases it is not the power of resistance but of persistence that is expressed. It was the special characteristic of Sidney's horse-soldier that he could endure longer than the foot-soldier; and it was on account of their staying qualities that Raleigh attributed to the Lacedæmonians their likelihood of success. Nor can we quite accept, at least as an invariable rule, the distinction laid down between the adjective terminations *-ic* and *-ical*, when the same word appears with the two endings coexisting. It is a discrimination of usage to which the language is perhaps tending; but it can hardly be said to be one that has been finally reached. It is utterly inapplicable, for instance, to *politic* and *political*; and the difference, on the other hand, between *fantastic* and *fantastical* is too vague to be defined, if in many uses it can be said to exist at all.

It is natural, also, that in recording American usage the dictionary should make some errors. We are not referring to significations which occupy the hazy border-land between slang or dialect and established usage, but legitimate meanings which come directly within the province of any English dictionary whatever. It is not that erroneous assertions are made, but omissions occur which would lead to erroneous conclusions. *Administration* is not at all with us, as here defined, "the executive part of the legislature." *Alderman* signifies, according to this dictionary, "a magistrate in English and Irish cities." We have heard of inhabitants of American cities who would feel no regret if this implied limitation to the British dominions were true. *Album* is given, on Webster's authority, as "a book at public places in which visitors enter their names." The fact that this definition does not appear in Worcester might have spared us the additional comment that "this in England is called a *Visitors' Book*." We dare not say that Webster is wrong, and that this use of *album* does not occur among the fifty millions, and perhaps often; but it has never been our own fortune to meet with any other term than 'Visitors' Book,' which is here implied to be the English usage in distinction from the American. While on this subject, we may observe that a use of *admire* peculiar to parts of this country is not recorded. This is the sense of "to like very much," as given by Bartlett. One singular result of this omission is that a quotation from Miss Alcott's 'Little Women'—"I admire to do it"—is placed under the meaning of 'wonder.' We may also point out here one or two slight typographical errors. Under *abdicated* and *absence*, Mr. Howells's name appears as W. D. Howell. A certain sort of compensation is made for this, however, by adding the omitted *s* to Mr. Bristed's name under *Academician*.

We point out these mistakes and make these criticisms in no censorious spirit. All that we have observed ourselves, all that we have seen noticed by others, do not shake in the slightest our confidence in the great excellence of the work, and the thoroughness and ability which have marked its execution in almost every respect. Errors there must inevitably be in the details of an undertaking so vast; but though, when considered by themselves, they may seem numerous, when placed side by side with the positive merits that show themselves on every page, they sink into an almost contemptible insignificance. The work, when completed, promises to be one of the greatest achievements of English scholarship; and it is a sufficient justification for any criticism of details that what is so good ought to be made as nearly perfect as human liability to error will permit. We have not left ourselves space to speak of several other points which deserve attention. It is sufficient, however, to say in conclusion that the work will be of benefit in countless ways not directly contemplated. Its immense array of facts will tend steadily to overthrow the lingering superstition about the sacredness of the present spelling. For English orthography, indeed, the editor, like all historical students of our speech, hardly takes any pains to conceal his contempt, especially as he is under the necessity of pointing out in numerous instances the blunders which caused words to take the form they now have. The completed work, moreover, with its historical statements and literary quotations, will form an impregnable defence against the noisy pests of the period, the smatterers in language, who, through the medium of newspapers and widely-circulated manuals, persistently inflict upon the half-educated their own crude conceits about the forms and uses of words. These and other benefits which we cannot specify here will render the work a desirable possession for all; but to the special student of our tongue it will be absolutely indispensable.

FRANCIS BACON.

Bacon. By Richard W. Church, Dean of St. Paul's. [English Men of Letters. Edited by John Morley.] London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros. 1884.

We should not have selected the biographer of

St. Anselm and the prime essayist upon Dante for a sketch of the life and character of Bacon. But the result approves the wisdom of the choice. A more interesting narrative, a more truthful delineation of events and character, and a more unbiassed judgment we cannot expect to have. Although "the affectionate care and high intelligence and honesty with which Mr. Spedding has brought together and arranged the materials for an estimate of Bacon's character" have made the compilation of the present narrative easy and simple, the presentation, by an English writer, of Bacon as he was, may not be altogether a welcome task—such is still the glamour of his name. We can well understand that it was to M. de Rémusat's work that we had to look for "the most complete and the most just estimate both of Bacon's character and work."

It is a pathetic story which we read: a life of high gifts and aspirations, and of wonderful failures—failure in life because Bacon had not a soul responsive to the call of honor; in natural philosophy, because he had not a scientific mind. In life he fell ignobly because he did not do his simple duty; in science he failed gloriously, attempting great things which he was unable to perform. We date Bacon's fall from the time when he took a brief against his friend Essex, and count it a more deplorable fall than that from the bench. For in the taking of gifts from suitors in his court he seems to have given in to a custom of the time, and to have suffered through a malice which knew how to turn a righteous popular indignation to the gratification of an old grudge. But it is impossible to believe that he could have been sustained by custom when, holding no office under the crown, he zealously helped to bring to the block the head of the friend who had faithfully served him, and all for an offence perhaps little worse than the getting up of a row. An equal zeal directed toward the condonation of the offence might perhaps have better pleased the Queen and more effectually furthered Bacon's controlling object. It might have saved Essex's life; it would have saved his own honor.

How or why it was that Bacon was put forward, out of course, as the prominent counsel for the prosecution against Essex, under Coke, the Attorney-General, we can only conjecture. The wonder of it is that "it does not appear that he thought it strange, that he showed any pain or reluctance, that he sought to be excused. He took it as a matter of course." He did his work so zealously that when, through some blunder of Coke's in the presentation of the evidence, the trial was at the moment inclining in favor of the prisoner, "Bacon, Mr. Spedding thinks, out of his regular turn, stepped forward and retrieved matters." Dean Church calls attention to the fact that "Bacon's legal position was so subordinate a place that there must have been a special reason for his employment. It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that, on the part of the Government, Bacon was thus used for the very reason that he had been the friend of Essex." If Bacon had not the penetration to see this, he was in that instance neither the "wisest" nor the "brightest" of mankind. If he had this penetration, one cannot well deny that Pope's third and damnatory epithet was applicable, although our author deprecates it as unfair. More weighty and worthy than Pope's flippant line is our author's restrained but decisive judgment of this whole transaction, of which we give the material portions:

"The question was not whether Essex was guilty. The question for Bacon was, whether it was becoming in him, having been what he had been to Essex, to take a legal part in proceedings which were to end in his ruin and death. He was not a judge. He was not a regular law officer like Coke. His only employment had been casual and occasional. He might, most naturally, on the score of his old friendship, have asked to be excused. Condemning as he did his friend's guilt and folly, he might have refused to take part in a cause of blood, in which his best friend must perish. He might honestly have given up Essex as incorrigible, and have retired to stand apart in sorrow and silence while the inevitable tragedy was played out. The only answer to this is, that to have declined would have incurred the Queen's displeasure; he would have forfeited any chance of advancement; nay, closely connected as he had been with Essex, he might have been involved in his friend's ruin. But inferior men have marred their fortunes by standing by their friends in not undeserved trouble, and no one knew better than Bacon what was worthy and noble in human action. The choice lay before him. He seems hardly to have gone through any struggle. He persuaded himself that he could not help himself, under the constraint of his duty to the Queen; and he did his best to get Essex condemned. . . . .

"Bacon had his public duty: his public duty may have compelled him to stand apart from Essex. But it was his interest, it was no part of his public duty, which required him to accept the task of accuser of his friend, and in his friend's direst need calmly to drive home a well-directed stroke that should extinguish chances and hopes, and make his ruin certain. No one who reads his anxious letters about preferment and the Queen's favor, about his disappointed hopes, about his straightened means and distress for money, about his difficulties with his creditors—he was twice arrested for debt—can doubt that the question was between his own prospects and his friend; and that to his own interest he sacrificed his friend and his own honor."

Bacon and James I., Bacon Solicitor-General, and Bacon Attorney-General and Chancellor, are the titles of ensuing chapters of this most interesting narrative, from which we resist the temptation to make extracts; and from that entitled Bacon's Fall we will make as few as possible. Mr. Church's view of Bacon as the King's counsellor is that, granting his fundamental adhesion to the "idea of absolute royal power and prerogative," "when it came to what was wise and fitting for absolute power to do, in the way of general measures and policy, he was for the most part right." Nevertheless, "knowing all that he did, thinking all that he thought, [he] was content to be the echo and the instrument of the cleverest, the foolishest, the vainest, the most pitiably unmanly of English kings." Bacon as a judge—such were the days in which he lived—may perhaps be taken nearly at his own estimate, when he declares, "I was the justest judge in England these fifty years," qualifying this with the admission, "But it was the justest deed in Parliament that was these two hundred years." As to his misdoings—in view of his opportunities and the customs of the time—like a famous Indian general and statesman, he may upon reflection have been astonished at his own moderation. He was not the "meanest of mankind" who could thus recognize the essential justice of his overthrow, knowing the while, as he probably did, that the wrathful storm was not raised in view of his misdeeds, but was made to break upon his head by skilful and malicious direction. His abjectness at the trial seems unmanly, but should count to his credit.

"Bacon's life was a double one. There was the life of high thinking, of disinterested aims, of genuine enthusiasm, of genuine desire to delight and benefit mankind, by opening new paths to wonder and knowledge and power." The philosophic life certainly was a noble ambition, an early-formed and a persistent endeavor. Was it a success or a failure? The answer to that question very much depends upon whether Bacon is judged by what he had the genius to undertake, or by what he had the ability to accomplish. His countrymen nearly down to the present generation have assumed that he accomplished what he undertook, or showed the way for others to do it, and have exalted him accordingly. In our days the most competent judges have reached the opposite conclusion, and Bacon's services to science, having been vastly exaggerated, are in danger of being unduly disparaged. The present biographer has collected and with excellent judgment represented the *consensus* of scientific opinion. He admits that even if we regard Bacon as "the parent of modern science, his methods contributed nothing to its actual discoveries, neither by possibility could they have done so." He notes "the depreciatory opinion of a contemporary like Harvey, who was actually doing [as still more was Galileo] what Bacon was writing about." He frankly adopts the conclusions of Bacon's most loyal and affectionate editors, Ellis and Spedding, that he "failed in the very thing upon which he was most bent, the discovery of practical and fruitful ways of scientific inquiry." Mr. Ellis hits the blot when he says that "absolute certainty and a mechanical mode of procedure, such that all men should be capable of employing it, are the two great features of the Baconian system." And so does our author, in the following:

"He had a radically false and mechanical conception, though in words he earnestly disclaims it, of the way to deal with the facts of nature. He looked on them as things which told their own story, and suggested the questions which ought to be put to them; and with this idea half his time was spent in collecting huge masses of indigested facts of the most various authenticity and value; and he thought he was collecting materials which his method had only to touch in order to bring forth from them light and truth and power. He thought that, not in certain sciences, but in all, one set of men could do the observing and collecting, and another be set on the work of induction and the discovery of 'axioms.' Doubtless in the arrangement and sorting of them his versatile and ingenious mind gave itself full play; he divides and distinguishes them into their companies and groups, different kinds of Motion, 'Prerogative' instances with their long tale of imaginative titles. But we look in vain for any use that he was able to make of them, or even to suggest. Bacon never adequately realized that no promiscuous assemblage of even the most certain facts could ever lead to knowledge, could ever suggest their own interpretation, without the action on them of the living mind, without the initiative of an idea. In truth he was so afraid of assumptions and 'anticipations' and prejudices—his great bugbear was so much the '*intellectus sibi permissus*,' the mind given liberty to guess and imagine and theorize, instead of, as it ought, absolutely and servilely submitting itself to the control of facts, that he missed the true place of the rational and formative element in his account of induction."

In fact, Bacon was no philosopher, not even in natural philosophy (to keep that good old term, as the Scotch are doing), which was all he pretended to, and which he seemed to think could be perfected without mathematics; he was a *littérateur*, with a fondness for science, a quick eye for rhetorical and fanciful, rather than real analogies, and in style a morbid taste for decoration.

"What then, with all these mistakes and failures, not always creditable or pardonable, has given Bacon his preëminent place in the history of science?" A mistaken notion, we should say, an idea which long pervaded the English mind, that his great endeavors had produced corresponding fruit. Our author answers the question differently; and one would like to defer to his judgment and that of M. de Rémusat. They seem to claim for him—after all these deductions—a rank in the world of thought barely second to that of Aristotle. If the eulogy through several pages may be somewhat overdone, it is reduced to just proportions in the following passage:

"Bacon, like Aristotle, belonged to an age of adventure, which went to sea little knowing whither it went, and ill-furnished with knowledge and instruments. He entered with a vast and vague scheme of discovery on these un-

known seas and new worlds which to us are familiar and daily traversed in every direction. This new world of knowledge has turned out in many ways very different from what Aristotle or Bacon supposed, and has been conquered by implements and weapons very different in precision and power from what they purposed to rely on. But the combination of patient and careful industry with the courage and divination of genius, in doing what none had done before, makes it equally stupid and idle to impeach their greatness."

Aristotle lived about 2,500 years ago, and his fame is undiminished. Bacon's fame has endured for 250 years, of late with sensible diminution. The place which it is finally to occupy must be left, according to Bacon's bequest of his whole name and memory, "to men's charitable speeches, and to foreign nations, and the next ages." Our author, in this volume, has shown—as we should expect—that "charitable speeches" and just judgment may go hand in hand. Robert Boyle, the founder of experimental philosophy in Great Britain, was born in the year of Bacon's death. It would be interesting, and much to the purpose, to know what, if anything, he owed to Bacon.

As our author attributes to Bacon "a genius second only to Shakespeare," readers may like to know whether he makes any reference to the peculiarly American Bacon-Shakspere craze. There is one in the extract with which we will close our notice of this fascinating book:

"So he died: the brightest, richest, largest mind but one in the age which had seen Shakespeare and his fellows; so bright and rich and large that there have been found those who identify him with the writer of *Hamlet* and *Othello*. That is idle. Bacon could no more have written the plays than Shakespeare could have prophesied the triumphs of natural philosophy. So ended a career than which no other in his time had grander and nobler aims—aims, however mistaken, for the greatness and good of England, aims for the enlargement of knowledge and truth, and for the benefit of mankind. So ended a career which had mounted slowly and painfully, but resolutely, to the highest pinnacle of greatness, greatness full of honor and beneficent activity, suddenly to plunge down to depths where honor and hope were irrecoverable."

The Wonders of Plant-Life under the Microscope. By Sophie Bledsoe Herrick. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883. Pp. 248.

THIS little book, made up of magazine articles, with some additions, is full of wood-cut illustrations from various sources, many being original, and some of these good, some certainly curious. Curious also is the way in which the more recondite and abstruse matters in vegetable anatomy and physiology are treated with the same familiarity and confidence with the every-day topics of plant-life. The reader who can understand and digest it all will be no tyro. Perhaps the book would have been more instructive if its author had attempted less.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aristophanes: The Frogs. Introduction and Notes by W. W. Merry. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Bassnett, T. The True Theory of the Sun. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.

Blouët, Paul. L'Éloquence de la Chair et de la Tribune Françaises. Vol I. French Sacred Oratory. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Collins, J. H. Mineralogy. 400 illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.

Craddock, C. E. In the Tennessee Mountains. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Crane, Rev. Dr. W. C. Life and Select Literary Remains of Sam Houston of Texas. Two vols. in one. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

D'Anvers, N. Science Ladders. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Day, E. P. Collacon: An Encyclopædia of Prose Quotations. With Biographical Index of Authors. International Printing and Publishing Office.

Durant, Héloïse. Pine Needles, and Sonnets and Songs. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.

Emerson-Channing (W. H.)-Clarke. Memoirs of Margaret Fuller Ossoli. Vol. I. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.

English as She is Spoke; or, A Jest in Sober Earnest. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.

Gilmore, Prof. J. H. The Academic Speaker. Rochester: Scranton, Wetmore & Co.

Globe Pronouncing Gazetteer of the World. 32 maps. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.

Green, W. S. The High Alps of New Zealand. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.

Hake, A. E. The Story of Chinese Gordon. With additions, bringing down the narrative to the present time, by Hugh Craig. R. Worthington. $1.50.

Hallowell, Anna Davis. James and Lucretia Mott. Life and Letters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.00.

Hamerton, P. G. The Intellectual Life. Author's Edition. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.

Hyiton, Dr. J. B. Above the Grave of John Odenswurge, and Other Poems. Howard Challen.

La Cour Impériale à Compiègne. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.

Lang, A. Ballades and Verses Vain. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

Lodge, H. C. Studies in History. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Malabári, B. M. Gujarát and the Gujarátas. 2d edition. Bombay: Education Society's Press.

Manton, W. P. Beginnings with the Microscope: A Working Handbook. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

Marsh, A. J. New Manual of Formed Phonetic Short-Hand. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

Martin-Moale. Handbook of Vertebrate Dissection. Part III. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.

Maurice, J. F. Life of Frederick Denison Maurice, chiefly told in his own Letters. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.

Merz, J. T. Leibniz. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.25.

Milton, John. Poetical Works. W. E. Russell.

Neilson, Joseph. Memories of Rufus Choate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.00.

Oliver, Grace A. Anna Letitia Barbauld: Tales, Poems, and Essays. With a Biographical Sketch. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.

Parker, T. J. A Course of Instruction in Zoötomy (vertebrata). Illustrated. Macmillan & Co.

Reade, Charles. Good Stories of Man and other Animals. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Rogers, J. E. T. Six Centuries of Work and Wages: the History of English Labor. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.

Romanes, G. J. Mental Evolution in Animals. With a Posthumous Essay on Instinct, by Charles Darwin. D. Appleton & Co. $2.00.

Ruskin Birthday Book. A Selection from his Works. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.

Sibbald, J. G. The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. The Clew of the Maze and the Spare Half-Hour. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.

Stokes, G. G. On the Nature of Light. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.

Stratford by-the-Sea. A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.

Straub, J. The Consolations of Science. Chicago: The Colegrove Book Co.

Tait, P. G. Heat. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.

Thatcher, E. Digest of Statutes, Admiralty Rules, and Decisions upon the Jurisdiction, Pleadings, and Practice of the U. S. District Courts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Theuriet, A. Le Mariage de Gérard. Wm. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.

Trollope, A. An Old Man's Love. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.

Westlake, J. Lehrbuch des Internationalen Privatrechts. Deutsche Aufgabe von F. von Holtzendorff. Berlin: C. Habel.

Wife of Monte-Cristo; being the Continuation of Alexander Dumas's Novel of the Count of Monte-Cristo. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.—II.

THE landscapes (including marines, etc.) of the exhibition not noticed in regard to the special quality of fidelity to nature, fall mainly into two classes, conventional (which includes almost all commonplace work) and ideal, *i. e.*, in which color or composition is distinctly the motive. The most widespread error in regard to art (and especially erroneous as applied to landscape) is that its chief function is to imitate nature. No landscape which is simply content with this office can be classed with the noblest art. There are, and always will be, painters of power and great sincerity, whose abilities will be distinctly limited to the straightforward and more or less rigorous realism which, to the uneducated mind, represents nature. These painters in their place are worthy all the success they attain, and it would be well if every landscape painter were compelled to begin with a course of this severe attention to the facts of nature. If there be in him the higher ideal qualities, they will come out with time and training; without the latter they will never get full expression. "Despise not the day of little things" is a maxim which should lie near the heart of every young painter. The work of Albert Ryder, No. 191, indicates native powers of a high order and the feeling of a true colorist, but neither a good method nor tolerable execution. It is typical of a large class of painters who, sometimes from want of executive ability, sometimes from want of self-discipline and artistic conscience, avoid the study of nature, which "puts them out," and trust to unassisted "feeling," wherein they are as sensible as poets who dispense with grammar and reading. Nature furnishes painters with their alphabet and vocabulary, better, on the whole, than any which they can invent for themselves. They are not forbidden to invent, modify, and suppress at will, but they will hardly do wisely the one or the other without having a thorough knowledge of that which nature has provided. Mr. Ryder's work, which is the admiration of a large class of artistically minded people, not only proves his natural abilities, but his utter failure to improve them by proper study and discipline. The history of art (especially American art) abounds in instances of this kind of sterile talent—of painters who only lack training to become great painters, but whom this want limits rigorously to the artistic limbo of still-born genius. Mr. Blakelock (No. 468) lies under the same sentence. The great mind of Da Vinci delivered the sentence which in one shape or another has been repeated over and over by every subsequent supreme artist: "Thou, O God! sellest us all good things at the price of labor." Sir Joshua put it in another shape: "Nothing is denied to well-directed labor." While we recognize with pleasure the evidence of so poetic a talent as that of Mr. Ryder, and that it is of the finest grain, we can only lament that the want of adequate training (and a peculiar and eminent talent is more exacting in this respect than a commonplace one) should condemn it to such maimed and incomplete results.

The work of Mr. Bunce comes in the same category, and his Venetian pictures, Nos. 13 and 396, show the most subtle feeling for tonality, with an incomplete command of the grammar of art. Two small works by Chas. Warren Eaton, Nos. 9 and 12, have to a certain extent the same charm, with a better knowledge of nature than the pictures named, and have indeed the distinct quality of nature's poetic phases. The little picture by Mr. Murphy, No. 305, must be classed in the same general category of work the motive of which is distinctly removed from the commonplace interpretation of nature, but which at the same time struggles with partial training. Bristol's "Keene Valley, Adirondacks," No. 207, is a sunny, effective picture, well composed and well carried out, but with a certain conventional treatment of facts which is not, however, objectionable from the point of view of the artist's way of looking at nature. There is a measure of conventionalism admissible in landscape painting, and indeed, to some forms, indispensable, because the exact and uncompromising rendering of all the detail in a wide distance, if it were practicable to human vision and hand, would not always render the effect of nature, and is not in all cases worth the labor involved. "Facts don't make a picture," and the importance of a picture is not in the character of its facts or the nature of them, but in the use and relation of them. Mere minutiæ are of no importance, and a multitude of facts, too strongly put, leave simply the impression of a hard array of unimportant details, which a painter of true feeling renders more impressively by a conventional statement of them; and this is more or less the case in all good landscape painting, rather more as it approaches the imaginative or poetic, the subordination of facts to the broader and larger truths being the *sine qua non* of poetical treatment. But to conventionalize wisely and expressively it is necessary to

know thoroughly the material, and this brings us back to the same point of the necessity of minute study as a preparation for a larger or poetic style. Swain Gifford, in all his contributions, shows with excellent color a fair mastery of this puzzling problem, which every painter must settle in his own way to have the solution of any real value. Our earlier painters, Cole, Durand, and Doughty, are excellent examples of the varied and individual qualities to be developed in this way. The veteran Moran allows his facility of treatment to carry him too far, and his "Gathering Storm," No. 30, with a remarkable power over effect and large masses, has a glittering facility in rendering the detail, and an exaggeration of the effective passages, which suggest morbid feeling and a drift into the mechanical and formal which characterize the tract that lies beyond wise and good conventionalization. Moran is a colorist in the proper sense of the term, and it is his own fault if he seems to some to be merely trying to catch the tricks of Turner.

An excellent picture in general feeling, but which is not readily to be classified, is "The Upper Hudson," No. 90, by Walter L. Palmer, of which the rippled water-painting is a notable success, and the effect, as a whole, a subtly felt and rightly painted sunshine effect. "A Clammer's Home," No. 104, is well felt and worthy a better place than the Hanging Committee gave it. McCord's "Cross-road Bridge," while leaving very much to be desired in its conventionalizing, has an excellent basis. Why not have gone a little further, Mr. McCord? The "Old Court at Honfleur," No. 278, by Mr. Platt, shows what previous studies have made clear, that he has a very remarkable eye for color and a decided gift for execution. The subject is a difficult one, but is well rendered and with great facility. Clifford P. Grayson's "Wet Day, Brittany," No. 316, is an admirable piece of large realistic painting, solid in method and excellent in tone. Mr. H. Winthrop Pierce's "October," No. 343, is, like some other good pictures, maltreated by the Hanging Committee, but is still to be recognized as a picture of genuine originality and power.

The brothers Hart used to paint better things, for their present work is too easy in its conventionalism and too far from nature as to characterization, while the color leads one to think that the artist believes a hot shadow good to make a warm picture, which is the reverse of the truth.

The marines, except Mr. Richards's, are all too far gone in conventionalism, though sea painting necessitates more of it than is needed in landscape. The small facts in moving water are not only hard to catch, but ineffective when caught. The chief facts of the sea are its swing, its transparency, and its lustre. Mr. Quartley's Nos. 374 and 521 have a good suggestion of these qualities rather than a complete rendering of them, though less complete than in earlier pictures, and, what is not always the case in marines, his shipping is well drawn; but why does he despise his skies, which are without form and void of any cloud quality—painty, and as unaerial as sky could be painted? And even such as they are, they have nothing to do with the sea beneath them. Now the surface of breaking water is more or less governed as to its color by that of the sky above it. Mr. Quartley's skies vary, but his sea does not, and in these pictures the latter and the former are of two worlds. Mr. De Haas in No. 277 errs in precisely the opposite direction—he exaggerates the silvery sheen of the sky, and gives all reflection, but not the reflection of all parts of his sky. He can, after so many years of painting a sea in this special manner, hardly be expected to see that there is more in it than he shows. His rendering is vigorous but unrefined, and by far too conventional. Mr. Moran's "Norther in the Gulf," No. 241, is theatrical if powerful, and morbid in its inkiness, which debars both local color and reflection. It is better in form, and the passage at the extreme right is very true in its wash of foam and swing of the choppy, shallow-sea waves.

There are some still-life and flower studies which merit notice: a box of peanuts in the south gallery is in its way a curiously faithful bit of color. "A Symphony in Yellow," No. 383, is really a very brilliant and artistic bit of coloring, but this use of terms like symphony, nocturne, etc., etc., already appropriated or absolutely proper only to music, savors of charlatanry. "Daisies," by Julia Dillon, No. 75, is a brilliant bit of painting, and there are some others of the kind dimly seen, and not to be judged, therefore, in the corridor.

The figure pictures at the Academy contain by far the greatest amount of ability shown in the collection. The landscape seems to have, on the whole, grown weaker than it was years ago, and, reviewing the exhibition carefully, we find little that we could add to the selections already made. The veterans Hubbard, Whittredge, Bierstadt, Cropsey, and Richards, have settled into definite grooves, in which their places have long been known, and where the public expects to find them. If Mr. Hubbard in his solitary contribution of this year has left his usual key of color, he has not abandoned his manner. The Harts, Gay, Casilear, and the Smillies seem to have forgotten that beyond the fields of their long-ago triumphs there are new victories to be won, and they set the younger men a profitless example. We believe that it would be of very great advantage to art in America to have a review exhibition of the painting of the whole period included in the duration of the Academy, and we feel sure that there is not one of the older men now painting who would not be stirred by his own earlier work, while the best examples of Cole, Durand, Doughty, and their contemporaries would show the younger men and the modern public that if the old art was less conversant with the facilities of to-day, it had a purpose and an all-roundness which we do not find in its successor in the Academy. The abilities of the living painters whom we have named above are indisputable: their rank has been earned by good work; but art lives in easy times when success so many years ago satisfies its ambition.

In figure painting there is more life and better work on the whole than the early Academy could show, and the younger men, in the main, carry off the honors. The President maintains his suave and refined manner both in portrait and his subject picture, "The Goldsmith's Daughter." Beard has never been more successful or humorous than in his "Who is Afraid?"—a group of rabbits spying out the ambush of a felon fox; and Mr. Wood's "Good Night" is up to his standard. Henry's "In the Roaring Forties" renders a subject full of difficulties, studied with the greatest sincerity and well told throughout. Yewell's "In the Studio" is a solid and well-conceived pictorial treatment of portrait, and Loop's "Summer Moon" is as charming a piece of color-motive as he has ever painted, exceedingly subtle and harmonious. But what use is served by the exhibition of crudities like those of May (Nos. 260 and 381) and Howland (No. 414)? Mr. Brown, with his eternal street boys, clean-washed and carefully ragged, street Arabs made out of Sunday-school children, in whom is no possibility of an interesting and picturesque wickedness—reminding one of the orphan children that rush across the stage in an English pantomime—of what world are they? Once, twice, or even now and then, art can tolerate such stage drollery, but *toujours perdrix* is bad enough—always the spurious loafer-boy is too much. If it pays, and there is a public for such work, it is quite natural for Mr. Brown to go on painting him, but it is a pity that his public did not beg him to paint better ideals with the skill and sense of color which he certainly has.

Winslow Homer, in his sole contribution, "The Life Line," seems to be giving himself up to the downward drift of art, which abandons all struggle with difficulties, and accepts past triumphs as warrant for any eccentricities and any amount of careless painting. One must suppose that a painter who could give this smooth, slaty mass, heaved into artificial billows—leaden pigment, with no quality of substance or semblance of the tempestuous ocean, without foam or fury, neither depth nor surface, tame scenic storm-wave—for a sea which could justify the use of the life-line, must imagine he had to do with people who never saw a storm at sea. Nor is its dramatic element more sincere. Is the pretty young woman who has divested herself of everything but a black bathing dress to show her form as much as possible before intrusting herself to the arms that cradle her so gracefully, comfortable in them? The half-drooping head, the hand clinging to the cord, the graceful combination of nether limbs, and the tranquil abandon to the situation betray entire consciousness of the romantic position—neither insensibility nor terror is in her case to be predicated. She may as well open her eyes; any one can see she is shamming, and if she lifted her head to a comfortable pose it would be no more evident. She seems to recognize the fact that there is no danger in such a sea, and that the situation is only a pleasant adventure. When a man who has done the good work Winslow Homer has shown, sinks into such bathos in paint as this, one must wonder if his case is not hopeless.

Let us get to better and more cheering work. Mr. Turner's "Courtship of Miles Standish," No. 282, comes well to the front among the figure pieces. It is in a charming gray tone, silvery and luminous, and Standish's bashful silence and far-off worship, the mute admiration of his ideal, like that of Endymion for the moon, the conscious air of the maiden, as silent as he, but feeling and betraying, in the suspicion of a smile lurking in the corners of her pretty mouth, that she reads him and waits for him to break the ice, make a happy little drama well put on canvas. "The Courtin'," by Anshutz, No. 179, ought to meet with favor, for it is an admirable illustration of Lowell's wise and witty ballad of the same name. The quizzical humor of Huldy's jeering smile contrasts with the awkward and embarrassed state of the suitor, though the dramatic unity of the poem is lost in making him standing as if he had just come in, whereas one sees from Huldy's triumphant air that she feels that her fish is hooked and she has only to choose her moment, a point at which, in the poem, she arrives much later in the visit. But the firelight and the glowing interior, "warm from floor to ceilin'," is excellent painting. Kenyon Cox's little picture, "A Corner Window," is a thoroughly well-painted study—the figure strong in characterization, the *ensemble* very complete, and the execution facile and sincere, without the least affectation of *chic;* as execution, it is quite as good as anything in the exhibition. No. 93, "The Antiquary," by Brenneman, is a good piece of solid work, excellent in color, and extremely careful and faithful in execution, the composition reminding one a little of Japanese work in its waywardness, but happy in its reminder. Ulrich's "In the Land of Promise, Castle Garden," is, as a bit of real-

ism, and especially in types of character, a most noteworthy work, ingenious in its conception of giving to an American subject, properly speaking, the more picturesque forms of individuality which the artist wanted. But it has the defect of monotony of its types, as though the painter, a German himself, had no sympathy with any race but his own.

"The Duel," No. 420, by Leon Moran, is in another way an excellent picture, with a happy feeling for tone. The snow in the twilight leading off into the luminous sky, and the figures, well drawn, and painted with a facility and precision of method which are almost dangerous to so young a painter, and which in many cases lead to hardness and unsympathetic execution, all mark the picture at first glimpse as the work of a genuine talent and a possible future. But in the dramatic quality the painter has sacrificed too much to his composition. One of the combatants has already thrown off his coat and stands ready for the encounter, while the other at a distance discusses, coat still on, with his second, apparently, as to what to do. One at once surmises that after all there will be no duel; and they are, besides, at a distance which suggests pistols, not rapiers, which they both hold. "Mr. Jefferson as Bob Acres," by Mr. Alexander, though hung in the corridor and ill seen, is an excellent study of portrait in character, and the painting of the costume is very brilliant as execution. If the artist would take off a foot from the bottom of his canvas and put it on the top, he would feel the gaininthe dignity of his figure. Louis Moeller's "Puzzled," No. 320, a very well-painted figure, with accessories in an excellent vein of tone and execution, is a success in its way, but frivolous in its motive, for the puzzle is rather with the spectator than with the elderly gentleman who looks at a geographical globe as though he were expecting it to turn alone; but what the puzzle on his mind is, is, of course, beyond any conjecture of ours, and any other name would be as fit. Still, it is uncommonly well painted, though in the German vein, like the work of a Munich student. Alice Barber's portrait figure of a child. No. 274, seated in a high chair, is in an excellent manner of work, happy in pose, and natural, well drawn, and of great sincerity and simplicity in color. Walter L. Palmer's "Studio Interior," No. 116, is good study, and shows power and promise in the painter. Mr. Monk's sheep pictures are noteworthy for their fine sense of the pictorial, and sympathy with and knowledge of the fleecy tribe, and with time and nature he will, we believe, go far and place himself high in the roll of animal painters.

Mr. Miller's "Charity Home," No. 337, is, in spite of its somewhat uncouth subject, certainly one of the most noteworthy works in the exhibition. "The Wedding Dress" of Mr. Weldon, No. 258, is a picture which in its vein of picturesque genre is one of the most successful on the walls. The expressive pose of the young widow, whose grief has, however, evidently had time to subside, the rather disparaging air in the examination of the dress by the old bric-à-brac dealer, are well given, and the painting of the multitudinous accessories is clever and direct; the play of color in the varied material is very effective, almost masterly, and lacks but a little more thoroughness to become so. There is here and there evidence of the desire to seem more at ease in painting of detail than the painter really is. This tendency is one of the greatest dangers of realistic painting, and if yielded to, is inevitably fatal to noble execution. Any affectation or pretence in painting is worse than it is in manners. Bridgman's "First Lesson in Arabic" is a pleasant bit of Eastern life pleasantly painted, but the lesson doesn't seem to be in Arabic. Are not the names of two pictures changed by mistake? This seems too clearly a misnomer.

Millet's "Regina Convivii," No. 118, breaks ground in another direction, and while the so-called archæological art is not in our opinion a legitimate matter for idealism, and, when followed for its archæology, is certain to be spurious, the classical motive, like the mediæval, becomes, by its facility for idealization and the freedom of treatment it affords, one of the highest walks of art. To waste one's life in restoring to art the motives of a past which is utterly dead, with the pretence of giving *actuality* to scenes and characteristics of antiquity, is a double mistake—firstly, because the choice of subject for realization in which the value, if any, is purely scientific, has nothing to do with those motives which are appropriate to art proper; and secondly, because the pretended realization is certain to be a complex blunder. We, in our ignorance of antique life, may imagine that the painter of antique subjects restores it, but it is most certain that if one of the men of those times were to step into the studio he would find it as funny as Rembrandt's Gethsemane, with the Dutch guard armed with blunderbusses. Alma-Tadema, who is of moderns most ambitious in this vein, has, for instance, painted, in his Sappho, a theatre of the post-Periclean epoch, whose seats are inscribed in the most archaic Greek letters, and has given Sappho a reading-desk of a Pompeian pattern! To accept such restrictions as this kind of archæological art imposes is to devote one's self to blundering; for no intelligence can restore the externality of antique life, and to attempt to realize what we can only conjecture about, is utter absurdity. All we know is here and there a fragment. But to take from the classic or mediæval world an ideal, and embody it in complete artistic freedom, is one of the truest aims of art. This is, indeed, the secret of the charm of subjects drawn from classic times, that they allow a freedom of treatment which the subject of our own times does not; and the artist who follows art for its own sake turns to the remote past for this freedom's sake. The sympathy with the classical or mediæval motive (not necessarily the classical or mediæval incident, however) is based on the longing for the freedom of an ideal state, and they who do not sympathize with this can only confess that they do not know what is the artistic and what the historical in art. Ideal art by necessity escapes from the conditions of contemporary life because they are too rigid, and leave nothing of that scope for phantasy and design which are the *sine qua non* of the purest art. So the early Italian painters escaped to the sacred record or the pagan Olympus, never painting the conditions of their day, and so Rossetti and Burne-Jones take refuge in the Arthurian or Dantesque cycles, or the classical, to escape conditions hampering to their art. Even we, with our American history, go back to the old colonial times, as Mr. Turner with his "Standish," and Mr. Satterlee with his "Runaway Couple," No. 232. Of our own day nothing but the most realistic art is acceptable. Mr. Millet is a true classicist, and while he keeps, as in his "Queen of the Feast," to ideal types, he will sacrifice nothing to his love of the Greek ideal; but if, mistaking, he attempts to make classic life an actuality, he will fall as all creators of the *antiquarian genre* have fallen—Gérôme, Alma-Tadema, etc., etc.

We cannot dismiss the figures without a word of approbation for the delicate and refined qualities of Mr. Hamilton Hamilton's work, especially Nos. 4, 415, and 190; Mr. Witt's "Hookey," No. 333; Ferris's "Companion of the Janissary," No. 49; Nicholl's "Fisherboys, Venice," No. 52; Champney's "Coquette," No. 74; Wordsworth Thompson's "Moorish Hunters," No. 136; Alexander's "Cap Maker," No. 227; Turner's "Ruth Huckabuck," No. 405, and the charming fancy of Mr. Church, No. 456, the poor little Cupid tormented for his sins, pitiful darling. Mr. Thulstrupp's "Family Prayers," No. 346, seems to be an excellent picture, but hangs where no judgment can be formed of it. Mr. Champney's "Ophelia" can be seen little more satisfactorily.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1884.

The Week.

THE so-called alliance of the Edmunds and Arthur forces at Utica has no other significance than this, that the supporters of Mr. Arthur, finding that they had no chance of electing their own men, gave their support to those who were least obnoxious to them. The Independents have at all times recognized the meritorious character of President Arthur's administration. They have considered his nomination inexpedient more by reason of his political associations than of his conduct in office. But they have not failed to award him the praise due to a safe, conservative, and judicious public policy. There is nothing wonderful, then, in the fact that the Arthur men in the Convention, finding themselves in imminent danger of being given over, bound hand and foot, to their avowed adversaries, turned their own strength into a channel which would save them from irreparable disaster; for if the Blaine men had secured the delegates-at-large from New York, or even half of them, Mr. Arthur's prospects would have collapsed at once, and the Stalwarts would have left Utica with a sense of disgrace as well as of defeat. As the case now stands, the Half-Breeds cannot brag over them at all the village and ward gatherings in the State, and this is no small consolation. It is a dreadful thing to a "boss" to be ridiculed for his want of success.

It is not too much to say that the result of the New York State Convention will have a powerful influence upon the National Convention. The mere numbers of the district delegates will count for little as against the voice of the State, which says distinctly that a candidate of the type and general equipment of Mr. Edmunds can probably carry the State and be elected. It is of small consequence in comparison whether Mr. Blaine or Mr. Arthur has the larger numerical following. The State itself has pronounced in favor of a third man, and has indicated what kind of a third man it prefers. It has given a verdict against the spoils system and in favor of reform. It has committed its potent influence in national politics to the hands of four uncompromising foes of the Machine. It has done more. It has ratified, in the most public manner, and by a unanimous vote, the efforts made by Mr. Roosevelt to purify the municipal government of New York. No young man of this generation has achieved so remarkable a civic triumph in so short a time. He well deserves to be made chairman of the delegation at Chicago. The prestige of success has thus far waited upon him, and New York will be well content to have her vote announced by one who not only desires to deliver her from misrule, but knows how it is to be done.

The Ohio Republican Convention calls for notice rather by reason of the platform adopted than of any distinct preferences shown for a Presidential candidate. Senator Sherman appears to be the first choice of three of the delegates-at-large. The fourth is believed to favor Mr. Blaine. According to the outward aspect of the proceedings, the entire delegation is more concerned with the problem of party success than with the fortunes of any candidate. The platform was reported by the Committee in the usual way, with a resolution favoring the collection of "adequate revenue to defray the economical expenses of the Government, from duties upon foreign imports, so adjusted as to afford protection to the labor and the agricultural, manufacturing, and other industries of the country." The resolution, in its terms, excluded the taxes on whiskey and tobacco from the sources of national revenue, and the exclusion was apparently intentional. The existence of a windy faction in both parties, led by Mr. Kelley and Mr. Randall respectively, who favor the repeal of all internal-revenue taxes, in order that the treasury may be depleted and the demand for tariff reduction silenced, could not have been absent from the minds of the framers of the resolution. Yet the real significance of the platform was not at first noticed, and it was adopted without a division. Subsequently it was perceived that the resolution would expose the party to the charge of desiring to repeal the tax on distilled spirits. The vote was promptly reconsidered, the platform recommitted and reported back with changes of phraseology embracing "proper internal taxation" among the sources of national revenue. This action is more significant as an expression of public opinion in reference to the whiskey tax than if the resolution had been reported originally in the shape in which it finally passed. It shows that temperance is a stronger sentiment in the party than tariff, and that whenever the two come in collision, as they must eventually, duties on imports will be reduced rather than taxes on liquor.

The great Wharton Barker scheme for distributing the surplus among the States does not make its appearance in any of the State platforms. Even the Pennsylvania Republicans, who adopted it last year, have now dropped it. We cannot recall any other case in which a great idea, which had obtained any recognition at all, disappeared suddenly from the public gaze in this way. There could hardly have been a better illustration, however, than this scheme was, of the warping effect which the tariff exercises on the human mind in Pennsylvania. The faculties which are employed in finding excuses for keeping duties high are developed to an inordinate degree at the expense of the others, until the power of comparison is seriously impaired. In many very acute minds in that region the original object of taxation is almost forgotten, and some people seem to believe that the State may tax a man for fun if it can find no serious use for his money.

The adoption of Mr. Cox's amendment to the Shipping Bill by the large majority of 111 to 69, is a notable triumph over ancient prejudice, and a great step towards commercial freedom. The amendment provides that foreign-built iron ships of not less than 4,000 tons burthen may be admitted to American registry, if owned wholly by American citizens, to be employed exclusively in foreign trade. We call this a triumph over prejudice because nothing but prejudice has maintained the prohibition against foreign ships. A ship is useful only for its carrying capacity, and if we permit the foreign carrier to come here with his cheap ship and compete with the American carrier in the transportation of goods and passengers to and from other countries, it is sheer bigotry and nonsense to prohibit American citizens from buying the cheap foreign ship if they wish to do so. Not only do we admit foreign competition in the carrying trade, but we admit the foreign ship itself, if it is hired and not owned. Any American citizen can charter a British steamer and keep it in service as long as he chooses. Any American citizen can invest as much money as he chooses in mortgages on foreign ships. In short, anything can be done under the old stupid navigation laws which produces competition in ships' *earnings*. It is only as to the flag and registry that the prohibition applies. An American and an English ship may sail side by side from New York to Havana year after year, in the service of an American citizen or company, the one actually and the other virtually owned by Americans, but only one of them can fly the American flag. The climax of absurdity is reached when we are told that the prohibition is necessary in order to restore the American flag to the ocean! If it is important to display the American flag on the high seas, surely one additional showing can be made by hoisting it over the steamship *British Empire* running in the Alexandre Line from New York to Cuba. By changing her name to *George Washington* she would make as brave a display of the stars and stripes as any ship launched by John Roach.

The bill reported in the House from the Committee on Education and Labor for the protection of American labor is a curious piece of legislation. It prohibits any alien coming to the United States under any agreement to work for anybody engaged in the business of mining, manufacturing, building, or transportation, or any corporation whatever. This part of it is what is called "taffy" for the laborer. Then comes "taffy" for the capitalist; for if a person or corporation complains to the President that he is about to start a business requiring skilled labor of a particular kind, of which a sufficient quantity cannot be obtained in the United States, the President, on being satisfied of the truth of the statement, may license such person or corporation to bring in a certain fixed number of such skilled laborers. This sort of legislation is of course sure to come if the present protective policy is persisted in. There is no sense or justice in protecting the products of labor without protecting the laborer also. It is useful, too, as showing the tendency of the protective system toward mediæval restrictions on freedom of

every kind. It is now fast reaching the personal passport or ticket-of-leave stage in this country. From preventing skilled labor coming in under contract there is of course only one step to preventing its coming in at all except under a trades-union license.

We are gratified to note the increasing earnestness of the Chicago *Tribune's* opposition to silver.

"No time," it says, "for forcing more silver into the Sub-Treasury could be more inauspicious than this, when we are losing five millions of gold per week. . . . The more silver this country coins, the more gold it must export. If Congress would abandon its attempt single-handed to sustain the silver markets of the world for the benefit of the silver-mine owners, and suspend the coinage of the silver dollar, our trade balances with Europe would be settled in silver instead of gold. But so long as the Government pays more for silver than any other buyer will give, it will be certain to get all it will take. It will be damage enough to our financial and commercial interests if this Congress fails to accept the warnings of our best financiers that t should discontinue the silver coinage."

This is remarkably sound doctrine, and although we think we have seen something like it before, it is not too late for the Chicago *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial* to render yeoman service in averting further mischief from the Silver Bill. The country has already lost a heavy sum by its purchases of silver, but this loss can be borne. It is the price which a nation often has to pay for its errors in political economy. The United States are rich enough to buy their experience, but having bought it and paid for it, there comes a time when further purchases in the same market become wholly wasteful for educational ends. The present zeal of the *Tribune* and *Commercial* shows that the limit has been reached, so far as the Republican party is concerned. The Democrats, of course, need another round of punishment, being thicker in skin and skull; but they will get it in due time.

The people of Maine are to vote in September on the adoption of a Constitutional amendment prohibiting forever the manufacture and sale of liquor in the State. An earnest discussion is going on there concerning the merits of this proposition, and a great deal of interesting and valuable information is being disclosed. Maine has been for a third of a century a State in which prohibitory statutes have ostensibly prevailed. All authorities agree that those statutes have not suppressed the sale of liquor, and all the most impartial of them agree that they have had little influence in even restricting the traffic. The judges of the courts declare openly that they believe the proposed amendment would not only be useless, but would abolish the present laws without putting any others in their place. Many eminent temperance advocates are against it, and the principal supporters of it appear to be the more fanatical temperance people, and a few politicians who hope to gain something by their advocacy. A remarkable array of statistics is shown by one of the opponents of the measure, in which it appears that under the present prohibitory statutes there are in Maine 1,255 licensed liquor-dealers, or one for every 518 inhabitants. In the city of Portland there are 203, or one for every 177 inhabitants. These figures confirm the words of another opponent, who says: "So far as my observation goes, I am satisfied that there has been no material diminution of the amount of intoxicating liquor consumed in this State, and if there has been any advance in public sentiment as to the use of intoxicating liquors as a beverage, it cannot reasonably be attributed to prohibition."

General Badeau has resigned his position as Consul-General at Havana, and published a letter explaining his reasons. In general terms they are that the Administration has been "screening corruption," negotiating an "injurious and improper treaty with Spain," besides tolerating "injuries and insults put upon American citizens, American seamen, and American trade." He called the attention of the Administration to this "eight times," but it paid no attention to him, and even refused to let him resign, until he suddenly threatened to "appeal to the people." He challenges the Government to publish every despatch between himself and the State Department, "without one word omitted or one line mutilated"; but it is absurd to expect a hardened old fellow like Mr. Frelinghuysen to do this. A man who has been engaged in systematically screening corruption and betraying his country is not likely to stick at altering despatches. The letter shows one thing very plainly, that the diplomatic service is no place for a man of Badeau's goodness and purity. A consul who is forced to threaten his Government with exposure on the stump certainly ought not to remain a consul. That Mr. Frelinghuysen thought that he could keep him off the stump by refusing to accept his resignation, shows how little he understands either what General Badeau calls "our democratic system" or the General himself. The idea of using a consulate to get hold of Government secrets for Stump use is a very good one, and is all the better because the Government has no Stump of its own on which to reply.

General Butler has followed up his letter on strikes by holding a Greenback Convention in Massachusetts, which will send delegates to the National Convention at Indianapolis next month. The Convention, wisely made up of "men little known outside of their own localities," demanded Butler for President, as the man "through whose means the Supreme Court of the United States became the Greenbackers' allies." The question of General Butler's running for President this year is really a financial rather than a political one. His plan is to get, as he easily can with the expenditure of a comparatively small sum, the Indianapolis nomination, and then threaten the Democrats with putting in the field an Independent Butler ticket if they do not adopt him. The "masses," he will say, are communists at heart, and will prove it by recent votes cast in Massachusetts. Whether he can frighten the Democrats much depends simply upon whether they believe that he is really willing to stake a couple of millions on the result. There is a feeling among some of the conservative Democrats that his "blowing" power on such subjects makes him formidable. Altogether it is an odd sort of an attempt, and will be watched with great interest, not only in the United States but throughout the civilized world.

The principal events of the week in business circles have been the shipment of upward of $5,000,000 gold, a sharp decline in several of the specialties on the Stock Exchange, marked by renewed activity on the part of the bears, and an unexpected advance in wheat, accompanied by several failures on the bear side of the market. The gold export now reaches $32,000,000 since the 21st of February, which is $2,000,000 above the highest estimate made of the probable movement when it began. It has had little effect upon the rates for money as yet—proof sufficient that the loss of it is not harmful to any legitimate interest. It will continue, undoubtedly, until the amount of loanable funds is reduced to the actual requirements of business. Nobody need be alarmed about it until there is a marked rise in the rate of interest, and when this happens it will stop. The exportation signifies merely that gold can be used to better advantage on the other side of the water than here. It is the consequence of extreme dulness in trade. This dulness is shown in a decisive way in the increasing weakness of the coal stocks. The restriction of output has had no effect upon the prices of coal. It has not stimulated the demand, but it has produced a semi-panic among the holders of Reading, which declined nearly eight points during the week. Lackawanna fell off two points, and would have declined more had it not been artificially sustained. The restriction of output is an acknowledgment that the instrumentalities for the production of coal are thirty-three per cent. in excess of the demand. But the excess is really greater than this, and the public are discounting it by selling their holdings. Of the other specialties in the stock market, Western Union, Wabash, Oregon Navigation, Erie, and West Shore bonds were the weakest. The Northwestern properties, except Canada Pacific, were well sustained. Among the Vanderbilts, Lake Shore and Michigan Central show a decline of two points each.

General business is without change. The advance in wheat is equal to six cents per bushel. This was brought about by a belief that the supplies of foreign wheat, especially Indian, have been overestimated, and by the fact that the short interest had been unduly augmented since the recent heavy decline. The attempt of the shorts to cover was attended with disastrous results to themselves. The prospects of the next crop are unusually good, but there is a growing opinion that all the wheat on hand will be needed at home before next harvest. The dry-goods trade is inactive without any let-down in prices. The closing of some of the Southern cotton mills is the most noticeable event of the week. Among New England manufacturers a proposal to suspend one day in the week during May and June is meeting with some favor, but has not yet been determined upon. The iron trade is dull and unchanged. Steel rails are in moderate demand at $32 to $33 per ton. Everything points

to extreme economy on the part of consumers, and nowhere is this more manifest than among railway managers, who are cutting down expenses right and left. The condition of things abroad is very much the same as here. The iron trade in the north of England is in a very unsatisfactory state in consequence of the decline in ship-building, which has been as greatly overdone in the past three years as railway building in the United States.

The account given in the *Tribune* on Friday of the proposed treaty for an industrial union shows that eleven foreign states—Belgium, Brazil, Spain, France, Guatemala, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Salvador, Servia, and Switzerland—have signed it. The treaty contemplates a universal union for the protection of priority in trade-marks and patents, with an International Bureau, to be placed under the authority of "the superior administration of the Swiss Confederacy." As an inducement to the United States to ratify it a curious clause has been added, making the provisions of the treaty "applicable only within the constitutional powers of the high contracting parties." This seems simply to amount to saying that the treaty, like all other treaties, is entered into subject to the Constitution, and it is hard to see how it can affect the powers of the States or of the Union in any way. The existing law on the subject of trade-marks in this country is entirely different from that relating to patents. Authority to legislate with regard to patents is given expressly to Congress by the Constitution (Const. U. S., art. I., sec. 8). As to trade-marks, there is no question that they are protected by the common law of the various States; but the extent of the authority of Congress on the subject has been confined by the Supreme Court to cases arising in inter-State or foreign commerce—*i. e.*, the "commerce clause" of the Constitution is held to be the only one from which power to legislate in this matter can be derived. This decision, rendered in 1879, swept away the earlier trade-mark laws, and Congress thereupon passed an entirely new act, giving protection to owners of trade-marks "used in commerce with foreign nations or with the Indian tribes," through a system of registration; the act, however, applying only to countries which by treaty or otherwise afford similar privileges.

This act was passed in 1881, and to see how it works it is only necessary to turn to the existing treaty with Brazil, ratified in 1879. This provides that the citizens of each country shall have in the other the same rights that the citizens of either have in their own. We have a treaty of precisely the same description with the German Empire entered into in 1871. Apparently an extension of this system to all foreign countries is not thought to be sufficient by those who have the International Union in charge. Some more definite statement of their reasons than has yet appeared ought to be put forward. At least one part of the scheme, that providing for a central control in Switzerland, seems visionary; the distinction between patents and trade-marks has been treated as of no consequence; no country of the first rank, except France, has yet given in its adhesion, and most of those which have signed are the countries whose stake in the matter is smallest. The property interests involved are of great magnitude and importance, and the doors of the Senate might well be thrown open during any debate that may be had over it. We doubt if there are a dozen persons in the United States who could tell on reading the treaty draft whether it embodies a practicable scheme or an absurd one.

Mr. Childers's budget for the year 1884 embraces two subjects of interest to the world at large. One is the statement that the national debt has been reduced by eight and a half million pounds during the past year. The other tells us how the Government proposes to deal with the light-gold coinage, which has been an increasing source of vexation for many years. As regards the national debt, Mr. Childers grappled the subject on his accession to office with statesmanlike forecast, declaring the intention of the Government to set aside a definite portion of the proceeds of the revenue each year to its extinguishment, instead of applying the whole to the reduction of taxes. This policy received its first considerable impulse in public opinion some years ago, when the subject of the coal supply was under discussion. Mr. Gladstone at that time made a speech showing the importance of investing a portion of the national income in years of prosperity in sinking the public debt, reinforcing his position by the example of the United States. Mr. Childers is the first Chancellor who has been able to make any marked progress in this direction. The coinage problem is attacked in an entirely original way. It is proposed to reduce the half-sovereign to the character of a subsidiary coin, like the silver coins, by reducing its value ten per cent., and applying the resulting gain, estimated at £1,330,000, to the restoration of full value to the light sovereigns. This will be an interesting experiment.

It is, however, exciting considerable opposition in England. But the opposition appears to be founded upon a misconception of its purport. The outcry raised against it goes upon the assumption that it is a plan for debasing the entire gold coinage, whereas it is really an endeavor to restore to full value the only part of the gold coinage which enters into international trade, and to do this without a resort to taxation. A recent calculation shows that the annual cost of maintaining the sovereigns at full weight—that is, of making good the loss resulting from abrasion—would be about £29,000, and of doing the same for the half-sovereign about £18,000 more. Mr. Childers's plan proposes to make good the sovereign at the expense of the half-sovereign, by reducing the latter to a subsidiary coin like the shilling and the half-crown. The process would be to recoin the half-sovereigns, taking away a certain amount of gold and adding a certain amount of alloy, investing the difference, estimated at £1,330,000, in three per cent. consols, which would yield a sufficient sum to maintain the value of the sovereign from year to year. As the half-sovereign is used only at home, there is no reason to apprehend any disturbance of any kind from the change. The plan is ingenious and not unscientific, but it will be apt to meet a great deal of prejudice, and may be voted down once or twice before its merits are fully understood.

Mr. Gladstone is evidently firmly opposed to anything like a heroic policy in Egypt, or to any arbitrary assumption of the government by England alone. He is determined to meet the crisis which is now imminent by means of a European concert, and is inviting the coöperation of France in a new scheme for the settlement of the debt, which is again becoming menacing; the deficit in the revenue being tremendous. Most of the bonds are held in France, and the owners, who are a very powerful influence in the French Government and press, are very bitter toward England, and are filling the newspapers with threats and abuse. The French Ministry are probably much more disposed of late to take a firm attitude on the Egyptian question, because it has apparently now been discovered that a Cabinet in France can hold together for more than a year.

One of the great troubles in Egypt just now is the quarrel between Nubar Pasha and Mr. Clifford Lloyd, who has been the leading English administrator there. Nubar Pasha is a very able man, the ablest of all the Egyptian officials, and a strong friend of England, whom it is very desirable to keep in office as Prime Minister, because his resignation means the collapse of the Khedivial Government. But he cannot stand Clifford Lloyd, for the reason well given by the London *Times* correspondent at Cairo:

"Mr. Clifford Lloyd is a man whose social popularity is only equalled by his official unpopularity. He possesses indomitable energy and courage; he is thoroughly in earnest; and he attacks an abuse like a bull, utterly regardless of all obstacles. Political considerations and personal susceptibilities he does not consider to be within his province. He would be invaluable if allowed to rule Egypt as a despot, after the abolition of all the Turkish officials—just as Mehemet Ali was after the massacre of the Mamelukes. But this policy, whatever its advantages, is not consistent with Mr. Gladstone's latest declarations."

So Nubar says that either he or Mr. Lloyd "must go." Now, there is much instruction in this as bearing on the Irish question. Lloyd was a paid magistrate in Ireland during all the late troubles. His brutal and overbearing manners infuriated the Irish with whom he came in contact. He was dogged night and day by assassins, but he was brave as well as insolent, and defied them. He was much complained of, but the Government clung to him steadily as a most valuable man. And a valuable man he would have been, it the plan was to set up a despotic government in Ireland, and rule with the gallows and the bayonet. As a means of restoring order based on conciliation and popular institutions, he was a monstrous absurdity. When the Land Act came into operation and quiet began to return, he was transferred to Egypt, where his bullying ways are again making trouble. He is worth studying as an explanation of the reason why English rule, however just or beneficent, is never popular in any country or with any race.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[Wednesday, April 23, to Tuesday, April 29, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

Important Republican State Conventions were held on Wednesday. In New York State the meeting at Utica was unusually large. The Edmunds men held the balance of power between the supporters of Blaine and Arthur. About 2 o'clock on Wednesday morning an agreement was reached between the leaders of the Edmunds and Arthur forces, by which a combination was made to control the Convention, the Arthur men accepting the nominees of the Edmunds men for the four delegates-at-large. These were Andrew D. White, Edwin Packard, John I. Gilbert, and Theodore Roosevelt. This was not a compromise, the Arthur men having accepted the Edmunds ticket bodily. The Blaine men were immediately put on the defensive. The four delegates whom they had agreed upon were ex-Governor Cornell, Senator Miller, Messrs. Sloan and Erwin. At noon they changed their programme, hoping to break the Arthur-Edmunds combination, by substituting the names of Roosevelt and Gilbert for Sloan and Erwin. The Edmunds men refused to accept the compromise. The test of strength was made on the vote for temporary Chairman. The Convention was called to order at 12:30, and Mr. Roosevelt, on behalf of the Edmunds-Arthur men, nominated N. C. Boynton for that position. Senator Miller, for the Blaine men, nominated E. L. Pitts. The ballot resulted in the election of Boynton by 251 to 240. The Chair then announced the various committees which the Edmunds men had previously prepared, and a recess was taken.

After the recess Mr. Boynton was made permanent Chairman. The four Edmunds delegates-at-large agreed upon were elected, the vote being as follows: Roosevelt, 472; White, 407; Gilbert, 342; Packard, 256; Miller, 243; Cornell, 228. It took 248 votes to elect. The platform approved protection, advised the immediate suspension of the coinage of the standard silver dollar, the redemption of the trade dollar, and the removal of unjust restrictions upon American shipping interests. Charles Andrews (Rep.) and C. A. Rapallo (Dem.) were renominated for Court of Appeals Judges by acclamation. A State Committee and Presidential Electors were also selected. Senator Miller's plan for a reorganization of the party was referred to a special committee. The general opinion of the result of the Convention is that both Blaine and Arthur have been practically put out of the Presidential race.

In Ohio, Republican district conventions on Wednesday elected twenty-six Blaine delegates, fourteen Sherman delegates, and two unclassified. The State Convention was held on Wednesday and Thursday. J. S. Robinson was nominated for Secretary of State, and Chief-Justice W. W. Johnson for Judge of the Supreme Court. The following delegates to the National Convention were chosen: Judge J. B. Foraker, William McKinley, jr., M. A. Hanna, and W. H. West. Their sentiments are not pronounced except that three of them are not for Blaine. They look upon Sherman with favor. The Maryland district delegates stand Blaine 9, Arthur 2, Edmunds 1. Dakota's two delegates are for Blaine.

The Connecticut Republicans on Wednesday nominated delegates at-large, and district delegates who are uninstructed, but will support General Hawley if his name is proposed. A resolution in his favor was passed by the Convention.

Mahone's party, the Readjusters, held a convention in Richmond on Wednesday, and elected delegates-at-large to the Republican National Convention. The platform gave "emphatic expression to our preference for his (Arthur's) nomination at Chicago," and changed the name of the Mahone party to Republican. It is said that only one member of the delegation ever voted the Republican ticket. The Dezendorf "straightout" Republicans will also send twenty-four delegates to Chicago.

The Louisiana State election has resulted in the choice of a Democratic Governor by about 50,000 majority. There are charges of extensive frauds and intimidation.

The United States Senate on Tuesday passed the Pleuro-Pneumonia Bill.

A bill to protect American laborers, reported favorably to the Senate on Friday, from the Committee on Education and Labor, provides that the importation or immigration from any foreign country of any alien under an agreement, expressed or implied, that he shall work for any person or corporation shall be prohibited; that every such agreement shall be null and void. It provides a penalty of $500 for every violation of these provisions, and that it shall be a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine of $1,000 and disqualification from holding office under the United States, for any person, while in the official service of the United States, to violate any of the provisions of this act, or to aid and encourage such violation.

The Naval and Post-office appropriation bills were reported back to the House of Representatives on Wednesday, with the recommendation that the Senate amendments be non-concurred in. The House agreed to the Senate amendment to the Naval Bill providing for the armament of the new steel cruisers. Conference committees have been appointed to settle the disagreement on other points.

The House of Representatives on Saturday adopted Mr. Cox's amendment to the Shipping Bill by a vote of 111 to 69, making it lawful for any citizen of the United States to import iron and steel steamships of not less than 4,000 tons free, and entitling such vessels to American registry, provided they are owned exclusively by Americans, and not to be employed in the coastwise trade. The bill was then passed by an almost unanimous vote.

Mr. John J. Knox has tendered to Secretary Folger his resignation as Comptroller of the Currency, to take effect May 1.

In the Criminal Court at Washington, on Tuesday, the case of the United States against ex-Senator William Pitt Kellogg was called. Mr. Kellogg is charged with having received money while United States Senator for services rendered in relation to a contract with the United States, in violation of section 1782, Revised Statutes. This is the Price Star-route case. Mr. Ker opened the case for the Government, summarizing the charges against Kellogg.

The Senate at Albany on Thursday passed the bill for a Broadway underground or arcade railroad. The Governor has signed the prohibitory Oleomargarine Bill. On Friday the Supply Bill was passed by the Senate after an unsuccessful effort to strike out items amounting to $250,000.

The State Senate went into Committee of the Whole on the Roosevelt bills for New York on Tuesday. The first three taken up were the Park, Sheriff, and one of the Surrogate's bills. Mr. Robb said that the Sub-Committee of Fifty-three were opposed to the Park Bill. This was news to a good many who were prepared to support the entire series, and especially the Park Bill. Mr. Robb said that, while he favored the single-headed Park Commission, he thought this bill was crudely prepared. It was then temporarily laid aside. The Sub-Committee of Fifty-three disapproved of the bill because it placed too much power in the hands of one man. On every side, among those who have made the fight in Albany for these bills, the sudden attack of the Sub-Committee of Fifty-three on the Park Bill was regarded with disapprobation bordering on indignation. Notwithstanding this rebuff the Sheriff Bill was advanced without amendment. Later, all three of the bills in the first Committee of the Whole—the Park Bill and the Sheriff's and one of the Surrogate's—were reported favorably and ordered to a third reading. An attempt was made to recommit the Park Bill to the Committee on Cities, but it was defeated, only six voting for it. The Senate then went into Committee of the Whole on three other bills of the series, the Register, and two County Clerk bills. These three bills were also reported favorably and ordered to a third reading with no amendment. This places six of the reform bills on the stage of third reading in the Senate without change. The Jail-Crowding Bill went the same way as soon as the next Committee of the Whole was formed.

In the Assembly on Tuesday Mr. Roosevelt succeeded in getting his Bureau of Elections Bill ordered to a third reading. It provides for the appointment of two reputable citizens and taxpayers, one from each of the two leading political parties, who shall constitute the Board of Elections in New York City. The resolution for a Prohibition Amendment to the Constitution was then called up for reconsideration, but on its final passage was lost—ayes 63, noes 60. Sixty-five votes were required to pass it.

About 5 o'clock on Sunday afternoon the most destructive tornado ever known in Ohio passed over the southern part of Montgomery and Greene Counties, devastating everything in its course. It appears to have originated near Woodburn. Almost the whole of Jamestown was destroyed and six persons killed. Among the other towns seriously damaged were Alexandersville, Carrollton, Bellbrook, and Xenia. The path of the tornado was about one-eighth of a mile wide.

Destructive forest fires prevailed in Michigan on Sunday, accompanied by severe gales. Two million feet of lumber were destroyed at a lumber-yard in Cedar Springs.

Glens Falls, N. Y., was visited by a fire on Monday which destroyed the Opera house, Union Hall, Presbyterian Church, and fifteen stores; loss about $250,000.

Dr. Willard Parker, the eminent physician, died in this city on Friday at the age of eighty-four. For a period of thirty years, beginning in 1839, he was Professor of Surgery in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in this city. When he resigned this position he accepted the chair of Clinical Surgery in the same institution.

Brevet Major-General Opdycke died from an accidental pistol wound in this city on Friday, aged fifty-five. He was at Shiloh, Resaca, Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Franklin, at which last battle, by a brilliant bayonet charge, he turned the fortunes of the day.

Ex-Gov. Marcus L. Ward, of New Jersey, died on Friday, aged seventy-two. He was a prominent and influential Republican.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Hugh C. Childers, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, introduced the Budget in the House of Commons on Thursday night. The revenue for 1883 amounted to £87,205,184, and the expenditure to £86,990,000. The income tax produced £453,000 beyond the estimate. The national debt up to the present time has been reduced by £72,680,000. It is now lower than since 1811, while the interest is lower than since 1805. The national debt was reduced during 1883 by eight and a half millions. The estimated expenditure for the current financial year is £85,292,000, against £85,954,000 during the previous year. Mr. Childers said it was difficult to forecast the revenue for 1884. Trade and agriculture were unsatisfactory, but the working classes were pretty comfortably off. The revenue was estimated at £85,550,000, against £71,866,000 last year. After eight months' experience the parcels post had produced only £155,000, against an estimate of £340,000. It was, therefore, proposed to de

fer the system of sixpenny telegrams until August, 1885. It is proposed to convert the 3 per cent. consols into 2¾ per cents.

In the House of Commons on Friday, the Government virtually accepted the decision of the House in regard to the Cattle Bill as expressed by the vote on April 22. They will propose an amendment, however, slightly modifying the bill by allowing the admission of cattle from one part of a country, although the foot and mouth disease is prevailing in another part.

Mr. Gladstone said in the House of Commons on Thursday that the Government fully recognized the obligation they were under for the safety of General Gordon, and would put themselves in a position to render all needful assistance. The final decision of the Government has been postponed until the arrival in London of Sir Evelyn Baring and General Graham.

England has proposed a conference of the Powers which signed the Berlin Treaty, concerning Egyptian financial affairs. Austria has accepted. The statement estimates that Egypt is now in need of a fresh loan of £8,000,000 in order to meet the most pressing requirements upon it, and points out the difficulty of devising a guarantee for such a loan inasmuch as all the resources of Egypt are already pledged. Italy has also agreed to a conference.

The inspired press of Paris insist that France will assert her rights in Egypt and reject the placing of the debt under British guarantee. The *Journal des Débats* again urges a direct understanding between France and England, and asks why the law of liquidation cannot be revised in the same manner that it was created. M. Waddington returned to England on Tuesday with Prime Minister Ferry's response to Earl Granville's Egyptian proposals. He generally approves the scheme of liquidation.

Earl Dufferin, British Ambassador to Turkey, informed the Government on Friday that the Porte insisted that if an Egyptian conference be held at all, its objects should include the settlement of the political as well as the financial question. Official advices from St. Petersburg and Paris showed that the Russian and French Governments were unwilling to discuss Earl Granville's proposals in view of the absence of any statement regarding the term of occupation and the policy of pacification.

Earl Dufferin has also stated that England maintains that Egypt is entitled to conclude commercial conventions with foreign Powers, granting the "most favored nation" treatment under the firman of 1876. The Porte has taken legal advice and decided not to protest against the treaties which Egypt recently concluded with England and Greece.

The British Government has refused to send an expedition to relieve Berber. This caused on Sunday great excitement in the political clubs of London. A non-party coalition is being formed for the purpose of attacking the Government's policy.

A council was held on Wednesday at the British Consulate, in Cairo, attended by Nubar Pasha, the Eyptian Premier, and Gen. Sir Evelyn Wood, the Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian army. It was decided to advise the British Government to send a mixed expedition of British and Egyptian forces to the relief of Berber. That city was then invested by rebels who were also advancing from Korosko, and held the line of communication between Egypt and the Sudan.

The British agent at Berber telegraphed on Monday that the position of the town was desperate, that the troops were leaving and the rebels were entering houses in the outskirts. Every one was starting for Cairo. Despatches on Tuesday said that Hussein Pasha had proclaimed the evacuation of the town. The inhabitants had fled.

King John of Abyssinia has agreed to Admiral Hewitt's proposals to invade the Sudan and relieve the Egyptian garrisons. Osman Digna has sent a message to King John, through friendly sheikhs, in which he threatens to attack Abyssinia unless the Christians of that country become Mussulmans.

A native paper in Alexandria published on Friday a rumor that Khartum had fallen, that General Gordon was a prisoner, and that the natives were signing a petition for an English protectorate of ten years.

It was reported from Cairo on Saturday that Zebehr Pasha was intriguing, and that he was responsible for the recent uprising north of Khartum.

The Paris *Matin* published on Sunday a report of an interview in which it is alleged that "Number One" (Tynan) is somewhere in England. On Monday it was reported in Paris that an emissary of the Clan na Gael had arrived in that city from New York to buy a cruiser provided with torpedoes. Tynan is expected in Paris soon, where he and O'Cafferty will direct the dynamite and dagger campaign. An acting agent of the new party, which aims to unite all patriotic Irishmen, says that the party has already considerable funds with which to begin a campaign with cruisers provided with torpedoes. These vessels will be employed against British men-of-war in various harbors.

The officials of the Paddington Railway station in England have received threats that the station is to be blown up.

The Convocation of the University of Oxford has decided by a vote of 464 to 321 to admit women to a participation in the honor examinations.

London *Truth* says that Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, will be the next American Cardinal.

Sir Michael Costa died of apoplexy at Brighton, England, on Tuesday night, aged seventy-four. He became distinguished early in life as a composer. In 1829 he went to England and entered upon a notable career. In 1846 he took the direction of the Philharmonic Orchestra and of the Italian Opera. He conducted the Birmingham Festival in 1849, the Bradford Festival in 1853, and the Leeds Festival in 1874. For over twenty years he conducted the Handel Festivals. He composed the operas "Malek Adhel" and "Don Carlos," and "Eli," an oratorio.

The wages of shipbuilders on the Clyde, Scotland, were reduced on Tuesday ten per cent. Twelve thousand men are idle.

The time having expired within which the Rajah of Tenom, in Sumatra, was ordered to release the crew of the wrecked British steamer *Nisero*, a British force will be sent against the Rajah to rescue the crew. The expedition is approved by the Government of the Netherlands.

The Anglo-French Commission to regulate the Newfoundland fisheries has terminated its labors in Paris. France renounces the right of fishing in certain bays of the island, but will exercise strict supervision over places where former treaties empower French subjects to fish. Newfoundland's sanction to the agreement is yet to be obtained.

M. Démosthène Ollivier, the French statesman, is dead at the age of eighty-five. In early life he engaged in commercial pursuits. He became known as a radical in politics, and opposed the restoration of the monarchy of July. After the revolution of February Ollivier was elected to the Constituant Assembly. At its opening session he demanded a unanimous declaration in favor of the Republic, and the whole Assembly enthusiastically approved. After the election of December 10 he constantly combated the Government of Louis Napoleon. He was expelled from France after the Coup d'État, and did not return until 1860.

Maria Taglioni, the famous dancer, died at Marseilles on Thursday. She was born of Italian parents at Stockholm in 1804. Her father was a ballet-master. She made her début in 1827 at the French Opera, and remained upon the stage till 1847, winning great applause in all the European capitals.

Prince Bismarck is preparing a radical revision of the Constitution of the German Empire. He proposes to amend the election law, making a new classification of electors, and to create a permanent military budget. Besides this he will impose upon the Deputies of the Reichstag an oath of fidelity to the Constitution, the object being to exclude Socialists from membership. If the Reichstag rejects these changes, the German princes will be convoked to frame a new constitution embodying Bismarck's ideas.

The Committee of the German Reichstag to which the bill prolonging the special Anti-Social Law was referred adopted on Tuesday, by a vote of 13 to 7, a motion of Dr. Windthorst to eliminate from the Anti-Social Law the clause which empowers the Government to prohibit Socialist meetings. Herr Von Puttkamer, Prussian Minister of the Interior, declared that unless the bill remained unamended it would surely be rejected.

Count Von Moltke is ill with catarrh of the lungs, and has retired on a long leave of absence to his estates in Silesia.

Two Anarchists at Berlin have confessed the details of a recent plot to blow up the statue of Germania at Niederwald with dynamite in a drain-pipe underneath it. Moisture alone prevented an explosion.

Elections for members of the new Spanish Cortes have begun. On Sunday forty-six districts returned 206 Ministerialists to the Chamber of Deputies.

In the Spanish elections the Conservatives used the whole force of the Government organization to secure the return of their candidates. The Liberals in many districts withdrew from the contest. On the meeting of the Cortes the Republicans will protest against this suppression of electoral rights. Of the twenty-four Deputies whom Cuba sends to the Cortes, eighteen are Liberal-Conservatives, three Autonomists, two Independents, and one Liberal.

A revolutionary movement appeared on Monday on the Spanish frontier, in the province of Navarre, where insurgents destroyed a customs office. Thirty armed refugees who were interned at Angoulême, in Southern France, entered Navarre under the leadership of a refugee named Mangado. At last accounts they were reported to be again retreating toward the French frontier with Spaniards pursuing them. Another band of insurgents appeared in Catalonia. Efforts are making to capture it.

More than forty lives were lost by a railway accident near Ciudad-Real, Spain, on Sunday. A passenger train went through a bridge, one of the supports of which had been cut, it is alleged, by Republicans.

A Madrid despatch on Tuesday said: "The American recognition of the flag of the African International Association, with the evident intention of ignoring Portuguese rights, has caused great irritation in Portugal. Such recognition looks like a piece of very sharp practice, novel in international relations, and hardly contemplated by international law."

The Moscow *Gazette* states that an important Mussulman agitation is in progress in the Caucasus. The Mollahs are preaching the assassination of Christians.

A great fire at Panama, on April 27 and 28, destroyed a large number of wooden buildings, nearly all containing stores of petroleum, gunpowder, etc. The loss was about $500,000.

MR. BLAINE'S RAILROAD TRANSACTIONS.

EVERYBODY who knows Mr. William Walter Phelps knows that he is a warm and devoted friend; indeed, he has "a talent for friendship." The fact that a politician is in "trouble" does not freeze the current of his sympathy. It is only a few weeks since he proposed to take even poor Keifer to his bosom. It is not surprising, therefore, that he should, though after three weeks' delay, have come to the rescue of Mr. Blaine, whose ardent supporter and admirer he has always been. But we think we can make it clear that he would have been a wiser and more judicious friend if he had let the matter alone. The natural thing, under the circumstances, for Mr. Phelps to do, was to print the documentary evidence on which Mr. Blaine's character had been assailed. We shall now, in spite of the heavy demands it makes on our space, do it for him, adding such comments as may be necessary. He will not find it pleasant reading, and much of it will apparently be new to him.

The story about Mr. Blaine's connection with the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad had been floating about a good deal in the spring of 1876. So he met it in the House in this fashion, April 25th of that year, admitting that he held bonds of the road :

"As to the question of the propriety involved in a member of Congress holding an investment of this kind, it must be remembered the lands were granted to the State of Arkansas and not to the railroad company, and that the Company derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State, and to the State the Company is amenable and answerable, *and not in any sense to Congress.* Since I purchased the bonds but one act of Congress has passed in any way touching the subject, and that was merely to rectify a previous mistake in legislation. . . .

"In the seven intervening years since Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds were placed on the market, I know few investments that have not been more affected by the legislation of Congress. But this case does not require to be shielded by any such comparisons or citations ; for I repeat that the *Little Rock Road derived all that it had from the State of Arkansas, and not from Congress.* It was in the discretion of Congress to give or withhold from the State, but it was solely within the discretion of the State to give or withhold from the Little Rock Railroad Company."

This statement was accepted by the public generally as a conclusive answer to the charge against Mr. Blaine. It continued to be so considered till June 7, 1876, when the investigation and the publication of his letters revealed the amazing fact that it was not true ; that the franchises and securities of the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad had no value unless the land grant to the State, which was in danger of lapsing, were renewed by act of Congress. Mr. Blaine not only knew this in 1876, but knew it in 1869. In that year, Mr. Warren Fisher took a contract to build the road, with the aid of the land grant, of course. That he was directly interested in getting the act passed which was to provide the money to pay the cost, is highly probable, though not proved. The date on which he made the offer to Mr. Blaine of a share in the enterprise does not appear in the evidence, but it must have been made very soon after the passage of the bill (April 9) and the making of the contract, as appears by the following letter :

"AUGUSTA, June 29, 1869.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: I thank you for the article from Mr. Lewis. It is good in itself, and will do good. He writes like a man of large intelligence and comprehension. Your offer to admit me to a participation in the new railroad enterprise is in every respect as generous as I could expect or desire. I thank you very sincerely for it, and in this connection I wish to make a suggestion of a somewhat selfish character. It is this: You spoke of Mr. Caldwell's offer to dispose of a share of his interest to me. If he really desires to do so, I wish he would make the proposition definite, so that I could know just what to depend on. Perhaps if he waits till the full development of the enterprise, he may grow reluctant to part with the share; and I do not by this mean any distrust of him. I do not feel that I shall prove a deadhead in the enterprise if I once embark in it. I see various channels in which I know I can be useful.

"Very hastily and sincerely your friend,

"JAMES G. BLAINE.

"Mr. Fisher, India Street, Boston."

He recurs to the subject a few days later :

"AUGUSTA, Me., July 2, 1869.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: You ask me if I am satisfied with the offer you made me of a share in your new railroad enterprise? Of course I am more than satisfied with the terms of the offer ; I think it a most liberal proposition. If I hesitate at all, it is from considerations in no way connected with the character of the offer. Your liberal mode of dealing with me in all our business transactions of the past eight years has not passed without my full appreciation. What I wrote you on the 29th was intended to bring Caldwell to a definite proposition. That was all. I go to Boston by the same train that carries this letter, and will call at your office to-morrow at 12 M. If you don't happen to be in, no matter ; don't put yourself to any trouble about it. Yours, J. G. B.

"Mr. Fisher, jr."

Fisher was then proposing to assign his contract to Caldwell, but did not actually do so till September following. Mr. Blaine waited all summer for a "definite proposition" from Caldwell, but none came. So he proceeded to refresh his memory and Fisher's, as follows:

"AUGUSTA, Me., Oct. 4, 1869.

"MY DEAR SIR: I spoke to you a short time ago about a point of interest to your railroad company that occurred at the last session of Congress. It was on the last night of the session, when the bill renewing the land grant to the State of Arkansas for the Little Rock Road was reached, by Julian of Indiana, Chairman of the Public Lands Committee, and by right entitled to the floor, attempting to put in the bill as an amendment to the Fremont El Paso scheme—a scheme probably well known to Mr. Caldwell. The House was thin, and the lobby in the Fremont interest had the thing all set up, and Julian's amendment was likely to prevail if brought to a vote. Root and the other members from Arkansas, who were doing their best for their own bill, to which there seemed to be no objection, were in despair, for it was well known that the Senate was hostile to the Fremont scheme, and if the Arkansas bill had gone back to the Senate with Julian's amendment, the whole thing would have gone on the table and slept the sleep of death. In this dilemma Root came to me to know what on earth he could do under the rules, for, he said, it was vital to his constituents that the bill should pass. I told him that Julian's amendment was entirely out of order, because not germane. But he had not sufficient confidence in his knowledge of the rules to make the point, but he said General Logan was opposed to the Fremont scheme and would probably make the point. I sent my page to General Logan with the suggestion, and he at once made the point. I could not do otherwise than sustain it, and so the bill was freed from the mischievous amendment moved by Julian, and at once passed without objection. At that time I had never seen Mr. Caldwell, but you can tell him that, without knowing it, I did him a great favor.

"Sincerely yours, JAMES G. BLAINE.

"W. Fisher, jr., esq., No. 24 India St., Boston."

It will be seen from this, that he had been already talking of this "point of interest" to Fisher, but was eager to bring it to Caldwell's notice. So he wrote again on the same day, this time speaking of the bill frankly as "your (Fisher's) bill." At this date, Mr. Phelps evasively says, "the transaction was nearly closed." It may have been, but Mr. Blaine's expectations were not closed:

"AUGUSTA, Me., Oct. 4, 1869.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: Find enclosed contracts of the parties named in my letter of yesterday. The remaining contracts will be completed as rapidly as circumstances will permit. I enclose you a part of the *Congressional Globe* of April 9, containing the point to which I referred at some length in my previous letter of to-day. *You will find it of interest to read it over and see what a narrow escape your bill made on that last night of the session.* Of course it was my plain duty to make the ruling when the point was once raised. If the Arkansas men had not, however, happened to come to me when at their wits' ends and in despair, the bill would undoubtedly have been lost, or at least postponed for a year. I thought the point would interest both you and Caldwell, though occurring before either of you engaged in the enterprise. I beg you to understand that I thoroughly appreciate the courtesy with which you have treated me in this railroad matter, but your conduct toward me in business matters has always been marked by unbounded liberality in past years, and of course I have naturally come to the conclusion to expect the same of you now. You urge me to make as much as I fairly can out of the arrangement into which we have entered. It is natural that I should do my utmost to this end. *I am bothered by only one thing, and that is definite and expressed arrangements with Mr. Caldwell. I am anxious to acquire the interest he has promised me. But I do not get a definite understanding with him as I have with you.* I shall be in Boston in a few days, and shall then have an opportunity to talk matters over fully with you. *I am disposed to think that whatever I do with Mr. Caldwell must really be done through you.* Kind regards to Mrs. Fisher.—Sincerely,

"J. G. BLAINE."

"W. F., jr., esq."

These two letters were undoubtedly due to his anxiety to have that ruling, which he had "the curiosity" to hunt up, weigh in the bargain he was expecting.

Was the interest he had already acquired such "as was sold on the Boston market to all applicants"? Nothing of the kind. In that case Fisher's offer would not have been as "generous" as Mr. Blaine "could expect or desire" (June 29). Nor would it have been a "most liberal proposition" with which he would have been "more than satisfied" (July 2). Nor would it have called forth from him the promise that he would "not be a deadhead in the enterprise" (June 29). If the purchase of the bonds "on the Boston market" had inspired these feelings in "all applicants," Mr. Fisher would have been smothered in gratitude.

Mr. Phelps seems to know little or nothing about this matter, apparently because he has not taken the trouble to read the evidence. Mr. Warren Fisher testified before the Committee that he never "sold to James G. Blaine any bonds of the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad"; that the bonds he gave Mr. Blaine were "for other parties" (p. 89, Evidence taken before the Judiciary Committee), and the sale of them was negotiated through Mr. Blaine. Subsequently Mulligan, his bookkeeper, produced Fisher's account with Mr. Blaine. The nature of Fisher's transactions with Blaine, who, owing to objections by members of the Committee, was described as "the third Party," or as "A," was such that "A sold to parties in Maine, on Fisher's account, $130,000 of common stock, $130,000 of preferred stock, and $130,000 of first-mortgage bonds, and the third party was to get $130,000 of land-grant bonds, and $32,500 of first-mortgage bonds for his share in the transaction." For all this Fisher received only $130,000 in cash. The memorandum book submitted by the witness showed in the margin the amounts payable as commission to Mr. Blaine by Mr. Fisher.

It appears, then, that Mr. Blaine did not tell the truth when he said that the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad Company owed nothing, "in any sense," to Congress and that he did not confine himself to the use of the word "company" (April 25, 1876). Mr. Phelps is now in our columns on this point guilty of something very like a quibble, and is himself the person who inaccurately reports Mr. Blaine's language. Mr. Blaine was not as sly as Mr. Phelps supposes. He said both "road" and "company," and meant road when he said company. Nor did Mr. Blaine tell the truth when he said "he bought the bonds at precisely the same rate as others paid"; nor does Mr. Phelps speak truly when he says that "there is no evidence which suggests" that Mr. Blaine was appointed an agent to sell the bonds of the company. Since Mr. Phelps is an honorable man, this simply shows that he has not read the evidence. He will find a flood of it on pp. 90, 94, 95, 103–4–5 of the "Evidence taken before the Judiciary Committee" of the House in May, 1876. Mr. Blaine was made such agent on "liberal" and even "generous" terms, and sold $130,000 of the bonds under the arrangement, and afterward took back a number of them—say seventy-five—from the persons to whom he sold them, and who could not or would not bear the loss caused by their depreciation.

What became of these bonds which he took back? We said in our article of April 10 that there was "strong but not conclusive evidence" that they were taken off his hands by the Union Pacific Railroad. Mr. Phelps, who seems to read very carelessly, describes this as a positive "charge," made "without a particle of proof." What he produces as disproof again shows that he has not read the evidence. The witness Atkins, a director of the Union Pacific, testified that the 75 Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds were bought by the Union Pacific Railroad Company for $64,000, when they were worth only $37,500 (p. 91). The witness Mulligan testified that Atkins told him his belief that the bonds came from Mr. Blaine to Mr. Thos. A. Scott, and that he got the Union Pacific to take them off his hands at the high rate (p. 95). Atkins denied this, but did not question Mulligan's veracity. He thought it must be a mistake. Mulligan also testified that he (Atkins) made the same statement to Mr. Blaine personally. The witness Fisher was under the impression that the seventy-five were Blaine bonds, and, in a correspondence with Blaine touching a settlement, thought he answered Blaine's complaint about his losses in the Little Rock and Fort Smith transactions by referring to this excellent sale to the Union Pacific, without eliciting any contradiction from Blaine (p. 119). The witness Harrison, a Government director of the Union Pacific, testified that on discovering the seventy-five bonds among the assets of the Company he moved an investigation, but was "taken aside" by Mr. Rollins, the Secretary and Auditor of the Company, and asked to withdraw his motion as it would injure Mr. Blaine; and that he subsequently found it impossible to have the matter inquired into (pp. 18–21). The witness Rollins could not remember who told him the bonds came from Mr. Blaine, and found his memory would not work on this point; but did not know why the Company should have bought the bonds of anybody (pp. 27–28). The witness Thomas A. Scott testified that he bought the bonds of Caldwell (Blaine's friend) at eighty cents on the dollar, and sold them to the Union Pacific Company at the same price he gave, eighteen months later, when they were worth only fifty or sixty cents on the dollar. The reason the Company made this very peculiar investment, by which it paid $22,750 more than the market value of the securities, was, he said, that it owed him a considerable amount for salaries and other services (pp. 47-50). From whom Caldwell obtained them, and on whose account he made this remarkable sale, did not appear, because Caldwell was in Europe in 1876. The inquiry was interrupted at this point, too, by Mr. Blaine's illness. But the evidence, we repeat, taken in connection with the relations of all the parties, strongly pointed to the sale of the bonds to Mr. Tom Scott, at nearly double the market rate, by Caldwell on Blaine's behalf, and a subsequent and more extraordinary sale of the same bonds to the Union Pacific Railroad Company, the whole being followed by a general hushing up of the matter, and a great failure of memory on the part of all concerned. Mr. Phelps's citation of Mr. Sidney Dillon, E. H. Rollins, and Morton, Bliss & Co. is simply worthless, though probably made without intent to deceive, because he has evidently not read the testimony. Morton, Bliss & Co. were no more likely to know anything about the transaction than the New York Postmaster who delivered their letters. The affectation of indignant surprise with which Mr. Phelps meets this would be most audacious if he were speaking in his own behalf, but is pardonable in an enthusiastic advocate.

Mr. Phelps's answer, in so far as it relates to the Northern Pacific transaction, calls for no fresh comment. He evidently knows nothing about it. We shall therefore simply reproduce Mr. Blaine's letter, and the passage relating to it in our article of April 10:

"AUGUSTA, Me., November 25, 1870.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: A year ago and more I spoke to you about purchasing an interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad for yourself and any you might choose to associate with yourself. *The matter passed by without my being able to control it, and nothing more was said about it. Since then the Jay Cooke contract has been perfected, the additional legislation has been obtained, and 230 miles of the road are well-nigh completed and the whole line will be pushed forward rapidly. By a strange revolution of circumstances I am again able to control an interest, and if you desire it you can have it.* The whole road is divided into twenty-four shares, of which Jay Cooke & Co. have twelve. The interest I speak of is one-half of one-twenty-fourth, or one-one-hundred-and-ninety-second of the entire franchise, being that proportion of the eighty-one millions of stock that are being divided as the road is built, and a like proportion of the Land Company stock that is formed to take and dispose of the 52,000,000 acres of land covered by their grant as amended by the law of last session. The amount of stock which this 1-192 would have in the end would be about $425,000, and the number of acres of land it represents is nearly 275,000. The road is being built on the 7.30 bonds, $25,000 to the mile, which Jay Cooke takes at 90. Instead of mortgaging the land they make a stock company for its ownership, dividing it *pro rata* among the holders of the franchise. The whole thing can be had for $25,000, which is less than one-third of what some other sales of small interests have gone at. I do not suppose you would care to invest the whole $25,000. I thought for a small flyer eight or ten of you in Boston might take it—$2,500 each. For $2,500 thus invested you would get ultimately $42,000 stock and the avails of some 27,000 acres of land. Five of you at $5,000 each would have a splendid thing of it.

"The chance is a very rare one. I can't touch it, but I obey my first and best impulse in offering it to you.

"All such chances as this since Jay Cooke got the road, have been accompanied with the obligation to take a large amount of the bonds at ninety, and hold them not less than three years. I will be in Boston Tuesday noon, and will call upon you. Of course if you don't want it, let it pass. You will receive an immediate issue of stock to a considerable amount, and certificates of land stock also. *Of course, in conferring with others, keep my name quiet, mentioning it to no one unless to Mr. Caldwell.* I write under the presumption that you have returned, but I have heard nothing. Yours truly,

"J. G. BLAINE."

This offer was accepted by Fisher, as appears from the following (p. 129):

"Received of Warren Fisher, jr., $25,000 in trust, in consideration of which I am to deliver to said Fisher properly authenticated certificates of an interest in the North Pacific Railway Company, equivalent to one-eighth part of one of the twenty-four principal shares in which the franchise-stock of said company are divided; certificates to be in the name of Elisha Atkins.

"Witness my hand.

"JAMES G. BLAINE."

On this peculiar transaction we remarked, on April 10:

"It appears from acts of Congress relating to the road, none of which are of older date than July 2, 1864, that the authorized stock was $100,000,000, with a land grant, estimated by the Commissioners of Public Lands at 47,000,000 acres, or 74,423 square miles. The line of the road was 2,000 miles long; and at

the time of Blaine's letter to Fisher, it was, he says, being built on bonds at $25,000 a mile, which would have made a bonded debt of $50,000,000. Mr. Blaine, as member of Congress and Speaker of the House, must be taken to have known about the circumstances of the road, and, therefore, there seems no escape from the conclusion that his offer was based on the expectation that he would receive almost as a gift a share in an enterprise dependent for its value on legislation in which he had taken part. Mr. Blaine's defence in the case of this transaction consisted at first of a denial that he had ever had any transaction with the road at all, but he afterwards rested on the fact that he had no pecuniary interest in the transfer, and that it was never actually made; yet, though this might be a defence to suit against him for a conspiracy to defraud purchasers of the stock, it does not affect in any way the nature of the offer. His relations with Warren Fisher were, in 1870, as appeared from the evidence, such that any favor done the latter, or gift presented to him, had a direct pecuniary value."

The letter shows, too, that he had actually been in pursuit of an interest in the road a year previously, had failed to acquire it, and that in the interval additional legislation for the benefit of the Company had taken place.

The charge of having obtained the letters from Mulligan by pledging his word of honor to return them, and then breaking his pledge, Mr. Phelps, we take it for granted, tacitly confesses on his friend's behalf; so that no more need be said about it, except that we are sure that there are enough voters who feel strongly about it to make it certain that no man who has figured in such a transaction shall ever sit in Washington's chair. On the other points discussed by Mr. Phelps he has nothing new to offer, except that he does not agree with the *Nation*. We may add that we believe Mr. Blaine's railroad transactions have no further interest for the public, and we do not mean to return to them. What gave us or anybody any interest in them was the chance of his being nominated for the Presidency—which has now, we believe, passed away.

MR. THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S CAREER.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt is still a young man, who has been but a short time in politics, and whose hold on public opinion of course still wants the final and binding stamp which nothing but prolonged trial in a variety of situations ever gives. He may still lose his hold on popular confidence through great mistakes. It may turn out that his moral and intellectual qualities fit him better for strife and struggle than for assured success. We do not ourselves look for any of these things, but we admit that it is open to any critic to expect them without being considered captious or pessimistic. Whether they are true or false is, however, of little consequence for our present purpose. We mention them merely for the purpose of showing that in using him as an illustration we are fully aware that his career is not complete, and has not been subjected to the final tests.

What is it that his success thus far indicates? It indicates, in our opinion, in a very striking way, that the term "politics" is returning to its original meaning—the management of public affairs, as distinguished from the working of the nominating machinery. At the close of the war the South—that is, a distant region of which the people of the North had little knowledge, and whose condition their opinions could do but little to affect either for good or evil—became for a number of years the sole bone of contention in national politics. This, combined with the continued smouldering of the passions of the strife, put all home questions in abeyance, and converted politics into a simple scramble for office; elevating the successful caucus managers into the rank once occupied by statesmen. The old-fashioned type of leader, like Silas Wright, Seward, and Marcy, in this State; Webster and Sumner in Massachusetts, and Clay and Calhoun, and even Davis and Benjamin, at the South—that is, men who obtained prominence and maintained it through the ideas which they held and advocated, and the great lines of public policy with which they were identified—seemed between 1865 and 1880 to have passed completely away. A new kind of politician, of which we may use Mr. Conkling, of this State, as an illustration, came on the stage, and took complete possession of it. Mr. Conkling, for instance, came into public life in his early youth simply as a skilful manager of local caucuses, then of district, and then of State conventions. He knew how to wheedle, and coax, and convince, and terrify the smaller tribe of politicians into doing his will in the various stages of that monster growth of nominating machinery which is the strangest, most puzzling political product of the day, and the one of which the future is hardest to predict. Through these arts, and these only, without even an affectation of interest in great public questions, without any pretence of devotion to ideas, or of concern about legislation or responsibility for it, he rose rapidly under the new régime to be the leader of his party in this State, and he was for some time the most potent influence in the Administration at Washington. For men to whom questions, ideas, measures were the chief concern, who sought to embody in laws long-planned schemes of public improvement, he used at that time hardly to conceal his contempt. They were visionaries, doctrinaires, molly-coddles, pedants. In a convention managed by him, they furnished subjects of ill-concealed amusement to his followers. What he thought upon the great topics of the day—and some of them were among the most serious topics of our time—nobody knew and apparently nobody cared. He made no speeches about them, wrote no articles, and affected no sort of interest in them.

Moreover, he of course furnished a model to the generation of young politicians who came after him. He set the fashion, not only for the young fellows like himself who began to dabble in politics in the country towns, but to the young "gentlemen" in this and other cities who thought they would like to be State legislators, or Senators, or foreign ministers. Several went up to Albany from New York during his reign, and, if they stuck to their work, rapidly began to be "practical," and sneer at the "reformers," and affect contempt for people who did not know how to "fix" primaries and make "deals," or to "knife" opponents, and who yet presumed to talk politics and complain of the use of the public service as spoils. In fact, indifference to public affairs, and scorn for men who wished to improve anything, and profound respect for successful wirepulling and secret management, became the note of the new school. It was most visible in New York, but it spread to other States.

Conkling fell through the gradual growth of a healthier public sentiment as much as through his own folly. But for the revival of popular interest in public affairs, the state of things which drove him into his final blunder would not have grown up. And he is to-day in his retirement a far more impressive illustration of the effects of the system under which he rose than he ever was while in power. Under the old régime, in which the leaders were men of ideas and policy, a politician who filled so conspicuous a position as he filled in this State for so many years, could not suddenly drop into insignificance and obscurity. He would remain identified in men's minds with great causes, or plans, or measures. His advice would still be sought; his speeches would be remembered and quoted. He would have a large body of followers who would see in his return to public life the best possible expression of their own hopes and aspirations about public affairs. But of Conkling's political greatness literally nothing remains but what he calls "the chalk-mark of captain on his brow." What he thinks or ever thought, says or ever said, about war or peace, currency, trade, foreign affairs, State rights or wrongs, nobody remembers and nobody cares. When he lost his hold of the patronage there was nothing left of him.

Now, the fact that the most successful young politician of our day, Mr. Roosevelt, should have achieved his success in a manner so different—that is, by a complete return to the arts by which all the earlier statesmen rose into power—is certainly one of the most hopeful signs of the times. He has achieved all the distinction he possesses by untiring devotion to *questions*. He has occupied himself with legislation, embodying the ideas of that portion of the American people who, in the long run, rule the country—the portion which believes in making the world better by effort, and is not satisfied with "harmony" over the offices. He has not been discouraged or daunted by the sneers of "the boys." He has not sought cheap success and popularity with the professionals, by sneering at the kickers and grumblers; and he has resolutely occupied himself, day in and day out, first, last, and all the time, with public business. The result is, that in three or four years he finds himself the most powerful man in a Convention made up largely of these very professionals, and finds that his equipment is, after all, even for the work of management, the best that a

young man in our day can have. The lesson for young men, and especially for young men of leisure, who wish to "go into politics," is very instructive, and they will wisely take a note of it. The times have changed and are changing, and they will do well to change with them.

PROHIBITION WITHOUT COMPENSATION.

Now that the Iowa Legislature has passed a law prohibiting the manufacture and sale of all intoxicating liquors, including ale, wine, and beer, and prescribed severe penalties for violation of the act, some interesting questions are raised. One of them is this: How far has a State, in the exercise of its authority to make police regulations, the legal right to interfere with property interests vested under a preëxisting and different law? Can it, for instance (as has been attempted in Iowa), after having encouraged the investment of capital in the manufacture of wine and beer, turn short round, and, without making compensation to those whose property is either wholly destroyed or greatly depreciated in value by the change, declare such manufacture (with the attendant sale of the manufactured product) to be illegal?

The Constitution of the State of Iowa provides:

1 (Sec. 9, Bill of Rights). "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law."

2 (Sec. 18, Bill of Rights). "Private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation first being made, or secured to be made, to the owner thereof."

3 (Sec. 21, Bill of Rights). "No bill of attainder, or ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligations of contracts, shall ever be passed."

The last two of the foregoing provisions protect vested interests in two ways; first, by forbidding the unjust conversion of private property to public uses, and second, by forbidding absolutely and at all events the infraction of any obligations created by contract. But they do not reach the case which has arisen in Iowa. They do not forbid the State passing, if it choose, a law prohibiting the manufacture and sale of liquors, the practical effect of which is to confiscate a vast amount of private property. For such a law does not seek to convert the property thus taken to public uses, nor does it impair the obligations of any contract under which such property has been held. The first constitutional provision quoted goes further than the last two. It might be supposed to reach the case which has arisen in Iowa. This, however, has been denied by the Iowa Supreme Court in Santo et al. vs. Iowa (vol. ii. Iowa Reps., p. 164).

But vested interests are also protected by the Constitution of the United States. That instrument provides:

1 (Sec. 10 Art. 1). "No State shall pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligations of contracts."

2 (Vth Amendment). "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation."

3 (Sec. 1 XIVth Amendment). "No State shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law."

This last provision of the Federal Constitution, it will be observed, is identical with that provision of the Iowa State Constitution which the Supreme Court of Iowa has held not to forbid the passage by that State of a prohibitory liquor law affecting vested property interests. Let us take the sense of several of the present members of the Supreme Court of the United States on the effect of such a constitutional provision. Says Justice Miller, in Bartemeyer vs. Iowa, 18 Wall., 129 (a case not decided on the point discussed in the following dicta, however): "The weight of authority is overwhelming that no such immunity has heretofore existed as would prevent State Legislatures from regulating, and even prohibiting, the traffic in intoxicating drinks, with a solitary exception. That exception is *the case of a law operating so rigidly on property in existence at the time of its passage, absolutely prohibiting its sale, as to amount to depriving the owner of his property.* A single case, that of Wynehamer vs. The People (3 Kernan R.), has held that, as to such property, the statute would be void for that reason." Justice Bradley also remarks in the same case: "No one has ever doubted that a Legislature may prohibit the vending of articles deemed injurious to the safety of society, *provided it does not interfere with vested rights of property.* When such rights stand in the way of the public good, they can be removed by awarding compensation to the owner." And finally, in the same case, Justice Field says: "I have no doubt of the power of the State to regulate *the sale* of intoxicating liquors, *when such regulation does not amount to the destruction of the right of property in them.* The right of property in an article involves the power to sell and dispose of such article as well as to use and enjoy it. Any act which declares that the owner shall neither sell it nor dispose of it, nor use and enjoy it, *confiscates it; depriving him of his property without due process of law.* Against such arbitrary legislation by any State, the Fourteenth Amendment affords protection." It seems, therefore, that, if the arguments of Justices Miller, Bradley, and Field, in Bartemeyer vs. Iowa, should, in any case growing out of the recent prohibitory enactment of the Iowa Legislature, prevail with the court of which they are members, an open sale of a glass of wine or beer in existence at the time of such enactment, on or after the Fourth of July next, the day on which prohibition takes effect in Iowa, would not be illegal, but that the statute prohibiting it would be unconstitutional and void.

LITERARY CENTRES.

THE death of Mr. T. G. Appleton has attracted attention again to the condition of Boston as a "literary centre," a subject on which the New England newspapers have published within a year or so several articles. In these the fact of what Mr. Wegg would have called the decline and fall-off of that city has been admitted, and various attempts made to explain it. One theory advanced is, that in a growing country like the United States it cannot be expected that the literary centre, any more than the centre of population, should remain the same; if it was in Boston a generation ago, it may fairly be expected to be found in New York now; hereafter, perhaps, in Chicago, or Kansas City, or Omaha. The difficulty with this explanation is that few candid New Yorkers appear to be ready to claim that this city really is a literary centre, such as Boston may really claim to have been. In fact, one of our best-known critical writers, Mr. R. G. White, continually insists that New York, too, has fallen off from the palmy literary days of the Tontine Coffee-house and "Old Tom's." It is not that there are fewer men who follow literature as a profession in New York than there were, for we believe there are more than ever, and just as many of them have been in their different ways as successful as ever their predecessors were. But for some reason they do not make New York a literary centre such as all faithful New Yorkers fondly believe it to have been in the days of Halleck and Bryant and the Knickerbockers. The cohort of lion-hearted youth who are said to be engaged in a generous rivalry to see which shall supply the Madison Square Theatre with a play that will run without spreading among the spectators a desire to run, do not make New York a dramatic centre in the sense that Paris has been for so many years. The equally gallant band of yearling novelists whose surprising stories of American life go through the pages of the magazines, have not yet made it a centre of fiction. Mr. James, who might almost be claimed as a New York novelist, is denounced by his critics as a European in disguise, while Mr. Howells, whose origin is Western even if his habitat is New England, is, for some reason which we never have been able to make out, suspected of a concealed literary kinship with the author of 'Daisy Miller,' and at any rate has little or nothing to do with New York. By a literary centre we suppose something like Edinburgh at one time, Boston at another, Paris a generation ago, is meant—a place which has a distinct literary character and standard of its own, which it sets up and by which it judges the past, present, and future. There is little or nothing of this sort in New York, and therefore the idea that the literary centre has simply been transferred from Boston to New York falls to the ground.

Another theory is, that in the future we are not going to have literary centres any more. After all, what does a country like ours want with such centres? It was all very well to start literary centres in the ante-railroad and telegraph times, when New York was as far from Boston as London was from it before there was a cable. But now every literary man makes his own centre, and for the real lover of letters, whether he be in Oshkosh or the social and commercial capital of the continent, he may still do the work that is "in him," as the late Mr. Carlyle would have said, quietly and humbly and faithfully, without seeking earthly reward. This is undoubtedly a very noble and inspiring view of the subject, and has been embodied in a stirring poem of Browning's, adapted to any latitude or period,

celebrating the unselfish life-long devotion of its hero to the interesting problems, if we remember right, presented by the Greek particle δε, and the well-known verbs in μι, which even Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., does not wish to snatch from any one willing to devote time to them as an elective.

This is really an altogether new view of the whole subject. The development of purely individual literary centres is novel, and, of course, explains the decline of corporate or municipal literary centres like Boston. There is, for instance, Joaquin Miller, the poet of the Sierras. His poetry does not belong to any school or fashion, and would be just the same whether it was written in a hall bed-room in New York, a two-pair back in London, or a cave in the Rocky Mountains. It does not resemble the Lake school, nor the Emersonian, nor the verse of Longfellow, and we are confident that if it did, Mr. Miller would at once change it. In the same way there is Walt Whitman, the discoverer of the great truth that there is no difference between virtue and vice, between the pure and the filthy, the beautiful and the ugly, prose and verse, but that these are all different and equally interesting manifestations of the Ego of the poet, the Bard Walt himself. There is the Sweet Singer of Michigan, who has shown that neither rhyme, nor metre, nor sense, is essential to poetry. She lives in Michigan. Michigan is not a literary centre, but she is. Zola is an almost perfect instance of an individual literary centre. He teaches us, not that there is no difference between virtue and vice, or the beautiful and the ugly, the foul and the pure, but that the secret of art is "small profits and quick sales," as they say in dry goods, and that the artist makes himself notorious most easily by a careful delineation of the disgusting. Zola, it is true, is a Parisian, but he does not represent Paris as a centre of literature in the way that Balzac or Victor Hugo once did. He represents Zola, and is his own literary centre.

If it is the principle of the individual literary centre which is now beginning to establish itself, it is capable of indefinite extension, limited in fact only by the ingenuity, originality, or eccentricity, or what the old fashioned literary set call the "conscience," of the centres themselves. One may spring up tomorrow in Albany, or Gowanus, or any other unexpected place. The Queen of England has, in the seclusion and entirely unliterary atmosphere of Windsor Castle, and under the inspiration of the society of an entirely uneducated Scotch gillie, written one of the most popular books of the day, in which she shows what use may be made, by any one who knows how, of the flat and uninteresting in literature, and what a mistake it is to imagine that successful authorship is necessarily confined to those who have anything to say. If this view of the future of literature is correct, it shows how foolish it would be for the Bostonians to repine over the decline of Boston as a literary centre. The field hereafter will be world-wide, and each strange new centre will attract the attention of the whole of it until it is diverted by the appearance of some one even more delightful, surprising, and monstrous than his immediate predecessors.

THE PLAYWRIGHT'S ART.

THE system of symposia has spread to Belgium. The *Revue Politique* publishes a *causerie* delivered at Brussels by M. Abraham Dreyfus, "Comment se fait une pièce de théâtre?" It is a very bright *causerie*, but it is rendered much brighter by letters from Dumas, Augier, Sardou, Labiche, Legouvé, Doucet, Gondinet, Banville, d'Ennery, Zola, Pailleron. M. Dreyfus had the happy thought of getting these dramatists to write his lecture for him; but he furnished his part in skilful introductions, ingenious transitions, and neat compliments, treating them as a good presiding officer treats the after-dinner speakers at some banquet. But the result of it all must have been that the audience know no more how to compose a good play than before.

M. Augier had protested that he did not know how his plays were composed, and when asked if he did not make his own pieces, replied, "Certainly not, they make themselves." Nevertheless, in his letter he gives two processes, the first the same rule that the old sergeant gave to the conscript for forging cannon: to take a hole and put brass around it; the second just the opposite: to take brass and put a hole through the centre. The hole in cannon is called *l'âme;* the same name may do for a dramatic work. This advice, which to the frivolous might seem trifling, is to M. Dreyfus full of deep meaning. There are plenty of dramatic pieces made of nothing, of emptiness, which is covered with something sounding and brilliant. Such pieces, well put upon the stage, with showy scenery and costly toilettes, have a great success and last for a time; and this, as it is the easiest, is the most usual method. The other, which is the best, is to take some solid material, that is, a strong idea, and give it dramatic life, to put an *âme* into the brass. Such, flatteringly avers M. Dreyfus, is the process by which M. Augier's pieces are constructed. Augier does, by the way, quote one other recipe from a friend—Imbue your last act with sweet tears, and scatter sparkles of wit over the other four—which is useful advice for those who have wit and tears at command; those who have not may reflect upon the recipe, First catch your hare. M. Dumas's letter is longer, but it ends in the same avowal: he does not know how plays are written. One day he asked his father, who said, "It's a very simple matter—the first act clear, the second act short, the whole interesting"; which advice, like the other, is excellent to those who know how to follow it, but the playwright is born, not made, either by others or himself. One might as well ask *Romeo* how he went to work to love *Juliet* and to be loved by her.

Sardou writes that every one has his own method, and that the only invariable rule that he can suggest is, that one must know where he wants to go and how to get there. Labiche enters more into detail. When he hasn't an idea, he says, he bites his nails and calls upon Providence. If he has an idea he still calls upon Providence, but with less fervor, because he thinks he can do without its assistance. He then draws up the plan, scene by scene, of the whole piece from beginning to end. Then he goes over it most carefully, inquiring what purpose each scene serves, whether it introduces or develops a character or a situation, whether it helps forward the action. A play must be going all the time. If it lags, the public yawn; if it halts, they hiss. Finally, to make a lively piece, one must have a good digestion. M. Labiche must have always enjoyed a perfect digestion.

M. Legouvé also is practical. He insists on the distinction between a romance, which one may begin without any idea how it is to come out, and a play, which must have a definite plan—which, therefore, must be begun at the end. Walter Scott conceived his characters and sketched a situation, and then let the story work itself out as it would. Eugène Sue declared that a plan would put fetters on his imagination; if he was to surprise his public, he must be surprised himself. He often got his characters at the end of a part into an inextricable tangle, without the least idea how he was to get them out. George Sand only needed a thought, a phrase, a scene to set her going. But Scribe, the Dumases, Augier, Labiche, Sardou know exactly where they shall land before they set out on their journey. This same belief in the importance of a plan appears in the letters of Sardou and Labiche. Still, Legouvé allows that there are unplanned *chefs-d'œuvre*, and that an author who really had some talent—Molière—owed his dénouements in large measure to fortune.

M. Doucet lays the chief stress on following the fashion. To-day, he says, the "Misanthrope" would run a great risk of being rejected by a manager; and if by chance it was played (for the first time) it would have a very moderate success. The treasurer would soon demand that it should be replaced by "L'Ami Fritz." Whereupon, killing two birds with a single stone, M. Dreyfus protests that "L'Ami Fritz" is a very good comedy or idyl, and that M. Doucet's "Les Ennemis de la Maison," produced thirty-four years ago, has not yet been driven from the boards by fashion. M. Gondinet tries the modest vein. When he gets an idea for a play he does not ask whether he can make a *chef-d'œuvre* of it, but only whether the subject will be amusing to treat. A little pleasure now is more to him than a bust even of marble after he is dead. Théodore de Banville's reply is what might be expected of a poet. M. Dreyfus's question, he says, is really double: 1, how to write a play that shall succeed and bring in a good deal of money; and 2, how to compose a really good drama, that shall have some chance of lasting. To the first question he answers, Nobody knows; for if the process were known, all the theatres would make six thousand francs every evening. To the second his reply is, Have genius; there is no other way. In art, talent is nothing, genius is everything. And then he ends with a fling at Scribe; he would not be Théodore de Banville if he did not have his fling at Scribe.

M. de Banville's advice, "Have genius," is not always easy to follow. M. d'Ennery's is not much easier. It is: Take an interesting idea, a subject neither too new nor too old, neither too original nor too commonplace, so as to avoid displeasing both the vulgar and the refined. Zola writes that he is out of the running; he has harnessed himself to a novel ('Les Rougon-Macquart') which will take the rest of his life; he shall hardly get back to the dissipation of theatrical writing before extreme old age. But if he ever does, he shall try to have his plays less artificial in plan than is the modern custom. Molière's comedies are of very simple construction, almost too simple, whereas Scribe's (poor Scribe!) are *articles de Paris*, fearfully and wonderfully made. Finally, M. Pailleron closes the long list by avowing, like Dumas and Augier and Sardou and Banville, that he does not know, that nobody knows—the successful author least of all. And the proof is that he may write a play and be perfectly sure of it, the manager may accept it (though a manager must from

experience be a sceptic and by interest ought to be), the actors will like it when it is read to them (at least will like their own parts, which is all that they listen to), the rehearsals will go off well, the dress rehearsal especially, and yet at the first performance, though the public is nowadays substantially the same as at a dress rehearsal, the piece may fall flat. Talent, skill, experience are all very well—to some unknown extent and in some unknown proportions they are necessary; but there is something else in it, something demonic, mysterious. After all, M. Pailleron is here simply repeating the testimony of all ages in regard to works of art. And the other letter-writers, practised playwrights in the city where the best plays in the world are made, men who ought to know if any one could know, all substantially agree with him. When women learn to be graceful by studying Peirce's 'Curves and Functions,' when horses are taught to run and leap by showing them Muybridge's photographs, and birds get hints in flying from Marey's 'Aerial Locomotion,' then the art of writing plays may be part of the instruction in the common schools, and the theatre will please the Universalists, for no play will be damned.

PLASTER CASTS FOR MUSEUMS.

THE four chief German-speaking capital cities are all known as "art-centres," but only one of the four is rich in original works of classic sculpture. That one is, of course, Munich, ranking sixth among the cities of Europe in this respect, or after London, Athens, Rome, Paris, and Naples. The other three cities of German race, Berlin, Dresden, and Vienna, to make up for their comparative poverty in this respect, and Munich to complete and illustrate its possessions, have organized large museums of reproductions, of which the Berlin collection is by far the richest, the Dresden one the best lighted and best shown, the Vienna one somewhat less extensive than that at Dresden, but growing fast, and, if room is to be had for it in the newly built museum building, or elsewhere, likely to equal Berlin very soon. The Munich collection of plasters is also extensive, but so badly housed in dim and crowded little rooms off the Hofgarten, that it is hard to study. It appears to be considered as an incomplete and unorganized museum, for it is open only twice, or perhaps only once, a week, and although for marks and pfennigs the custodian will meet you there as often as you like, you have still to find him and make your appointment; so, no more of the Munich *Museum von Gypsabgüssen*.

The *Museum der Gypsabgüsse* at Vienna, belongs to the Imperial and Royal Academy of Plastic Art, and is perhaps the only one belonging to an art-school which comes within the compass of our inquiry, as being general in its nature, historical, comparative, and not confined to the developed and elaborated art which is supposed alone to be good for pupils to study. It is especially noticeable for the admirable care and good taste which have presided over it. The 600 pieces which compose it have been carefully chosen from among the 3,000,* more or less, which are above ground and of importance enough to be reproduced for such a purpose. If the whole ground floor of the Academy building, or if, still better, more spacious and roomy quarters elsewhere could be had for it, a slight annual expenditure—4,000 gulden a year for twenty years—would make it equal to that of Berlin in extent, and perhaps superior in choice and arrangement. There is an intelligent little catalogue, or rather a guide, for it is not complete, and leaves unmentioned the less important pieces and calls itself only a *Führer;* but it is good and instructive. The Munich pamphlet is a mere numbered list.

The Dresden Royal Museum of Plaster Casts has a catalogue somewhat fuller and more popular in character, with quotations and critical remarks, but having the fault of too great unevenness in its descriptions, devoting a page to one statue and passing the next with a mere mention, not stating even the place where the original was found or the museum in which it is housed. The collection itself numbers 800 pieces (classic art alone). Varied and fine as it is, it is open to the suspicion of being less carefully selected than it should have been: there are too many Roman inferior copies of finer Greek originals, and too many much-restored ornaments of palace galleries. But it is a capital museum for study. The Zwinger Palace affords it an ample series of halls, open and airy for the most part, and abundantly lighted. The *Barokstyl* in which it is built has the good trait of allowing, and in fact demanding, huge openings, and even the ideal museum of the future can hardly be expected to give a larger percentage of glass-surface.

We come now to the capital of the Empire, and it is worth noticing what has been done and what is doing to make of Berlin a metropolis of intelligence. The German imperialists have been laughed at for being in too much of a hurry to claim all sorts of superiorities as the immediate concomitants of military supremacy: one critic having discovered that "Faust" is a greater drama than any of Shakspere's, and a legion of them being busy in trying to shove German plastic and graphic art into the front rank. No harm in laughing at those vagaries, but it may be better worth our while to observe what has actually been done toward intellectual supremacy; and it is a fact that Berlin is to-day the best place in the world to study classic sculpture. For everything is there. The results of the Olympia excavations are arranged and displayed at full; the Pergamon marbles, with their strange revelations of the later Greek spirit in art, are to be seen nowhere else in Europe; the old museum contains, besides these, a score or two of original antiques, among which are two or three of first-rate importance; and, finally, the new museum displays the finest collection of casts from the antique in the world—1,400 pieces. If to these we add the Olympia collection, we shall have more than 1,600 pieces. If to both we add the sculptured slabs from Pergamon, it will appear that at Berlin the student can see and examine two-thirds of all the most important classical sculpture above ground. Indeed, the pieces that still lack are rather doubles of what is here, than entirely independent and otherwise unrepresented designs. The desirability of having also these replicas, no student will dispute; moreover, every student will have some favorite bas-relief (like fifty at Athens), some Greek marble head (like two at Brescia), some bit of archaism at Constantinople or some out-of-the-way town, or in private hand—all of which may be wanting at Berlin. But practically this combined museum of classic sculpture may be accepted as complete; as sufficient for purposes of study, up to the point where the student, giving up his life to it, starts to visit the shrines themselves.

The authors of the general Guide to the Berlin museums ('Führer durch die Museen') are very mild-spoken about the collection of casts. Naïvely they say that it is "difficult to get together quickly a collection of original sculptures with limited means," and remind themselves and the reader that the best (they might have said the *good*) pieces of ancient sculpture are "in festen Händen"; not for sale. Apologetically, they urge that "even if a part of the full impression of a plastic original must be wanting in a cast of it; even if the cast, by getting dirty, or by imperfect care and preservation, should be injured, yet is the opportunity of closely comparing scattered masterpieces even in their casts most valuable." To which the reader is inclined to answer, in his thought, with an affirmative a degree warmer than the hesitating suggestions of the authors, who, perhaps, are among those who think it strange that conquering Germany should not have all the original masterpieces in the new Imperial capital. As the reader turns down the page of the introduction to the 'Führer' we have cited above, or opens the too brief separate catalogue of the casts, he probably enters one of the eleven halls or corridors in which the collection is arranged; and his feeling probably is that if the collection before him is *not* important and valuable, it must be because of some serious essential defect in plaster casts; it must be because some heavy charge, as of infidelity to their originals, can be made good against them. He finds himself invited, as it were, to select the best hundred pieces of sculpture from the Vatican, the best hundred pieces from the Capitol, the Lateran, and the Villas Albani and Ludovisi, the best hundred and fifty from the British Museum, including all the Parthenon sculptures which are there; and so on throughout Europe, from Madrid to Constantinople. He finds, too, that the rule is to strip the modern additions from the antique originals; that the catalogues so declare, and that accordingly many, if not all, the more injurious restorations are suppressed in the casts. The San Ildefonso group is, indeed, left as it appears in Madrid, although put down as "stark restaurirt." This rule, though the only safe one for a museum of casts, is a little less binding than for originals, because the choice of originals to copy will naturally be made from the less injured antiques. In Berlin, however, it is to be rigidly enforced hereafter. Finally, our visitor finds the kindred sculptures brought together for comparison; for instance, the Hermes of the Belvedere set face to face with its older double, the Athens statue which I have described and praised in these columns as the "Hermes of Andros," where side by side would assuredly be a better arrangement. These comparisons the catalogues urge and aid, brief and temporary as the catalogues are as yet. And our visitor must indeed be convinced that casts are poor things, or he can hardly fail to be aware of a thrill of emotion as he contemplates the prospect before him.

What, then, are the shortcomings of plaster casts? Are these shortcomings truly so important that a collection of casts is essentially inferior to a collection of marbles and bronzes? To answer first the second question, let us see what competent and interested judges think of plaster of Paris as a medium for plastic form. What is the material in which all the important works of modern sculpture are first exhibited? The French school of sculpture is obviously the first now in existence. The annual Salon is that school's chosen place of exhibition and triumph. There are shown not only the portraits, busts, and bits of domestic sentiment, but also the great designs for the exterior decoration of public buildings, the Government commissions, the national monuments. Mr. Bartholdi's "Lion of Belfort" stretched its gigantic length along one end of the "Jardin" in 1878; Mr. Chapu's monument to Berryer stood there in 1877; Mr. Dubois's monument to General Lamoricière was shown there, one statue at a time. No more important works of modern sculpture could be

* Classical sculpture only is under consideration here. A note affords also the best means of explaining that a long frieze is here taken as not one but many pieces; the Parthenon frieze, *e. g.*, though bearing only the one number, 32, in the Vienna catalogue, consists really of about one hundred slabs, and is so numbered at Berlin and so considered here.

named than these. And in what material is it that the sculptors embody their thoughts when *first* given to the public, and to the judges who award medals and the marks of all that social and professional success for which sculptors strive? It is plaster of Paris. Nine times out of ten, the first exposition of a work of plastic art is in plaster; or, to leave the annual exhibitions and to pass over the newly-founded triennial Salon, the show of sculpture in the Champ-de-Mars in 1878, when the pick of ten years' work was brought together, and a sculpture gallery was made up such as gave one new ideas and new hopes of modern art, the exhibited works were generally in plaster. And let us hear the archæologists, the professors, the champions of exactness, and the students of the antique; what did they, in their late favorite and most serious undertaking, get for their efforts? What did Berlin receive for the thousands of marks spent in uncovering Olympia and in securing the precious marbles for Greece? Plaster casts—nothing but plaster casts, photographs, and glory! The long gallery built on the foundations of the never-built new cathedral at Berlin, where once were the Cornelius cartoons, is filled now with the Olympia sculptures, *in plaster*. The pediment sculptures are given twice—once above, in a full-size model of the pediments themselves, and once below, on tables, each statue beneath its double in the architectural frame above. On the walls are the metopes, on brackets the more interesting heads, at one end of the gallery the Nike and the Hermes of Praxiteles. Nowhere else can the Olympia finds be judged aright; and these casts are, by the original agreement, all that Germany gets for her money, except some trifling monopoly of photographing for a limited time.

If, then, the Berlin people are satisfied with their plasters, and if modern sculptors stake their reputation upon casts, the common American contempt for them is somehow a mistake. So far as this prejudice is caused by the cheapness of casts, or by the daily appearance of poor copies of poor originals, misleading the uninstructed into buying what they suppose to be works of art, so far it is absurd: one might as reasonably dislike marble because our cemeteries contain such very dreadful things in that material. But to our first question: What are the shortcomings of plaster as a medium for plastic form? The chief one is the opaque, dead whiteness of plaster when new, so inferior in beauty to the lustrous, crystalline, slightly translucid surface of marble. In marble, even the whitest and most uniform, there are slight, untraceable differences in color and in the reflection of light from its surface, which slight variety becomes more marked as the marble is exposed to the air. In the case of bronze, the effect of time is far greater. Now, plaster casts can be colored (of the advisability of that, by and by); but it is evident that however much we may wish for a material with all the advantages of gypsum and a more beautiful surface, this fault is not an *essential* one. The work of art remains in all respects the same, in the plaster as in the marble. Every quality which the sculptor gave his original is independent of the more or less perfect whiteness, the greater or less brilliancy of surface of the medium. We cannot imagine a sculptor altering his modelling even in the slightest degree to accommodate itself to snow-white plaster, or to marble of any ordinary kind, or any other white material of tenacity and hardness sufficient.

Now, as regards accuracy of reproduction in form, plaster of Paris keeps its place as the best material for common use. The workmen tell us that it swells very slightly just before setting, and then shrinks again, either exactly to its original volume or a trifle more, according to the quality of the material. The expansion is so slight that the mere tying of a string around the filled mould prevents its bursting; the ultimate shrinkage is so slight that the mould is only just released by the cast. Every one knows how sharp and exact a sealing-wax impression of a seal may be made; but antiquarians generally prefer a plaster to a wax impression of an intaglio inscription or head for purposes of study.

We reach the conclusion, then, that a thoroughly well made plaster cast is the best reproduction of any work of sculpture. It remains, in every case, to be sure that the cast is well made. There are good workmen in the cities where the great museums are, and really extraordinary skill is shown by them in making and putting up casts of the largest and most complicated works of art. The writer has watched, for days together, the process of taking these casts, and with wonder at the skill and readiness displayed. In the case, for instance, of the carved walnut stalls and canopies of Amiens, than which work can hardly be imagined by man more elaborate and more delicate, with its population of statuettes, its delicate relief sculpture, and the elegant pierced canopies high overhead, workmen were busied in the spring of 1882 in making a cast of three of the bays together. This is now put up in the Trocadero museum of comparative sculpture, and wonderful it is as a piece of clever workmanship. Still, in all the casts, even of the best workmen, there is one fault which constantly appears, and a bad one: it is the inaccurate placing of adjacent moulds, so that the surface of one piece of the plaster cast given by one mould is not precisely continuous with the surface of the next piece, after the whole is put together. The smooth rounding of a thigh or a shoulder will then be wholly contradicted by such an interruption. Let the reader look at any cast in a studio or art-school, or in the shop of a maker of casts; the little projecting ridges show where there were joints between the moulds. Now, suppose one of these ridges carefully and gradually scraped away, would the surface be perfectly continuous, the curves unbroken, with no break or step? The casts commonly for sale will not be found to bear this test very well.

The casts we commonly see, those covered all over with the little ridges, as above described, are made from plaster moulds. Casts are also taken from gelatine moulds, and these latter show no seams nor joints, for the gelatine is so pliable that it can be turned almost inside out, and the most elaborate castings withdrawn from it without injury to the delicacy of the mould. This very pliability, however, limits its practical use. The gelatine mould has to be supported behind by a counter-mould of plaster. When the cast is made, the gelatine and cast are lifted together from the plaster backing; the gelatine can then be opened, pulled off, dragged away like a glove; and when a new cast is to be made, the gelatine mould is put back into its plaster holder, and, from its great elasticity, takes its proper form, within as well as without. This method of employment causes its use to be almost confined to bas-reliefs; but statues have been moulded in gelatine, two moulds going to a statue, as if two reliefs without background should be put together, back to back. A cast of the elaborate marble pulpit of Santa Croce, in Florence, is for sale there, and the maker says it was made in more than sixty different moulds, all of gelatine. In such cases there are, of course, seams and ridges; but it is not hard to keep them where they are not very prominent, thanks to the flexibility of the gelatine.

R. STURGIS.

Correspondence.

A DEFENCE OF MR. BLAINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On April 10 you made formal charges against James G. Blaine. They are the same which were made eight years ago, and which were, I think, at that time satisfactorily answered. Lest others, however, may, like yourself, have forgotten everything except the misstatements, you must permit me to remind you of the facts. I think I may claim some qualifications for the task. I have long had a close personal intimacy with Mr. Blaine, and during many years have had that knowledge and care of his moneyed interests which men absorbed in public affairs are not inapt to devolve upon friends who have had financial training and experience. I do not see how one man could know another better than I know Mr. Blaine, and he has to-day my full confidence and warm regard. I am myself somewhat known in the city of New York, and think I have some personal rank with you and your readers. Am I claiming too much in claiming that there is not one among you who would regard me as capable of an attempt to mislead the public in any way? With this personal allusion—pardonable, if not demanded under the circumstances—I proceed to consider your charges.

The first charge is really the one upon which all the others hinge. I give it in full and in your own language, only italicising some of your words, in order that my answer may be the clearer. You say:

"In the spring session of Congress in 1869, a bill was before the House of Representatives which sought to renew a land grant to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad of Arkansas, *in which some of Mr. Blaine's friends were interested;* that an attempt to defeat it by an amendment was made, and was on the point of being successful, and its promoters were in despair; that at this juncture, Mr. Blaine, being then Speaker of the House, sent a message to General Logan, to make the point of order that the amendment was not germane to the purposes of the bill; that this point of order was accordingly raised and promptly sustained by Mr. Blaine as Speaker, and the bill was in this manner saved; *that Mr. Blaine wrote at once to the promoters calling attention to the service he had rendered them, and finally, after some negotiations, secured from them, as a reward for it,* his appointment as selling agent of the bonds of the road, on commission, in Maine, and received a number of such bonds as his percentage; that the leading feature of this transaction appeared in two letters of his afterward made public, dated respectively June 29 and October 4, 1869."

Your error is in the facts. Mr. Blaine's friends were not connected with the Fort Smith and Little Rock Road at the time of the passage of this bill. Those to whom you refer as his friends were Caldwell and Fisher. The bill passed in April, 1869. In April, 1869, Mr. Blaine did not know that there was any such man as Caldwell; and Fisher, who was Mr. Blaine's friend, did not know that there was any such enterprise as the Little Rock Railroad in the world. The evidence of these assertions was before Congress, was uncontradicted, and is within your reach. On the 29th of June, nearly eighty days after Congress had adjourned, Mr. Blaine, from his home in Maine, wrote to Fisher, and spoke of Fisher's "offer to admit him to a share in the new railroad enterprise." Fisher had introduced the subject to Mr. Blaine for the first time a week before at the great music festival at Boston. He told him there that Mr. Caldwell, whom Mr. Blaine had not yet seen, had now obtained control of the enterprise and had invited Fisher to join him. At that time Fisher was a sugar refiner of considerable wealth in Boston, had

been a partner of Mr. Blaine's brother in-law, and through him had made Mr. Blaine's acquaintance. The offer Mr. Blaine refers to in his letter was Fisher's offer to induce Caldwell, if he could, to let Mr. Blaine have a share in the bed rock of the enterprise. Mr. Fisher failed to do this, and Mr. Blaine never secured any interest in the building of the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railroad.

What interest, then, did Mr. Blaine obtain? An interest in the securities of the company. How? By purchase, on the same terms as they were sold on the Boston market to all applicants; sold to Josiah Bardwell, to Elisha Atkins, and to other reputable merchants. He negotiated for a block of the securities, which were divided, as is usual in such enterprises, into three kinds, first-mortgage bonds, second-mortgage bonds, and stock. The price, I think, was *three for one.* That is, the purchaser got first-mortgage bonds for his money, and an equal amount of second-mortgage or land-grant bonds and of stock thrown in as the basis of possible profit. I may be mistaken as to the price, but I think not. I went myself at this time into several adventures of the kind on that ratio, and have always understood that Senator Grimes and his friends got their interests in the Burlington and Missouri Road, a branch of the Union Pacific, on the same basis of three for one. It was the common ratio in that era of speculation. Mr. Blaine conceived the idea that he might retain the second-mortgage bonds as profit and sell the first-mortgage bonds with the stock as a bonus. He believed the first-mortgage bonds were good, and he disposed of them to his neighbors in that faith and with the determination to shield them from loss in case of disaster. Disaster came. The enterprise, like so many others of the kind, proved a disappointment and the bonds depreciated. Mr. Blaine redeemed them all. In one or two cases only had he given a guarantee. In none other was there any legal obligation, but he recognized a moral claim and he obeyed it to his own pecuniary loss. I cannot but feel that the purchasers of these bonds would have fared worse had they been compelled to look to many of those who have sought to give an odious interpretation to Mr. Blaine's honorable conduct. The arrangement for the purchase of the block of securities was made in June or July. The sales of the first-mortgage bonds out of the block were continued through the months of July, August, and September, 1869. The transaction was nearly closed when, in the letter of October 4, Mr. Blaine wrote to Fisher and told him the parliamentary story of the 9th of April. Mr. Blaine had come across it while looking over the *Congressional Globe*, with a natural curiosity to see what had been his decisions during the first six weeks of his Speakership, and he wrote of it to Fisher as an item in the legislative history of the enterprise into which they had both subsequently entered. It concerned a bill to renew a land grant, made long before the war, to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad. The bill had passed the Senate without opposition, and there was no one objecting to it in the House, but the advocates of the Memphis, El Paso and Pacific Railway Bill sought to attach their bill to it as an amendment. This El Paso Bill was known at the time as General Fremont's scheme, and had been urged upon Congress before. It was unpopular and was openly opposed by General Logan. Wedded to the Little Rock Bill it would gain strength, but the Little Rock Bill would lose strength, and a just measure, universally approved, would be killed in the effort to pull through with it this objectionable measure which was generally disapproved. Mr. Blaine's letter to Fisher will tell the rest of the story. He wrote: "In this dilemma, Roots, the Arkansas member, came to me to know what on earth he could do under the rules, for he said it was vital to his constituents that the bill should pass. I told him that the amendment was entirely out of order because not germane, but he had not sufficient confidence in his knowledge of the rules to make the point. But he said General Logan was opposed to the Fremont scheme and would probably make it. I sent my page to General Logan with the suggestion, and he at once made the point. I could not do otherwise than sustain it, and so the bill was freed from the mischievous amendment and at once passed without objection." Mr. Blaine added these very significant words: "*At that time I had never seen Mr. Caldwell, but you can tell him that without knowing it* I did him a great favor. . . . I thought the point would interest both you and Mr. Caldwell, *though occurring before either of you engaged in the enterprise.*"

This seems, Mr. Editor, to dispose of your first charge. The bill was a just one and Mr. Blaine's friends had no interest in it when it passed the House. Eighty days after the House adjourned Mr. Blaine asked his friends, who had in the meantime taken hold of the enterprise, and had offered him some interest, to let him in as a partner. They refused. They did, however, sell him a block of securities on the same terms they sold them to others, and it proved an unfortunate purchase, for he sold them out among his friends, believing them valuable, and took them all back when they depreciated in value. The letter of Mr. Blaine, written long after the transaction, is his complete vindication. To give it a semblance of evil you assign a date to it six months before it was actually written. The late Judge Black, after an investigation of the whole subject, declared in his characteristic style that "Mr. Blaine's letter proved that the charge (which you repeat against him) was not only untrue but impossible, and would continue so to prove until the Gregorian Calendar could be turned around and October made to precede April in the stately procession of the year."

Your second charge consists of two parts. The first part is that Mr. Blaine wrongfully asserted that "the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road 'derived its life and value and franchise wholly from the State' [of Arkansas], and not from Congress; whereas the evidence subsequently taken disclosed the fact that the road derived the value on which these bonds were based from the Act of Congress of which Mr. Blaine secured the passage." It will be found that you have inaccurately quoted Mr. Blaine's language, or rather that you put language into his mouth which he never used. What Mr. Blaine did say was, "The railroad *company* derived its life, value, and franchises from the State of Arkansas." And Mr. Blaine stated the precise truth. What are the facts? More than thirty years ago Congress granted to the States of Missouri and Arkansas a certain quantity of public lands to aid in the construction of certain lines of railway. The franchises which should be granted to the companies that should build the road were expressly left by Congress to the Legislatures of the States. Mr. Blaine spoke therefore with absolute precision of language, as he usually does, when he stated that "the Little Rock Railway Company derived its life, value, and franchises wholly from the State of Arkansas," just as the Illinois Central Railroad Company derives its life, value, and franchises from the State of Illinois, though enriched by a land grant from the United States, just as the Little Rock Road was.

The second part of your second charge is, that Mr. Blaine did not speak truthfully when he asserted that he bought the bonds "at precisely the same rate as others paid." There is no evidence anywhere to sustain this accusation. I have already said any person could negotiate for them on the one-for-three basis just as Mr. Blaine did, and many availed themselves of the opportunity. The price paid was not in the least affected by the fact that Mr. Blaine had already arranged to sell the securities at a higher price than he paid for them. He did this with the determination, honorably maintained, that he would make good any loss which might accrue to the purchasers. These sales did not change the price paid to Fisher, and the proof that they did not is found in the fact that Mr. Blaine paid it to him in full. You speak in this connection of Mr. Blaine's being appointed an agent to sell the bonds of the company. No such appointment was ever made and no evidence suggests it. Mr. Blaine negotiated for his securities at a given price which was paid in full to Mr. Fisher.

Your third formal charge relates to an alleged connection of Mr. Blaine with a share in the Northern Pacific enterprise. You charge this in the face of the fact that in Mr. Blaine's letter, in which you find the subject referred to, was his distinct asseveration that he could not himself touch the share. Have you seen any evidence that he did? I have not. The Northern Pacific Railroad Company has been organized and reorganized, and recently reorganized a second time. Its records of ownership and interest have passed under the official inspection of at least a hundred men, many of whom are political enemies and some of whom are to my knowledge personal enemies of Mr. Blaine, and there has never been a suggestion or hint from any of these that in any form whatever Mr. Blaine had the remotest interest in the Northern Pacific Company. If one of your associates has such evidence, it is right that he should produce it.

Your fourth charge is, that after Mr. Blaine got possession of the so-called Mulligan letters, "he subsequently read such of them as he pleased to the House in aid of his vindication." The answer is that Mulligan's memorandum of the letters, in which he had numbered and indexed each one of them, was produced, and number and index corresponded exactly with the letters read. This was fully demonstrated on the floor of the House, and is a part of its records.

You repeat the charge that Mr. Blaine received a certain sum from the Union Pacific Railroad Company for seventy-five bonds of the Little Rock Road. You say this without a particle of proof. You say it against the sworn denial of Thomas A. Scott, who was the party alleged to have made the negotiation. You say it against the written denial of Mr. Sidney Dillon, President of the Company; against the written denial of E. H. Rollins, Treasurer of the Company; against the written denial of Morton, Bliss & Company, through whose banking house the transaction was alleged to have been made. Against this mountain of direct and positive testimony from every one who could by any possibility have personal knowledge of the alleged transaction, you oppose nothing but hearsay and suspicion as the ground of a serious charge against the character of a man long eminent in public life. The courtesy which admits me to your columns prevents my saying what I think of your recklessness in this matter.

Your fifth charge arraigns Mr. Blaine's policy as an executive officer, and your last charge is that of his packing conventions in his own favor. I do not desire to dwell upon either. This is not the place to review his foreign policy to which you refer, and I am content to remark

that however much some Eastern journals may criticise, it is popular with a large majority of the American people. It is simply an American policy, looking to the extension of our commerce among the nations of this continent, and steadily refraining from European complications of every character.

The charge of packing conventions needs no answer. This is the third Presidential campaign in which Mr. Blaine has been undeniably the choice of a large proportion of the Republican party. In each of them he has had the active opposition of the National Administration, with the use of its patronage against him. Mr. Blaine has control of no patronage. He has no Machine. Machine and patronage have been persistently against him. Whatever prominence he has enjoyed has been conferred by the people. He has no means, not open to every citizen, of influencing public opinion. No campaign in his favor originated elsewhere than among the people. He has never sought office. He never held a position to which he was not nominated by the unanimous voice of his party. He has not sought the Presidency. Circumstances made him a candidate in 1876, almost before he was aware of it. In 1880 he did not wish to enter the canvass. I was one of a small party of intimate friends who, in a long conference in February, 1880, persuaded him that it was his duty. He has done nothing to make himself a candidate this year. He has asked no man's support. He has written no letters, held no conversation, taken no steps looking to his candidacy. He has never said to his most intimate friends that he expected or desired the nomination.

If, upon a review of the whole case, you should charge that it would have been better and wiser for Mr. Blaine to have refrained from making any investment in a railroad that had directly or indirectly received aid from the legislation of Congress, I should be ready to agree with you, not because the thing was necessarily wrong in itself, but because it is easy for such matters to be so represented as to appear wrong. But why should Mr. Blaine be selected for special reprobation and criticism when so many other Senators and Representatives have been similarly situated? I know of my own knowledge that Governor Morgan, Mr. Samuel Hooper, Senator Grimes, and many of my friends while in Congress acquired and held interests in such enterprises; and neither you nor I nor the people suspected the transaction to be wrong, or that it gave them an advantage over other investors. Why entertain and publish that suspicion against Mr. Blaine alone? When I sat as a delegate-at-large in the last National Convention, Senator Edmunds and Senator Windom were both candidates for the Presidency, and I should gladly have supported either. Senator Edmunds was understood to have a block of Burlington and Missouri securities, and Senator Windom had not only a block in the securities of the Northern Pacific Company, but was one of its directors. Yet you find no fault with these gentlemen. Nor would you and I differ in giving the highest rank to Senator Grimes; but both he and Senator Edmunds acquired their interests in the Burlington and Missouri Road when they were in the Senate. They both supported the bill to restore the land grant to their road. It was passed on the same day with the Little Rock Bill. Both measures were just, and both were passed in the House and Senate without a dissenting vote. Why must we suspect that Mr. Blaine had a secret and corrupt motive, and that other members and Senators had none?

Let me add a circumstance which seems to me to be not only significant but conclusive of Mr. Blaine's conscious innocence in this Fort Smith transaction. He voluntarily made himself a party of record in a suit against the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railway Company, in the United States Circuit Court, which involved the nature and sources of his ownership in the property. This was before he was named for the Presidency. If he had obtained this ownership dishonorably would he have courted this publicity?

I have thus ventured, Mr. Editor, to make answer to the charges you have brought against Mr. Blaine. There are other charges equally baseless which I have read, but in other papers, so that I may not claim your space to deny or answer them. I give two examples. Mr. Blaine is represented as the possessor of millions, while I personally know that he was never the possessor of the half of one million. He was represented as living for the past ten years in palatial grandeur in Washington. He sold that palatial mansion, with all its furniture, to Mr. Travers for $24,500, and got all that it was worth. But you are responsible only for such charges as you have made, and I have, therefore, made answer to them authoritatively over my own name, and I challenge denial of any substantial fact I have stated. Your attacks are not on Mr. Blaine alone; they are on his friends as well, and these are certainly a larger and more devoted body of supporters than can be claimed by any other man in public life. It seems to me, as I recall those in every station who are proud to be numbered among them, that I recognize many of the ablest, truest, and most honorable of our countrymen. WM. WALTER PHELPS.

WASHINGTON, April 23, 1884.

THE END OF EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg to enter an earnest protest against the doctrine of your correspondent "A," that education is to be directed solely or chiefly to preparation for the special pursuit to which the scholar will afterwards devote himself. This certainly seems to be implied in his dictum that "increasing specialization of employment must necessarily lead to divergence of preparation," as compared with his last paragraph, in which he gives his opinion "that the adaptation to individual choice will gradually extend until it reaches the very beginning and embraces all subjects." When it is remembered that the vast majority of schoolboys and a large proportion of college students will devote their lives to no other pursuit than that of money, the absurdity of the principle becomes palpable, and even in the case of those who will follow some calling for which special training is requisite, its inadequacy is scarcely less apparent. Before a man can prepare himself for his calling he must have acquired mental grasp, readiness, and versatility. The first object of education is to give him these; the special training of the professional or scientific school is an after consideration, both as to time and importance. I submit, sir, that, whatever may hereafter be invented, no instrument has yet been found by which this object can be so well gained as by the study of language, and especially of Latin and Greek. The time which can be devoted to study must necessarily determine whether one or both of these languages can be profitably taught; but I challenge the votaries of science to show any practicable method by which a boy can be taught, while learning chemistry or biology, to think, to reason, to apply principles to facts, as he must do if he is studying Latin or Greek. Every sentence which he translates is new ground for original investigation; in each he must exercise his ingenuity, his judgment, his taste. I leave purposely out of the account the nobler culture derived from a knowledge of the immortal masterpieces of antiquity, and insist only on the value of the elementary training in the principles of syntax. Moreover, the critical study of the structure of a sentence is nothing but a study of the forms in which all thought must necessarily clothe itself, and leads inevitably to greater precision in thinking. And this training may, under rational instruction, begin at the very outset. That method which insisted on the memorizing of the Latin grammar before any practical application of its rules was begun, has happily passed away. I can instance a class of boys, not above the average in intelligence, who began Latin on the first of last month, and of whom one had never heard of such terms as *noun* and *verb*. These boys have not yet learned all the forms of inflection, but they can turn a compound sentence into indirect discourse with correctness in both moods and tenses. Such a process involves the exercise of the mind, and this exercise must be continuous so long as they pursue the study of Latin. To this will be added, as they advance, the discrimination of shades of thought and fluency of expression, as they are compelled to enlarge their English vocabulary in searching for the best words to render the meaning of Cæsar, Cicero, or Vergil.

Here I might ask "A" if such a training is not the best preparation for any conceivable pursuit; but I prefer to ask whether these studies will not, more than any other, enlarge the mind, sharpen its perceptions, strengthen its grasp, quicken its movement, ease its expression, and give at least some ground for the hope that those who have been thus trained will always have interests beyond their specialty, whether that shall be language, or science, or money-making.

J. H. L.

CANANDAIGUA, N. Y., April 19, 1884.

ARISTOTLE AND BACON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Church's 'Bacon (No. 982, p. 370) occur these words: "Aristotle lived about 2,500 years ago, and his fame is undiminished. Bacon's fame has endured for 250 years, of late with sensible diminution."

It may be that something of the difference in permanence of work here suggested is due to the comparative narrowness of the English philosopher's vision. With small competence to judge such a matter, I have the impression that Bacon failed somewhat in supposing his new instrument to be an *only* instrument; that he had, as compared with Aristotle, a less catholic comprehension of the immense inclusiveness as well as the unity of science, upon any definition of science true enough to stand the wear and tear of many centuries

However this may be, it will hardly be doubted that Dean Church speaks more truly of Bacon than of Aristotle when he says: "Bacon, like Aristotle, belonged to an age of adventure, which went to sea little knowing whither it went, and ill-furnished with knowledge and instruments. He entered with a vast and vague scheme of discovery on those unknown seas. . . ." I should suppose that Aristotle had a distinct advantage over Bacon in the less *vagueness* of his work.

I write this note, however, only because I hope some of your readers may be glad, after reading the review in question, to be referred to an article on "The Organization of Scientific Work," in the first *Heft* of vol. liii. of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, by Hermann Usener, in which the very great definiteness of Aristotle's work is shown in a strong light. In many ways the article is notable; but the matter to which I

wish to call attention here is the clear way in which the reader is made to see Aristotle at the head of a great system of organized research—research which busied many men of remarkable powers; men who worked by definite methods in search of definite results, upon many lines; lines which not only were divergent, but convergent also.—Yours respectfully,

JOHN H. WHEELER.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, ALBEMARLE COUNTY, VA., April 25, 1884.

MARYLAND SUFFRAGE IN 1675.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bancroft, in his 'History of the United States' (Rev. Ed. I.,439), speaking of the qualifications of voters in Maryland in 1675, after stating that the suffrage was restricted to freemen having fifty acres real estate, or forty pounds' worth of personal, adds: "No difference was made with respect to color"; thus implying that negroes did vote or might have voted in Maryland.

Putting aside the fact that no negro, whatever his personal status, would have been considered a political "freeman" in Maryland, the explanation of the omission is found in the other fact that all negroes in the Province were slaves for life.—I am, sir, etc., W. H. B.

GRAPE GROWERS AND INTEMPERANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue I notice my friend Bush from St. Louis wishes his "paper stopped" because you make common cause with the "temperance fanatics." I write to say simply that I, as a new subscriber, will take his place, and I wish to encourage and commend you in every way for the stand you take in favor of temperance and other reforms.

Please do not think that all the grape growers favor the *wine* business. I myself, together with a multitude of my brethren in the profession, are emphatically opposed to putting so fine a fruit as the grape is, to so ignoble a use as assisting in making tipplers and drunkards.—Yours, T. S. HUBBARD.

FREDONIA, N. Y., April 25, 1884.

Notes.

IT is announced that the completion of the supplement to the 'American Catalogue' will not be delayed by Mr. Leypoldt's death, and that the work will appear in the autumn, carrying the entry of titles from July 1, 1876, to July 1, 1884. The proceeds will go directly to the estate of Mr. Leypoldt, for the benefit of his wife and children. Subscriptions, at ten dollars, may be sent to Mr. R. R. Bowker, 31 Park Row. The sale of the few remaining copies of the 'American Catalogue' itself is desirable on the same account. The worth of both is enhanced by the intention to continue the supplements at five-yearly intervals. We have more than once insisted on the great utility of these lists for all book-buyers.

Mr. S. S. Rider, Providence, concludes his first chatty volume of *Book Notes* with an index to the local historical matters touched upon; and states that when the first series of his Rhode Island Historical Tracts is completed, as it shortly will be, by the twentieth number, a second series will be begun if sufficient support is promised.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have in press 'A Handy Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' based upon Grein's 'Sprachschatz,' and edited by Profs. James A. Harrison, of Washington and Lee University, and W. M. Baskervill, Ph. D. (Lips.), of Vanderbilt University. The former will also contribute a List of Irregular Verbs, and the latter an Outline of Anglo-Saxon Grammar. The Grammar will be enlarged for separate publication by the same house a little later in the season.

J. R. Osgood & Co.'s approaching issues embrace 'Mingo, and Other Sketches in Black and White,' by Joel Chandler Harris; 'Henry Irving's Impressions of America,' as recorded through the interviewing and editorial agency of Mr. Joseph Hatton; and the 'Battle of Stone's River,' by Alexander F. Stevenson.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready the first contribution to their "American Men of Letter Series" which fixes the generic signification of the term "men," namely, 'Margaret Fuller Ossoli,' by T. W. Higginson; 'Captains of Industry,' by James Parton; 'The American Horsewoman,' by Mrs. Elizabeth Karr; 'Government Revenue, especially the American System,' by Ellis H. Roberts; and a new translation of the 'Odyssey,' by Prof. George H. Palmer, which will be awaited with great interest. The same firm will also shortly bring out a new enlarged and revised edition of Warren Colburn's 'Intellectual Arithmetic,' with a portrait of the author and a sketch of his life.

Thomas Whittaker will soon have ready Sir John Lubbock's 'Chapters in Popular Natural History,' in a cheap edition, with ninety illustrations, and Ellice Hopkins's 'Work among Workingmen.'

'The Libraries of Boston,' public and private, to the number of more than a hundred, will form a work to be issued by subscription by Cupples, Upham & Co.

'Rapid Ramblings in Europe,' by Col. W. C. Falkner, and 'Vacation Cruisings in Chesapeake and Delaware Bays,' by Prof. J. T. Rothrock, are announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co.

This month appears, from the press of J. C. Hinrichs, Leipzig (New York: Westermann), vol. iii., Prolegomena, Part I., of Tischendorf's *editio octava critica major* of the Greek Testament. This has been prepared by Dr. Caspar René Gregory, with the aid of the late Dr. Ezra Abbott, and will contain an account of Tischendorf's life and writings, with much grammatical and critical discussion.

The Rev. William C. Winslow, No. 429 Beacon Street, Boston, will furnish on application, to those interested, a circular concerning the explorations now going on at Zoan, in the Delta of Egypt, under the supervision of Mr. W. Flinders Petrie.

The sixteenth of the "Bibliographical Contributions" of the Library of Harvard University is certainly one of the most useful. It is a classified index to the maps contained in *Petermann's Geographische Mittheilungen*, 1855–1881, by Richard Bliss, of the Northern Transcontinental Survey. The list numbers 1,340. Mr. Bliss has been at the pains to calculate the scale where this was not given originally. He has added a reference list of writers, travellers, explorers, and cartographers, and a list of expeditions and surveys. Handy would have been also a list of the *ships* which have given their names to the several expeditions.

Arrangements have been completed for holding, at the University Library, Berkeley, Cal., during the last week of May—commencement week—a loan exhibition of books illustrative of the history and progress of printing and the related arts. To this exhibition the private collectors and public libraries of San Francisco, Oakland, and vicinity have generously promised contributions. There will be represented specimens of block books, early wood engravings, and playing-cards, manuscripts (the predecessors of the typographic art), many examples of printed work of the fifteenth century, and rare and noteworthy editions of succeeding centuries. Special attention will be given to showing the progress of book illustration in its various forms. Another department of the exhibition will be devoted to samples of the work of famous binders. Specimens of California printing and binding will be exhibited. The exhibition, it is hoped, will prove of great interest to the book lovers and collectors of the Pacific Coast, and be an occasion for the display of many a rare work, the presence of which on that side of the continent might not have been suspected.

The fifteenth of the Q. P. Indexes is the 'Q. P. Index Annual for 1883,' and the already large list of periodicals unlocked by it has been extended by the addition of *Nord und Süd*, *Westermann's Monatshefte*, and (of great utility) United States Consular and Education reports. Our copy also includes the index to Mr. Griswold's *Monograph*, and Corrigenda to his 'Index to Essays,' the only index whose support has been inadequate to its continuance. The German contingent in his list for annual indexing leads Mr. Griswold to refer from the English term to the German, as in "Asia Minor [☞ *Klein Asien*]," "Astronomy [☞ *Himmel*]," etc. Occasionally even the page is indicated in parenthesis. Finally, the interpretation of the figures and abbreviations used is repeated at the foot of every page. Interesting intelligence is the refusal of the *Living Age* to send a free copy for indexing; and the expiration of the *International Review*, after its checkered career, in May-June, 1883.

'Day's Collacon,' an encyclopædia of prose quotations (New York: International Printing and Publishing Office), is a ponderous volume of more than 1,200 pages, whose value for a certain class of minds will probably be shown in an extensive sale. Another class will admire the compiler's industry, but shun the result, from which discrimination is wanting. Care has not always been taken to quote the sayings accurately, and their dislocation from the context has sometimes a curious effect, as in Webster's "Suicide is confession," which is nonsense when standing by itself. The index is biographical as well as topical.

Mr. Egmont Hake's 'Story of Chinese Gordon' has been reprinted by R. Worthington with additions, which bring the narrative down to date, by Hugh Craig, M.A. The new portion deals with the tangled events of the past four months as well as could be expected; but whether Gordon emerges or not from his latest peril, it is certain that the present passage in his extraordinary career will require a full volume for itself. Mr. Archibald Forbes has compiled from the foregoing and from Wilson's 'Ever Victorious Army' and Hill's 'Colonel Gordon in Central Africa,' a small volume called 'Chinese Gordon' (Geo. Routledge & Sons), of which the chief merit is a striking photographic portrait of Gordon, from a negative made in Khartum. The pale blue eye, which is so much of the man, was hardly definable by the camera. The woodcut after this print, which serves as a frontispiece to an edition of the same work published by S. W. Green's Son, fails to catch this feature.

Roberts Bros., Boston, have brought out a cheap edition, two volumes in one, with separate pagination, of Lord Ronald Gower's 'My Reminiscences,' which we reviewed at length last August.

Cassell & Co. send us Koehler's excellent 'Art Directory' for the current year, improved and enlarged to a considerable book. It contains very complete information on every subject connected with the arts in this country—exhibitions, periodicals, academies, art schools, local institutions, etc.—with a large number of pro-

cess illustrations of works exhibited during the past year, as well as the very convenient artists' and art-teachers' directory.

'The St. Anne of Leonardo da Vinci, by Alfred Marks,' is the title of a brochure reprinted from the Transactions of the Royal Society of Literature, being a study on the cartoon of the Royal Academy of London and its relation to the cartoon of the same name recorded by Vasari. It is one of those patient and thorough monographs that result from the application of the modern scientific spirit to art matters, which is changing the whole character of the archæology of art. It is illustrated by twenty-five reduced illustrations of the pictures and cartoons which come into the inquiry.

An important work upon the archæology of Syracuse, undertaken about five years ago, under the direction of the Italian Minister of Public Instruction, has lately been published at Palermo in a volume of 417 pages 4to, with an atlas of plates. The authors, Professors F. Saverio, Cavallari, and Adolph Holm, are well known among archæologists. The former has written upon the "Topografia di Siracusa," and the latter, who is Professor of Ancient and Modern History at the University of Palermo, is the author of many important works upon the history and antiquities of Sicily, including a history of Sicily, in two volumes.

An antiquarian in France has found a document, dated 1644, indicating a curious survival of Pagan superstition. It is an order from some ecclesiastical authority that a hole in the lower part of the altar in the Church Saint-Jean du Marillais be closed, in order to stop the practice of the peasants of putting the heads of their children into it for some fancied benefit. He connects this custom with a superstition relative to dolmens with holes.

Mr. Samuel Garman, of the Cambridge Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, has in preparation an important work on the trout and salmon of New England. An abstract of his conclusions was prepared for the April meeting of the Fish and Game League, and may be found in the Boston *Transcript* of April 15. Mr. Garman finds two varieties of salmon—*Salmo salar* and *Salmo sebago*—the latter the land-locked variety; and two of lake trout and three of brook trout, in whose identification the number of rows of scales plays a prominent part.

A series of papers on Cambridge (Eng.) printers is begun in the April *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton). The first printer was John Siberch, 1521-22

A print catalogue before us offers the "Old Clarkson House, L. I. (in this house the British officers quartered themselves)." No wonder that the lot containing this consists of "12 pieces."

—A correspondent writes us from Kioto, apropos of a recent article in the *Nation*:

"I am rejoiced to see you giving attention to the important subject of dusting. Let me call your attention, however, to the fact that the feather duster has long been used in Japan. Also, you will be interested to hear of the Japanese way of dusting, which is to dust first and sweep afterward. In this way whatever dust has been brushed off the objects dusted, is returned with interest."

—A list of the birds inhabiting and frequenting the District of Columbia is a very proper publication for the United States National Museum, whose twenty-sixth Bulletin is accordingly an 'Avifauna Columbiana.' It is called a second edition, and indeed a sentimental interest attaches to it as the return of two professors in the National Medical College, Dr. Elliott Coues and Dr. D. Webster Prentiss, to a boyish task creditably achieved a quarter of a century ago. They find little to alter—only one species to discard; and not very much to add, bringing the total number up from 225 in 1862 to 248 at the present time. For the rest, the text has been wholly rewritten, and any one familiar with Dr. Coues's style will recognize his hand in the pleasant discourse which is not wanting even in the technical portions of the Bulletin. His are not only the remarkably restrained observations on the European Sparrow as the expeller of our native singing birds (and, by the way, he admits that that "melodious creature," the Song Sparrow, is one of the birds which hold their own the best against the foreigner), but his must be the picturesque description of the motley "meet" of the Rail shooters at the opening of the season, and the feeling account of the joys, perils, and humors of those who take to the sport in skiffs. He even gives details as to the build of these craft, and the price of one made of galvanized iron. He tells you how the wounded turkey buzzard plays 'possum, and again graphically relates the damming up of the northern migration in May, 1882, which flooded the District with a "tidal wave" of discouraged birds in numbers and beautiful variety quite unprecedented. Another damming, that of the Potomac at Analostan Island, is mentioned for its curious ornithological and sub-pestilential effects, in the topographical introduction, the reader of which will (with the aid of four excellent maps) find himself well informed as to the environs of the capital. In short, one not an ornithologist will be surprised at the interest this scientific pamphlet proves to have for him, to say nothing of the abundant illustrations. For some time, we suppose, it will have no successor from Dr. Coues's pen, for during the present month he is to sail for Europe, in compliance at last with the formal request of Darwin, Huxley, Flower, Wallace, Mivart, Gould, Sclater, Newton—names no longer wholly of the living—made five years ago, that he would visit the Old World in order to prepare a complete Bibliography of Ornithology, of which we have already had from him such brilliant essays.

—In the last two numbers of the *Magazin für die Litteratur*, we find a review of Dr. Busch's last production, under the title, "Bismarck vom Lakaien Standpunkt," which those who look in vain in German criticism for literary cleverness and sharpness will find an agreeable surprise. This title is an allusion to the story that, after several chapters had appeared in the *Gartenlaube*, further contributions were declined; and upon Busch's rather indignantly asking why, he was told that it was because "he wrote history from the standpoint of a lackey"—hardly, one would think, a cause for objection to a magazine editor, however discreditable it might be to the author. The book (of which a translation is announced) has already been described briefly in these columns, and our object is to call attention to the criticism rather than to its subject. Busch is first exposed with respect to the nature of his advertising methods, being accused of writing the favorable notices himself. Then the present work is analyzed so as to show that it consists partly of scourings of the kettle from which 'Graf Bismarck und Seine Leute' was served, but chiefly of discussions, for the greater part irrelevant, borrowed from other authors, without credit. Mr. Busch admits that he has not hesitated to supplement what he saw "with his own eyes" with "materials from other trustworthy sources"; in illustration of which the editor of the *Magazin* narrates how, some years ago, being then the editor of a popular journal, he was annoyed by seeing his best articles reprinted without credit, and played a joke on his esteemed contemporaries by publishing an invented anecdote about Bismarck, which, of course, was reprinted and translated as usual. This anecdote he is naturally pleased to find—unvouched for, indeed—in Busch's latest volumes. The latter's chapter on state socialism is alleged to be taken bodily from Mehring's 'Socialdemokratie,' that on the earlier phase of German socialism from Carl Vogt's 'Mein Prozess'—the sources of his information being carefully concealed. The only original matter, in fact, is said to be abuse of Liberalism, and insulting allusions to persons whom the compiler dislikes.

—"Beiträge zur Charakteristik Nathaniel Hawthorne's" is the title of an essay by Dr. Anton Schönbach, first published in Dr. Kölbing's *Englische Studien*, and now reprinted in a pamphlet of 65 pages. A great portion of it is devoted to an elaborate comparative study of the unfinished posthumous stories of Hawthorne, which grew out of his experiences in England, and were various attempts at carrying out one identical theme. The learned professor analyzes 'The Ancestral Footstep,' 'Dr. Grimshawe's Secret,' 'Septimius Felton,' and 'The Dolliver Romance,' and through ample citations from the 'Note Books' traces the common genesis of all these fragments. He considers them valuable as throwing much light on the workings of Hawthorne's mind, and as at the same time affording a glimpse of the manner in which other writers may have developed a crude idea into a finished work of art. He judges Hawthorne to have been the greatest writer whom the United States have as yet produced. He is wholly original and redolent of his native soil. He absorbs English culture, but in a critical spirit, and is not dominated by it. Even after becoming closely acquainted with England his Americanism does not suffer any diminution, but rather he guards it jealously and cherishes it consciously. Further, he is entitled to a high rank in the general category of modern literature, independently of his position as an American representative. His fictions occupy a place by themselves, are the expression of a decided poetic individuality, and refuse to range themselves under any of the accepted classifications. Next to George Eliot he is the greatest English prose writer of our century.

—Professor Schönbach's opinions are supported by a constant reference to everything that has been written by and concerning Hawthorne. Fully four pages of his pamphlet are taken up with a mere list of various jottings in Hawthorne's note books which he made use of in his published works, the latter being in each case specifically indicated. The essay gives evidence also of an intimate acquaintance and a high appreciation of American literature in general. The best English fiction, says the writer, comes from America, and the most elegant English, since the death of George Eliot, is written by Henry James, jr. This he thinks the more remarkable as it is hardly more than half a century since the United States declared their literary independence, which dates from the transcendental movement. Whatever is distinctive in the American national character emanates from New England, more particularly from Massachusetts. It will be judged from these specimens that in spite of insisting a little too much on details, Dr. Schönbach's essay is a valuable contribution to American literary history and criticism. It is to be regretted that articles of this description are so rare in our own magazines and reviews, which are devoted on the one hand to being "readable," and on the other to being "timely," with the frequent result in both cases of being only scrappy, and producing little or nothing of lasting literary value.

—A collection of old German rhymes, such as may be found in every nook and corner of Germany, in churches and inns, on bridges and fountains, tombstones and bumpers, ought to be pleasant and suggestive reading; but somehow Herr H. Draheim, who has gathered a number of such inscriptions into a quaint little volume ('Deutsche Reime, Inschriften des 15. Jahrhunderts und der folgenden'; Berlin: Weidmann), has missed his opportunity. Although his collection begins with the fifteenth century and extends to the present day, it reflects none of the characteristics of the homely muse of Germany so faithfully as its piety. The book is, on the whole, a very sober, almost lugubrious, one; there hangs about it the air of graveyards and cloisters, the musty smell of old chronicles and missals; but there is very little of the "wit and wisdom" of bygone ages. Evidently the contributors to the collection, worthy pedagogues and pastors, took their task too seriously. "Faith," "The Ten Commandments," "The Sufferings of Christ," "Death and Life," "Bible and Religion," "God's Omnipotence," such, almost without a break, are the subdivisions of the first part of the book; and even when we approach more modern times we are entertained with scarcely anything more cheerful than "Cares and Devotion," "Eternity," "Courage and Conduct of Life," etc. However, humor is by no means wholly wanting in this collection; for even the most pious monks of the Middle Ages knew how to flavor their exhortations with a vein of grim pleasantry, as witness the "death-dances" of the fifteenth century. The well-known dialogues between Death and representatives of all the social classes, from the Pope down to the beggar, are here introduced in a modern dress, and are all the more enjoyable on that account; indeed, we cannot doubt that a more general employment of the current orthography would have added to the attractiveness of the book. Humor too—of a type not peculiar to mediæval Germany alone—may be found in the epitaphs on shrewish wives, in jokes at the expense of rascally butchers and bakers; while the poetry of beer casks and goblets is both more characteristic and less enjoyable. Alone in general interest is the plaintive soliloquy of a Hessian farthing of the beginning of the seventeenth century, on its depreciation. It may not seem strange that, on the whole, German rhymsters had so little to say in the days when Latin was the real language of the learned and thoughtful; but it certainly is surprising that the rhymes here quoted deteriorate towards the end of the collection. Most of the epitaphs of recent date are worthy of the obituary bards of the newspaper columns. The inscription from the tombstone of the elder Kleist gives almost the only hint of what valuable material the tombs of distinguished men might have furnished to this collection. Although in the preface Latin inscriptions are said to be excluded from the book, there are several given on the second page—an intrusion which will not be resented by those who know how weak are the German variations of such Latin bell mottoes as:

> "Sabbata pango, funera plango, noxia frango,
> Excito lentos, paco cruentos, dissipo ventos."

Similarly feeble are the changes rung on the old tombstone inscription:

> "Quod es, fui; quod sum, eris: para te."

That the editor has ignored Austria in his collection—Vienna in itself being a rich mine of old and curious German inscriptions—is characteristic of the narrowness of his plan.

—The educational statistics recently published by the Italian Government furnish valuable information in regard to the progress in public instruction made in that country. In the twelve years since 1871 the annual governmental expenditures have increased at a steady rate from 16,300,000 lire in 1871, to 30,400,000 in 1883. The organic law of 1859, making instruction compulsory and gratuitous for all children from six to twelve years of age, seems not to have been carried into execution. By that law the communes were required to defray the expense of erecting the new school-houses required, and it is not singular that the statute was very generally evaded. From 1861 to 1881 the number of primary schools increased from 21,353 to 42,510; and during the same period the number of pupils enrolled was extended from 1,008,674 to 1,928,706. In 1877 the obligatory law of 1859 was modified in some essential particulars. Primary education was now made compulsory only in such communes as furnished the requisite accommodations: namely, in all communes of less than 5,000 inhabitants with at least one teacher to every 1,000 persons; in all communes of from 5,000 to 20,000 inhabitants with at least one teacher to every 1,200 persons; and in all the more important communes with at least one teacher to every 1,500 persons. This law of 1877 appears to have resulted in some increase of the number of pupils in attendance; yet the figures given are but a new evidence of the difficulty of enforcing any law that is not supported by a strong popular opinion. Even in 1879 the number of pupils in attendance was only 768 to every 10,000 of the inhabitants. In secondary and higher education the showing is much better. There are 701 gymnasia with 3,674 teachers, and with courses extending through five years. These are attended by 41,124 pupils, or about 58 pupils each. The colleges, which in the course of three years supplement the instruction in the gymnasia and complete the preparation for the university, are 298 in number, and show an enrolment of 1,601 teachers and 11,133 pupils. Besides the colleges there are 383 technical schools of corresponding grade, with a force of 2,704 teachers and an attendance of pupils amounting to 22,120. The seventeen royal universities of Italy showed an enrolment in 1881 of 10,592 students, the largest, those at Turin and Naples, having 1,651 and 2,851 respectively. In the four independent universities and the twenty-one superior schools there were in the same year 1,948 students, making a total attendance in the higher institutions of learning of 12,805. This number is much greater than the attendance at schools of a corresponding grade in England, though only about half the number in attendance at the universities of Germany. In this thriving condition of the higher educational institutions of Italy we see but another evidence of the remarkable intellectual activity of the people.

—In the little Galician town of Stanislaw a scholar is busily engaged in editing a work which, when finished, will undoubtedly prove to be of great importance not only to investigators of the Slavic languages, but also to students of comparative philology. Prof. Eugen Zhelekhovski began the publication of his Ruthenian (Little-Russian)-German dictionary in 1882, and a few weeks ago we received the eighth part of the work (up to page 400), which extends as far as the beginning of the letter L. Those who know how rich the Ruthenian language is, and how little has been done hitherto for its scientific investigation, will certainly admire both the courage of Mr. Zhelekhovski in undertaking such a work, and the skill with which he fulfils his task. The already existing vocabularies by Piskunov, Leotchenko, and others are so small that they can be of but little help to a compiler of a dictionary, and with the sole exception of Ogonowski's excellent book, 'Studien auf dem Gebiete der ruthenischen Sprache' (Lemberg, 1880), the grammatical treatises on the language do not furnish much material for Mr. Zhelekhovski's work. He had, therefore, even for the most common words, to go back to the literature itself, and wherever we have been able to test him, we have found him very accurate and trustworthy. He has gathered a large number of words, never before mentioned in any vocabulary, not only from the classics of the Ruthenian tongue, like Gogol (the father), Kotlyarevski, Shevtchenko, Marko Vovtchok, Fedkovitch, etc. (and for these sources his work is done with systematic completeness), but also from the rich collections of popular songs and stories, like those of Antonovitch and Dragomanov, Golovatski, Tchubinski, and many others which are less known except to specialists. Now and then a dialectic expression in Tchubinski's popular stories, or in Golovatski's songs seems to be lacking in Zhelekhovski, but such words, which the various collectors of popular traditions spell so differently, may almost always be found in their right place, if we remember that Zhelekhovski uses a strictly phonetic spelling. We hope that this first Ruthenian dictionary will find access to our larger libraries; for it will prove to be of great service not only to the philologist, but also to the "folk-lorist."

SCHUYLER'S PETER THE GREAT—I.

Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia. A Study of Historical Biography. By Eugene Schuyler, Ph.D., LL.D., Author of 'Turkistan' In two volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

'PETER THE GREAT' is more than an historico-biographical "study." It is a history of Peter and his reign—of his life and struggles, his reforms, wars, and diplomacy—with comprehensive digressions, illustrative of things and characters not so closely connected with the main subject as necessarily to enter into a biography. That the author designates it as a study is explainable by his mental and literary bent, as apparent in his writings, and not in these alone: he is a constant and indefatigable student of ethnology and languages, of modern history and diplomatic relations. Exhaustive and conscientious research, and hesitation in forming conclusions and adopting judgments, are characteristic of all his activity. Even after having amply mastered his subject, he does not group his results, but lays before the public single facts and aspects separately examined, out of which a whole is to be constructed by those who follow him through the entire course of examination. In the work before us there is no rounded picture of either Peter, his nation, or his time; but Peter, his nation, and his time are made to pass before us in successive attitudes, actions, and stages, in chronological order, and the reader is left to judge and to combine. Such is the author's abstention from generalizing, summing up, and reviewing that, in spite of exhaustiveness pushed almost beyond limit, he seems to consider the mass of details accumulated by him still inadequate for his task as a historical biographer, or, as we should say, as a historian and biographer.

Mr. Schuyler had before him an immense literature from which to draw materials, for the Russian historical writers, who are hindered by restrictions and considerations of prudence from freely discussing topics of recent date, have piled up stores of most minute information on their national past, and German, Swedish, and other compilers and critics have helped them in ransacking archives and sifting testimony. He has availed himself of these resources with extra-

ordinary diligence, extracting from biographies, memoirs, diaries, correspondence, and records of all kinds an amount of particulars sufficient to give a fulness to each separate subdivision of his subject, and vastly more than sufficient for the general characterization. And herein lie both the strength and the weakness of Mr. Schuyler's work. The division and arrangement of his matter are excellent, and there is order in the whole and symmetry in the parts; but the fulness of the parts makes the whole heavy, though clearness is everywhere preserved in spite of the great crowding of facts. On the whole, the book is, we think, better adapted for the general European, and even the special Russian literary market, than for the English or American, and will, no doubt, be translated, as it deserves to be, into Russian and other languages. Its profusely varied, highly characteristic, and not seldom charming illustrations will make it an attractive addition to every library.

Two hundred years ago, when Peter was a little boy, Muscovy had begun to emerge slowly from its Asiatic barbarism. His sister Sophia, the regent for his elder brother Ivan and himself, showed in her administration a slight tendency toward reform and the creation of a better-regulated order. Wives were no longer to be buried alive for the murder of their husbands, creditors were no longer allowed to kill or maim their debtors, serf women who had married soldiers were allowed to remain free. The influence of foreigners—Germans, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, Poles—began to make itself felt. Peter, as a youth, associated with a motley crowd of denizens in the "German suburb" of Moscow, and adopted foreign habits, tastes, and prejudices, without divesting himself of his Muscovitish instincts, or in the least taming the fierce impulses of his nature. He contracted a passion for playing at war and boat-building, with the desire and view of creating a well-disciplined army and a navy, and the expectation of doing great things as monarch of a great nation. His ambition was as impetuous, and his violence as uncontrollable, as his frame was gigantic and his strength prodigious. When, in 1689, he had removed Sophia from the regency and baffled attempts at reinstating her in power through a rising of the Strieltzi—the Janissaries of Russia under the early Romanoffs—he chastised conspirators whose guilt was elicited by torture in this fashion: "Snáklovitz, Petróf, and Tchérmny were beheaded, Major Múromtsef, Colonel Riazántsef, and the prisoner Lavréntief were beaten with the knout, and, after having their tongues torn out, were exiled to Siberia. Sylvester Medvédief . . . was arrested in the monastery of Biziúk, together with Major Gládky, and sent to Tróïtsa" (mark Mr. Schuyler's care in transliterating names, as well as the unnecessary profusion of them), tortured, degraded from the clergy, and confined, again denounced, "and again subjected to the severe torture of fire and hot iron, and was finally executed in 1691."

The young Czar, who was now virtually sole master of Russia, continued to spend a great deal of his time in the society of his foreign friends, and especially of his able advisers, Gordon and Lefort. Dinner frequently lasted from noon till late in the night, sometimes till next morning. There was excessive drinking. Gordon's diary is full of it. Lefort, in one of his letters, speaks of spending in his house for wine in two or three months a sum equivalent to about $25,000. "It is not to be supposed," says Mr. Schuyler, "that, because so much liquor was used, the company was constantly intoxicated. . . ." There were heroic meals, intervals for smoking the interdicted tobacco, games, matches in archery and musketry practice, speech-making, and music, and in the evening fireworks and dancing. Lefort's house was in reality a kind of club-house for Peter and his boon companions. Peter was fond of masquerading, buffoonery, and practical jokes. During the Christmas holidays he went with his comrades from house to house, singing carols and receiving the usual gifts. Once the Czar appeared at Lefort's with a suite of twenty-four mounted dwarfs, and a few days after both rode out into the country to exercise this cavalry. In 1695 there was a great banquet on the occasion of the court fool's wedding, which was pompously celebrated in the open fields near Moscow; the festivities lasted three days, and were accompanied by a procession in which the highest nobles of the realm appeared in ludicrous costumes, in cars drawn by cows, goats, dogs, and swine. In this manner the future transformer of Muscovy spent much of his time. Of family life he knew little. He had married simply to obey his mother, and he found the society of his old-fashioned wife, Eudoxia, very uncongenial. Anna Mons, the daughter of a German jeweller, was then his great favorite. He loved, however, his mother and sister Natalia, though when the former died, in 1694, he expressed, in a letter to his friend Apraxin, rather shallow sentiments of filial and religious piety.

Peter's first marine experiments were made at the mouth of the Dvina in the White Sea. On the capture of Azov from the Turks in 1696, after two not over-glorious campaigns, he formed the design of establishing a fleet in the Black Sea, near the opposite shores of his realm. He had, by the death of his brother Ivan, just become sole ruler, and he threw himself with passionate ardor into the enterprise. Every landed proprietor owning ten thousand peasant houses, every monastery owning eight thousand, was obliged to construct a ship, equip and arm it; all other proprietors owning not less than one hundred peasant houses were enrolled into companies for construction; the merchants were required to contribute twelve mortar boats. The ships and galleys were to be built at Voronezh, on the Don. Shipwrights were brought from Venice, Denmark, Sweden, and Holland. To learn the nautical art and shipbuilding, fifty nobles, representatives of the highest families—most of them married and fathers of children—were summarily ordered to Italy, Holland, or England. Shortly afterward, the Czar himself went abroad to become a good shipwright. He went under the strictest incognito as a "volunteer," attached, among many others, to an extraordinary embassy to the chief countries of Western Europe, at the head of which was General Lefort. The acquisition of nautical knowledge and skill was to Peter not an object of whimsical desire or aimless curiosity. It was to become an instrument, as he wrote from Holland, in fighting the enemies of Jesus Christ and liberating the Christians who live under them. And in that country, which he reached in August, 1697, at Zaandam, Amsterdam, Leyden, Delft, and elsewhere, everything engaged Peter's eager inquisitiveness. He visited workshops, museums, theatres, hospitals; he went to see Boerhave and his botanical garden; studied the microscope under Leeuwenhoek, made the intimate acquaintance of the great military engineer, Coehorn, and of Admiral Van Scheij; learned to etch under the direction of Schonebeck; and frequented the lecture-room of the anatomist Ruysch. He learned cobbling and dentistry, experimenting on his servants and suite. In a similar way he lived in England. In both countries he attracted gazing crowds—for his incognito proved unavailable—as well as the attention of the highest circles. Burnet thus speaks of him in the 'History of his Own Time':

"He is a man of very hot temper, soon inflamed and very brutal in his passion; he raises his natural heat by drinking much brandy, which he rectifies himself with great application; he is subject to convulsive motions all over his body, and his head seems to be affected with these; he wants not capacity, and has a larger measure of knowledge than might be expected from his education, which was very indifferent; a want of judgment with an instability of temper appears in him too often and too evidently. He is mechanically turned, and seems designed by nature rather to be a ship-carpenter than a great prince. This was his chief study and exercise while he stayed here; he wrought much with his own hands, and made all about him work at the models of ships. . . . He is resolute, but understands little of war, and seems not at all inquisitive that way. After I had seen him often, and had conversed much with him, I could not but adore the depth of the providence of God that had raised up such a furious man to so absolute an authority over so great a part of the world."

The "furious man" was suddenly called home by a revolt of the Strieltzi, aiming at his overthrow and the raising of his sister Sophia to the throne. The revolt was stifled in blood before his return, in September, 1698, but, dissatisfied with the trial of the ringleaders, and anxious to settle the question of Sophia's share in the disturbance, he instituted a new criminal investigation on a tremendous scale, which proved how little a year's contact with the civilized world had changed his nature or his idea of "absolute authority." He had all the Strieltzi, who were kept under guard, brought in batches to Preobrazhensk, near Moscow, where fourteen torture-chambers were established, presided over by Princes Tcherkasski, Dolgoruki, Golitzyn, and eleven other grandees—"Russians he had most confidence in for that sort of work." The Czar was himself present at the work, and personally questioned those who seemed most guilty. The torture was of three kinds: by rods, the knout, and fire. "In this way"—we omit the revolting particulars—"1,714 men were examined, and Guarient and Korb write that thirty fires were daily burning . . . for this purpose." The extorted depositions proved very little, but "Peter chose to be satisfied of the complicity of his sister," and imprisoned her in a convent. Her sister Martha was also made a nun, and both were kept confined till their death. Of the first batch of the Strieltzi examined, numbering 341 in all, 196 were hanged along the walls and at the gates of Moscow, five were beheaded, and a hundred, who were under age, were branded in the right cheek and banished. Of the second batch, 770 men were executed. Of these, 95 were hanged on a large square gallows in front of Sophia's cell, and three remained hanging all winter under her window. There is also strong evidence to the fact that on one day, in the Czar's presence, and by his order, 109 men were beheaded by the nobles of his court. Whether Peter himself acted as executioner "remains a question." Such was Russia at the close of the seventeenth century, and such the Czar who undertook to civilize her. His equally despotic and insane crusade against beards and long robes, in which he was occasionally active in person, also belongs to this period.

Peter's private life was then in harmony with his public activity. He sent his wife Eudoxia to a cloister, there to live a life of abject penury and moral degradation, and resumed his carousing with his favorites in the German suburb. There was no end of revelling, buffoonery, and blasphemous jesting; there were bacchanalian festivities. Boisterous merriment was now and then interrupted by outbursts of Czarish madness. Sometimes, however, he gave way to melancholy and despondency. At the news of Lefort's death, in 1699, he burst into sobs, crying, "Now I am left without one trusty man." He felt

keenly his inability to cope with the corruption of his Russian officials, which hampered all his undertakings. A few months later he lost another faithful friend. The Scotchman Gordon followed in death the Swiss Lefort. The Russian Menshikoff, one of Peter's former play-soldiers, now rose to the highest influence as a favorite, adviser, and general. He was handsome, witty, of quick intelligence, but of light morals. Peter once said of him, "Menshikoff was conceived in iniquity, born in sin, and will end his life as a rascal and a cheat." And such was his end, but after Peter's reign and after that of his widow, Catharine I., whom Menshikoff had ceded as a young mistress to the amorous cupidity of the Czar. Menshikoff and Catharine, though both of low origin, were more congenial to Peter than others of his surroundings: they understood him, and knew how to deal with him.

The Spanish Masters: An Outline of the History of Painting in Spain. By Emelyn W. Washburn. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE history of painting in Spain is one which does not require much archæological research, nor is the material presented of great interest in the philosophy of art. With the exception of Velazquez, who heads the roll of great realistic painters of all nations and all time, and Goya, an artist of great imagination, there is in the record of Spanish art little or nothing not due to Italian inspiration. Where there is departure from Italian tradition, it proceeds from the ecclesiastical narrowness of mind which came near to stifling the tender exotic, and probably would have done so but for persistently renewed importations. It is a record which shows better than any other the inevitable antagonism between ecclesiasticism and art, and how completely unfounded are the claims of the Church to have fostered the development of the arts.

The résumé of the chronicle of the arts in Spain in the book under notice is a compact, well-arranged history, and as such deserves commendation, even in view of its want of perspective, which gives it the air of making too many great men where comparative magnitudes really differ so much. There is a little too much affectation in using Spanish terms, as, *retablo* instead of picture; for though literally this word means a picture on panel, the author employs it for those on canvas as well. The archæological part of the book is sufficient for the subject, and is based on good authorities well collated, as Stirling-Maxwell, Ford, and Head, with references to the native chroniclers, and on interest in, and study of, the original works in the Spanish galleries. The volume is not to be classed with the authoritative work of Morelli, but takes its place as a hand-book of unquestionable value.

We must, however, take exception to the very undiscriminating manner in which the opinions of other writers are used, and to the crude and unphilosophical views of the author. To collate and justify *authorities* is one thing, to compare and weigh *opinions* quite another; and the writer who may be entirely competent to do the former must completely fail in the latter unless his views are sufficiently ripe and sound to make the collator a competent judge without reference to those opinions. If he is not qualified to pronounce judgment on a work of art independently, how shall he be able to endorse or compare the opinions of others? The assumption of so doing is either a claim to superiority in some respect, or a confession of incompetence; and the value of the author's own opinions must be judged from his independent judgments. What can we say to the author of such expressions as this:

"In his picture of San Pedro de Alcantara there is what embodies most powerfully the secret of painting, its ability to body forth the spiritual. It is the eye of the saint in his rapt utterance, and it conveys indeed that conception in its fulness: not the eye of the common observer gazing on visible things before him; not the eye of the philosopher seeing vague forms in its blank abstraction, but the keen eye of the imagination shaping the unseen thought in all the distinctness of reality—'seeing the invisible,' in the language of St. Paul."

At the risk of being discourteous, we must say that this is not criticism of art. The eye sees what is visible, and the secret of painting is to paint what can be seen. That any observer can see in the eye of a painted saint what *he* saw which was invisible, is a sentimental fallacy which may be in place in a spiritualistic "circle," but is not in art criticism. There is but one way to paint a thing well, and that is to paint it as if seen: what is unseen belongs to the poet, not the painter. Another passage equally objectionable is this:

"In the great epochs of life, whether in religion or art or letters, we find this universal law, that the man who leads the age is he who has winnowed the dusty chamber of opinions with a knowledge drawn from living sources. Luther goes back from the scholastic divinity to the personal faith in the Christian soul. Descartes studies his own mind, and the insight of his volume outreaches all the earlier speculative theories. . . . Velazquez rises from Pacheco's teaching to the truer, simpler master—Nature. It is the sure sign of decay when the main purpose of art or literature is to defend the old system, when age on age must repeat the definitions of Fernandez, or the style of Luis de Vargas. Education means, above all, the leading forth of the mental powers of the man. Art tradition cannot take the place of our own minds, and of the real sources of knowledge which are always fresh and as living as in the past," etc., etc., etc.

Or this:

"Among the artists of this age, which Head calls the 'middle period of Spanish painting,' Luis de Morales stands well-nigh alone—a survival of the olden time, and inspired by that religious sentiment which the mediæval Church developed so powerfully. The artists of his day, followers of the Italian Renaissance, had lost that earlier feeling of an 'objective presence' which Morales breathes forth in the very spirit of Fra Angelico and of the early Italian painters. Christianity gave to those masters certain ideas, which permeated their thought, feeling, and life. The mystery of God in Christ brought Him nigh to the heart of humanity, yet spiritually and purely; and nature was *the mystic shrine that pointed to the Invisible.* Painting with them transcended the material vehicle; it was charged with spiritual meaning. So in the Gothic cathedral *the arch and the tapering spire were the symbolic fingers that pointed to an embodied, incommunicable beauty.*"

"The Greek mind, the most beautiful intelligence that the world has seen, embodied in perfect form the ideas of its religion; and embodied them with equal perfection in the *sculptured finish of Sophocles, the marble of Phidias, or, we may presume, in the lost paintings of Apelles.*"

But a writer who thinks and talks so unscientifically as this should be careful about laying down "universal laws"; and when it comes to "winnowing the dusty chamber of opinions with a knowledge drawn from living sources," we should say a little study of logic would be an assistance, perhaps by way of sprinkling the dusty chamber. In treating of Velazquez, the author gives us this:

"There is a strange melancholy which the grandest works of art sometimes beget in us, especially if we view them *whilst we ourselves are in the midst of lofty but unfinished labors.* A statue, a painting seem no longer human: they are disengaged from all past processes of imperfection: they have passed from the stage of becoming to the state of changeless being. We see no more the struggling artist, but, as it were, an instant creation. Their completeness withers our hope. The scaffolding on which a Velazquez stood is gone, and the lofty painting looks down on us with an overwhelming grandeur, an unattainable distance."

We must confess to being lost here. The uninspired use of the English language does not, we believe, avail in these word-puzzles.

The illustrations of this volume are indifferent to bad—rather the latter than the former.

The Chronicles of Newgate. By Arthur Griffiths. Illustrated. New edition. Scribner & Welford. 1884.

NEWGATE is one of the oldest places for the imprisonment of criminals in the world. As its name indicates, it dates from a time when justice was administered in Europe, as it still is in the East, at the gates of cities. An exact chronicle of what has taken place within its walls would make a curious companion-picture of the changes in manners and habits outside. Of the earlier history of the place, however, there are but scanty materials. The jail calendars, which are our main reliance, are chiefly, if not altogether, modern records, and the historic life of the jail is a growth of the last two or three centuries. Most of the existing body of Newgate learning is common property, and in looking over Mr. Griffiths's volume the reader is continually reminded of the curious fact that so many of the most familiar names in literature are those of criminals of the vilest sort, who nevertheless were popular heroes in their day. Crimes of violence seem in the last century and the century before to have invested those who committed them with an interest that we know little of, partly, perhaps, because the public has no opportunity nowadays of interesting itself in its criminals *en masse*, either in the hue and cry or in the procession to Tyburn. Captain Kidd, Jack Sheppard, Dick Turpin, Jonathan Wild, occupy a more interesting historical position than we can expect any of the criminals of our day to hold in the next century, and the effort to endue ruffians like the James outlaws with a halo of romance amounts to little more than a ghastly burlesque of a bygone fashion. The noted Newgate criminals of a later period—the Mannings, the Courvoisiers, the Fauntleroys—have a much poorer literary standing than their immediate predecessors, and Newgate itself has ceased to be a place of any dramatic or romantic consequence. As a place of detention for religious and political offenders it long since lost all interest, though for many a year it supplied the fires of Smithfield with their human fuel, and the Tower scaffold with the ill-fated victims of political hatred and vengeance.

We are accustomed to congratulate ourselves on the wonderful progress that we have made within a few generations in our way of dealing with crime and criminals, and the fact that we do not torture them, nor starve them, nor kill them except for very grave reasons is incontestable; but our criminal records do not give us much reason to believe that civilization has yet begun to sap the forces which produce crime, or to convert them into good agencies. Our manners are milder, and we shrink from the infliction of cruelty; our laws forbid unusual or excessive punishments; we have taught ourselves, in a way that would have seemed to our ancestors laughable, to put ourselves in the criminal's place, and to understand the temptations which have led him astray. By these means, a system of philanthropic reformation has been elaborated which is capable in efficient hands of producing wonderful results. But our philanthropy and sympathy have led also to a general relaxation of the old desire for the criminal's punishment, until we now continually see a homicide followed by an outburst of sympathy for the murderer—a singular substitute for the social desire for vengeance or retribution, on which any system of punishment must rest. The

effects of this state of feeling in procuring immunity for criminals must tend to that insecurity of life which, in the long run, will produce a reaction in favor of severity. There is no reason for thinking, however, that we shall return to the primitive barbarism of feeling which led to the bloody penal code of a hundred years ago. Nothing is more difficult to understand now than the inaccessibility of our ancestors to those feelings of sympathy and pity which make systematic cruelty in punishment in our time out of the question. One of the interesting cuts in Mr. Griffiths's volume represents a prisoner undergoing the *peine forte et dure*, or being pressed to death by heavy weights. The object of this horrible torture was to make persons accused of crime plead. As long as they remained silent they could not be tried; and if they died without a trial they were not felons and their estates could not be confiscated. For this reason prisoners were now and then found heroic enough to endure this terrible death rather than say guilty or not guilty. The imagination of the scene of the suffering—the wretched victim chained to the floor and the added weights slowly but surely stifling him, the jailors standing by and watching his agonies—is enough to sicken the reader without the picture, which, as in the case of many another horror, gives the whole a slightly ludicrous turn. But it was not long ago that such punishments were thought valuable for their deterrent effect.

On the whole, the long record of crimes presented in such a volume as Mr. Griffiths's brings out not the romance so much as the commonplace, vulgar character of crime. It is a dreary record of murders, robberies, forgeries, arson, and perjury, unredeemed for the most part by a single fine incident, and never in modern times rising to a tragic level. It seems, indeed, to be a literary fallacy which renders crime romantic or interesting; for when we come near the criminal, we nearly always find him to be a vulgar, sordid wretch, who loses his human interest as he becomes steeped in criminality and habituated to violations of the law. The criminals who are led into crime by excessive ambition, by a generous desire to save some one else from the consequences of their folly, are to be found on the stage and in books, but not in such books as the Newgate chronicle. Simple idleness and a desire to enjoy the good things of life without working for them, seem to be the explanation of most of the crime that is committed; and the great problem of "penology" is so to arrange things that the reward of crime shall be not the good things of life, but hard fare and just that severe labor which the criminal most fears—certain retribution, without cruelty. Mild punishments, made more lax by the uncertainty of the administration of the law, must in the long run prove just as dangerous to society as the excessive rigor of a cruel age.

The Creators of the Age of Steel. By W. T. Jeans. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE misnomer of Mr. Jeans's book is the result of a false perspective of the arts involved in civilization. The "age of steel" began, so far as our civilization is concerned, when the Romans used the Celtiberian steel against the Gauls, whose longer swords had no temper. The great development of steel industry of which Bessemer, Siemens, Whitworth, and their lesser companions in the Walhalla of Mr. Jeans were the promoters, was the cause of one of the greatest modern increments of industrial wealth; but steel had ruled the world for centuries before Bessemer was born, and when we measure things comparatively it may be found that Benjamin Huntsman, the inventor of cast steel, who is not one of Mr. Jeans's heroes, has had a more important relative influence on the metallurgic wealth of England than Bessemer. The "age of steel" opened when a way was found to make an iron which would temper, and, like the "age of bronze" or that of stone, has had successive dawns in various countries. There exists in Franklin County, N. Y., an iron ore which, cast directly from the smelting furnace into cutting tools, takes admirable temper, can be hammered, etc., and if some accident had developed the smelting process for the Iroquois as is fabled of the Chalybes, who are said to have found iron after a great conflagration of forests on Mount Ida, the age of steel might have revolutionized North America before Christopher Columbus discovered it. The shallow view that the inventors of processes by which great wealth is rapidly developed, are correspondingly great benefactors of the human race, and to be honored accordingly, is supported by the heralds' college, but not by history or philosophy. Riches make their own apotheosis, and have no need of the extravagant laudation of Mr. Jeans for their agents. Genius, in whatever branch of human occupation, merits and receives its due respect, but to graduate this reverence by the scale of the pecuniary results is to go back to the golden calf.

Thus, apropos of the Bessemer process we are told:

"According to the best information extant, it appears that in the twenty-one years that elapsed after the process was first successfully worked, the production of steel by it, notwithstanding its slow progress at first, amounted to no less than 25,000,000 tons; and if we were to estimate the saving as compared with the old process which it superseded, at £40 a ton, the total would be about £1,000,000,000. . . . Such a man needs no honors; but no industrial nation could afford to let him go unhonored. Hence honors and distinctions have been showered on him from all quarters."

The struggles of Bessemer, the corrupt and partisan course of the officials of the crown in his case, and, still more, in Whitworth's, and the patient persistence in the pursuit of a definite result through years of experiment and failure, make Mr. Jeans's book an interesting one, though apparently only a very one-sided compilation. Whitworth, as a clear-eyed, systematic, and great mechanical inventor, as a practical mechanician who has probably never been surpassed in the records of mechanical industry, seems to us much the greatest hero of Mr. Jeans's list; and Siemens, as a scientist of a higher type than Bessemer, since his discoveries are more far-reaching and of more true and comprehensive benefit to the human race, should also have preceded the latter, and, if there is justice in the future of Fame, will do so.

The English and Prussian Governments, according to the author, vied in meanness toward Bessemer, but the Prussian excelled easily in dishonesty. The record, in this matter, of both Governments is quite on a par with that of the most ungrateful republics. The artillery question, as brought out in the histories of Bessemer and Whitworth, shows the ordnance authorities of the English Government in a position (which also better authority than Mr. Jeans exists for recognizing) utterly disgraceful and degrading. The hold of Sir William Armstrong on the Ordnance Department of England is probably excelled by nothing in the corrupt records of our American rings. Pages 81 and 91 of the book ought not to be pleasant reading to honest and patriotic Germans and Englishmen.

The author curiously ignores all the discoveries made in America. When dealing with Siemens's researches into light, he credits incidentally Lockyer and others in England for researches far surpassed by those of Langley, of the Allegheny Observatory, who is not mentioned; and when Mr. Jeans comes to Mr. Whitworth's studies in the rifle, he does not seem to know that Whitworth found in the manufacture of the Kentucky rifle in America the secret of the certainty of rifle construction—the hexagonal bore, known by his name still, but which we who write used above forty years ago, when it was being abandoned. The manufacture of rifles then was, as an art, only known in the United States, and for short-range shooting is still far in advance of that of England, though the experiments of Whitworth on the relation of the size and shape of missiles for long-range shooting, and their relation to the rifling of the gun, have never been equalled as systematic and extensive research by any gun-maker on either side of the Atlantic. The persistent neglect—contempt, perhaps—with which Sir Joseph Whitworth has been treated by his own Government, is one of the most disgraceful things in the history of English industry, though it is almost equalled by the treatment of Bessemer.

Spanish and Portuguese South America during the Colonial Period. By Robert Grant Watson, Editor of 'Murray's Handbook of Greece, Fourth edition.' In two volumes. London: Trübner & Co. 1884.

IN 1866 Mr. Watson received the appointment of second Secretary of the British Legation in the Argentine Republic and Paraguay. His previous experience having been in an entirely different part of the world, he looked for information regarding South America among English books, and found almost none. At the place of his destination he discovered that there was plenty of it in Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and other foreign languages, and gradually became acquainted with the literature on the subject. Of two years of diplomatic service in America, he passed one in Buenos Ayres and the other in Rio de Janeiro. He successively visited Uruguay, the Argentine province of Santa Fé, Patagonia, Paraguay (then a seat of war), and the Brazilian province of Minas Geraes. He collected voluminous materials for the elaboration of a work on South America, such as he had felt the want of, but, owing to subsequent employment in several countries of the Eastern Hemisphere, only recently found the necessary leisure to compose it. He unpretentiously offers it to the public as a much needed epitome of more elaborate and original works, and as such it deserves a great deal of credit. It is strictly confined to South America. It relates successively the discovery of the main land (1498), and of the Pacific Ocean; the careers of Balboa and Las Casas; the discovery of Brazil, La Plata, and Paraguay; the discovery and conquest of Peru and Chili (1521-50); the exploration of Brazil; the rebellion of Gonzalo Pizarro and other events in Peru; the Araucanian war (1550-60) and its consequences; the growth of the Brazilian colony; the arrival of the Jesuits in Paraguay (1608 and after); the southern voyages of Hawkins, Drake, and Raleigh; the Dutch war for the possession of Brazil (1623-45), and the creation of the Jesuit missions in the north of that country; the French efforts to establish themselves in South America; the advance of Brazil in the seventeenth century; the history of the Viceroyalties of Peru and New Granada; the mining discoveries and other events in Brazil; the rise of Buenos Ayres; the expulsion of the Jesuits from Portugal and Brazil (1759-67), from Buenos Ayres and Paraguay; the arrival of the Braganza dynasty in Brazil, and the English expeditions to La Plata (1806-07). The history of the transition, through insurrection and war, from the colonial state to independence is not told.

The narratives are plain and minute in a some-

what diffuse style. There is no attempt at rhetorical embellishment, picturesque description, or ethnological disquisition. A liberal and humane spirit, averse to all forms of oppression, fanaticism, and intolerance, pervades the whole book. This liberalism is coupled with a strong sense of impartiality and of fairness even toward the oppressor and bloody bigot. The story is a dismal one, almost from beginning to end. Ruthless conquest, rapine and torture, enslavement and extermination, fratricidal conflicts, fanaticism and ignorance, colonial oppression, the reign of monopoly, stupid maladministration, invasion—these are the successive or alternating topics, seldom redeemed by instances of noble devotion such as has rendered immortal the philanthropy of Las Casas, or of high administrative sagacity like that displayed by the Jesuits in the treatment of the Indians in their districts. Our author does full justice to the zeal and skill with which the Jesuits carried on their work of converting and training the Indians, especially in Paraguay, but he does not fail to add, "Their system of government had been so absolute, and their disciples had been reduced to such a condition of being merely thoughtless animals or machines, that, when the guidance of the Fathers was withdrawn, the whole system established by them suddenly and absolutely collapsed." The cruelties perpetrated on the Fathers in the execution of the decrees of expulsion are related with sympathetic feeling. The author avoids harshness of expression and sweeping denunciations. The following, on the "national disgrace" of Portugal, is a characteristic exception:

"There seems indeed something peculiarly ingrained in the Portuguese race which makes them take to slave-dealing and slave-hunting as naturally as greyhounds take to chasing hares; and this observation applies not to one section of the race alone, but to Portuguese wherever they are to be found beyond the reach of European law. No modern race can be cited as slave-hunters within measurable distance of the Portuguese. Their exploits in this respect are written in the annals not only of the whole coast of Brazil, from Pará to Uruguay, and along the Misiones of Paraguay, not only on the coast of Angola, but throughout the interior of Africa. We may take up the journals of one traveller after another, of Burton, of Livingstone, of Stanley, or of Cameron, and, in whatever respects their accounts and opinions may differ, on one point they are one and all entirely agreed, namely, as to the pestilent and remorseless activity of the ubiquitous Portuguese slave catcher."

Lessing. Geschichte seines Lebens und seiner Schriften. Von Dr. Erich Schmidt. Erster Band, pp. 487. Berlin: Weidmann'sche Buchhandlung. 1884.

A NEW life of Lessing has at once the advantage and the disadvantage of coming after one of the best biographies in the German language. For largeness of conception and thoroughness of execution the volume published by T. W. Danzel in 1850 is hard to improve upon. But Danzel, very abstruse in matter and in manner, is unreadable except for scholars; and the continuation of his work by G. E. Guhrauer, who died in 1854, while his part of the enterprise was still in press, is entirely different in style and in the quality of the thought. Thus the work as a whole lacks unity. The various lives of Lessing that have appeared in Germany and England since 1854 are dilutions of the Danzel-Guhrauer biography. They present little or nothing in the way of new facts or new criticism, and are not based primarily upon independent research.

Prof. Erich Schmidt, of the University of Vienna, has accordingly undertaken to make a Life of Lessing that shall be up with the times. His first volume, a book well made in every way, and adorned with a spirited etching of the Lessing portrait commonly ascribed to Tischbein, ends with a section on "Minna von Barnhelm." It thus covers the first thirty-six years of Lessing's life, or precisely the same ground covered by the work of Danzel, which it aims to supplement rather than to supersede. Danzel's strength was philosophical, Schmidt's is historical. He is a man of great learning in the imaginative literature of the eighteenth century, and is in his element when depicting the relations of Lessing to English and French writers, when describing the persons and places that Lessing had to do with, or when trying to revivify for a moment some one of the multitudinous literary pigmies whom Lessing slew and embalmed. Schmidt's work is always acute and always thorough; and the result of all this acuteness and thoroughness is a book which will be very valuable to one who is already perfectly informed about Lessing and his mental environment, and very unsatisfactory, if not soporific, to one who is not. Even a fairly educated reader will find in Schmidt a good deal of matter about men that he has never heard of, books that he has never read, and events of which he does not see the bearing. The underlying conception of the book seems to be that Lessing was a very great man, and that, therefore, nothing that in the remotest way concerns him can be uninteresting. There is little or no effort to deal with anything but minute details; but this of course is unavoidable if one must write nearly 400 pages on the part of Lessing's life which precedes his greatness. To find fault with an author for doing that is to find fault with the whole German *modus operandi* in matters of this kind. In a better state of civilization, we hope, one volume of moderate size will be thought enough to contain the life of any man of letters who has been dead a hundred years.

Schmidt's style may be safely called piquant. He has none of Danzel's Hegelian deep-diving, but instead of that he has any number of recondite facetiæ, which render it important to read him in the neighborhood of a good reference library. A countryman of his gently expostulates with him in the Leipzig *Centralblatt* in regard to this profusion of jests. But that is only the austerity of German science. The cisatlantic public will not find Professor Schmidt's book too humorous.

Richard Baxter. By G. S. Boyle, M.A., Dean of Salisbury. A. C. Armstrong & Co. 1884.

THIS volume is the sixth of a series of "Heroes of Christian History." The author's task has evidently been somewhat perfunctory. He has brought to it no special fitness for biographical writing, and no special sympathy with his subject. Of the four-and-thirty volumes in the "English Men of Letters," it would be difficult to name a single one which is not better done than this; and yet the material was here for a biographical sketch of unusual interest. It has not been produced. The more is the pity, therefore, that the death of Dean Stanley "has deprived the reader of these pages of what would have been a true distinction"—an estimate from him of Baxter's review of his own life.

A brief chapter on his early days is succeeded by one on "The Beginning of Pastoral Work." He was only twenty-four when he entered on his Kidderminster pastorate. England had fallen upon troubled times. On October 23, 1642, he preached at Alcester, and "heard the cannon play" at Edgehill while he was preaching. The next morning he visited the field of battle. The civil war found him in a dreadful strait. He was a devoted monarchist, with a passion for religious liberty. He ranged himself upon the side of Parliament and took the Covenant, but with a doubtful mind, and sore repentance as the war continued and the Protectorate of Cromwell succeeded the King's death. He took a chaplaincy, but after a period of service his constitutional maladies obliged him to abandon it. Then, "in continual expectation of death, with one foot in the grave," he wrote the first part of 'The Saint's Rest,' the least polemical and best of all his works, which was first published in the year of the King's death. He had made a heart of quiet for himself in the midst of the most violent passions. After the Restoration, Baxter was offered a bishopric, which he declined, and his letter to Clarendon declining it is an invigorating and inspiring document. When the Act of Uniformity was passed he was ejected from his parish, though sixteen hundred of his parishioners out of eighteen hundred were in his favor. Baxter had thirty years to live, and they had much of sorrow and anxiety, but also great alleviations—a "marriage of true minds" and work to an unlimited extent. His closing years had less of molestation and annoyance from the ruling powers.

The Dean of Salisbury concludes his sketch with chapters on Baxter's review of his own life, on his doctrinal and practical teaching, and his place in history. There is much in these chapters of great interest, and the most of it is in Baxter's own words. Undoubtedly his place is preëminently that of the schoolman of the English Protestants. His thought and character abound in admirable traits, but the Dean of Salisbury has no skill for imparting information: he is very sparing of facts and dates. He seems afraid of telling his readers what they know already, whereas he might safely have reckoned on the general ignorance. His book will teach scholars nothing, and for the average reader it is not sufficiently explicit. It may, however, provoke a thirst that can be slaked at other fountains.

The Campaigns of the Rebellion. By Albert Todd, First Lieutenant First United States Artillery. Manhattan, Kansas. 1884. Pp. 130.

IN this little book Mr. Todd has undertaken to state briefly all the material facts of the late war. He has not, we think, been over-careful to state them accurately; but even if his work had been a model in this respect, we should be inclined to doubt its utility. A *general sketch* of the war can undoubtedly be given in 130 pages; it would take perhaps a clever man to do it, but it could no doubt be done, and it might be very useful to those who purposed making a study of the operations in detail. But a *very concise narrative* is a wholly different thing; no one, new to the subject, can possibly recollect so many facts, following one another with such unfaltering steps. The mind reluctes at such condensed food.

Mr. Todd has completely separated his narrative of the operations in the East from his narrative of the operations in the West. Each subject is treated by itself. But surely this is to lose sight of the very important fact of the interdependence of the Eastern and Western campaigns. No correct view of the general posture of affairs at any particular epoch can be gathered from such a treatment as we find in this book. The work is, however, fairly well done for what it purports to be; any one familiar with the war would no doubt say that, as an abridgment of a full history, it was sufficiently provided with all the principal facts. It is written, we presume designedly, in the tone of one who is addressing young people, and the conciseness, which is its chief characteristic, is not infrequently departed from to let in some-

thing of a personal character or otherwise interesting to the reader. Still, as we intimated above, there are inaccuracies. It is news to us to hear that Pickett commanded at Gettysburg any troops besides those of his own division. Nor did we ever hear before that Schofield's army, after the battle of Franklin, was indebted to the friendly cover of the smoke, which, owing to a peculiar condition of the atmosphere, did not rise much above the ground, for its ability to retire unmolested from a field on which it had just inflicted on its adversary such a severe blow. It availed itself certainly of the darkness of night to commence its retirement to Nashville; but the smoke is, we suspect, an unwarranted addition. We think Mr. Todd is seriously in error in putting the strength of Lee's army, at the opening of the campaign of 1864, at only 52,000 men; and in his note to page 48, in which he states that Grant had 140,000 men at that time, but that only 20,000 of these were effectives, he doubtless would have us read 120,000 for 20,000.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avey, Mrs. H. E G. Home and School Training. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.
Baker, Sir S. W. In the Heart of Africa. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Campbell, Prof. J. L. Geology and Mineral Resources of the James River Valley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Corning, Dr. J. L. Brain Exhaustion, with Some Preliminary Considerations on Cerebral Dynamics. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Dawson, S. E. A Study, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, of Lord Tennyson's The Princess. Second Edition. Montreal: Dawson Brothers.
The Art of Oratory: System of Delsarte. With an Essay on the Attributes of Reason by François Delsarte. 2d ed. Albany: Edgar S. Werner.
Wiggin, Edith E. Lessons on Manners for School and Home Use. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.—III.

PERHAPS the best test of the real vitality of any school of art which can be recognized by the general public is its treatment of portraiture. And it is at once a test of the taste of the community and the power of the painter; for a public that does not care for art *per se* will only care for what are called "faithful" portraits, nor will the commonplace painter care to labor for more than contents his client. The greatest schools of art have always been marked by the preëminent quality of their portraiture at their highest attainment. Raphael, Titian, Veronese, Rembrandt, Tintoret, Rubens, Velasquez, in fact, all the great technists, have given their portraits the best of their powers and sometimes the highest of their art. Even the French heroic school, with its absurd classicism, did good work in portraiture, and the best art England has ever produced was in her portrait school. A man who cannot make a good portrait may do clever and amusing genre or landscape, but not good ideal work in any vein, and the surest indication of an art given up to trivialities and surface technicalities may be seen at once in the weakness or non-existence of portraiture. One class of men avoid it because they are incapable of the sustained discipline which it demands as the indispensable condition of success, and another fails in it because it has no perception of character, which is the foundation of all true idealism; weaker men, because the severe drawing which is the basis of it is impossible to them even with patience and their utmost sincerity. A common delusion which artists and art lovers often permit to themselves is that, as fidelity to the external appearance of a man is not the highest vein of portraiture, therefore a painter who cannot draw well may still be capable of doing something better, and give the true character of the man without giving his face—which is simply a consolation to failure. There may be something in art higher than exact truth to the forms of nature, but no man can reach it except through those forms, or at least without the refinement of drawing which enables him to attain them when he will. The conditions of the ideal are too obscure and subtle to dogmatize about, but it is safe to say that the painter whose hand and eye do not permit him to be true to what he does see, will not safely attempt an ideal which he does not. There is no escaping the law that the ideal is only to be found in the actual; beyond it, it may be, but through it inevitably.

The condition of our portraiture, as seen in this exhibition at least, is not therefore encouraging for the future of our art. With the exception of the single portrait by Millet, No. 210, there is not a single head by any of our younger men which shows a resolute attempt to meet all the conditions of portraiture. This is, so far as can be judged from the portrait alone, a thorough piece of characterization—too individual not to be true—and the classic sympathies of the painter are shown in the treatment of the accessories, the subtle play of pale tints, and the frank severity of the design. A deeper key of color would have better suited the exhibition room, and perhaps have made the work more impressive, but its subtlety and refinement are certain to win their way to those who will give it the study it deserves.

Eastman Johnson's two portraits, Nos. 70 and 259, are strongly painted and characterized heads, and, so far as the general public is allowed to know, at the very front of American portraiture; certainly in the exhibition there is nothing to rival their solid qualities of color and drawing, and, with the exception of the portrait of Hiram Powers, by Page, No. 461, nothing so individual in character. Mr. Johnson, however, in the accessories, shows the tendency of the mere portrait school—all that is not demanded by an unartistic clientèle is left out. In this respect Millet stands at the head of the portraitists of the exhibition. The head of Powers, which the catalogue describes as "painted about 1848," cannot be of that date, as Page did not go to Europe till after 1849. It shows, too, the method which Page adopted when he went abroad, by which he believed he had got the qualities of Titian—*i. e.*, using pure color in repeated paintings over a solidly prepared ground. Titian certainly did use such a method in his flesh sometimes, and possibly generally where the flesh was the important element of the work, but he did not use it throughout the pictures, as Page has done, nor did he ever paint his accessories in so flimsy a manner as they are painted here. But the picture is in character and in certain qualities of color a proof that Page's friends did not overrate his powers, which might easily, but for his obsession by theories, have made him the greatest of American portrait painters thus far. A sketch of Sumner, No. 662, apparently the beginning of a portrait, also by Page, is very grand in character.

Mr. Porter, in his portrait of a lady, No. 124, pushes Mr. Johnson very closely, and in general treatment of accessories and pictorial completeness goes beyond him, as we see him here. This half-length is admirable not only for its well-painted head, but for the figure, so well posed and real. The portrait by the Vice President of the Academy, No. 324, is strong and in general effect of color good, but with over-hot shadows, which interfere with the solidity of the head, as if the flesh let light through from within. No. 403, by Edgar M. Ward, is evidently excellent as likeness and painted with vigor and skill, but in all the accessories, even the hair, with a reckless and heartless dexterity which is rather mannerism than style. Hicks's portrait of Dr. Wood is a professional success, but hardly up to the work the artist used to do twenty years ago. Of Miss Barber's portrait of a child, No. 274, we have already spoken, and we recur to it now only as fitting in a notice devoted to portraiture.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 8, 1884.

The Week.

THE resolutions and speeches of the Massachusetts Republican Convention constitute the most noteworthy political demonstration of the year, and emphasize what we said the other day concerning the change which is going on in political methods. The resolutions are a distinct advance over their immediate predecessors in their declarations on the most important questions of the day. Last year the tariff plank was written by Senator Dawes, and was simply the stereotyped demand for "wise and well-matured laws to protect and develop American industry and enterprise both at home and on the ocean." This year there is a demand for a "reduction of customs duties because of the dangerous surplus in the treasury receipts," a proviso that this reduction should "be made with the least possible injury to the labor and manufacturing interests of the country," and a recognition of the necessity, in the "progressive changes in industrial conditions, for an investigation of the tariff on a scientific basis, to the end that it may be considered as to its real influence upon labor, capital, production, and revenue." This is a distinct recognition of the tariff as a question which is not irrevocably settled, but whose consideration is of pressing moment. Coming immediately after the organization of a Revenue Reform League in Boston, and after ex-Governor Long's remarkable statement as Chairman of the Convention, that "conditions are rapidly changing, and it may be but a few years, especially in view of the progress already made, before the system of protection will have done its work and may be laid aside," its significance is so obvious as to require no comment.

On the subject of Presidential candidates the sentiment of the Convention was equally noteworthy. Mr. Long was cheered to the echo when he said that for the approaching campaign the best candidate is the most available, and that the best candidate would be one of such acknowledged worth that the "thousands of influential and sterling voters who all over the land have become, not Democrats or Independents, but Indifferents, shall regard his nomination as an earnest that the Republican party is looking only at the public welfare and prosperity." The platform gave voice to the same idea when it demanded as the choice of the Massachusetts Republicans for President "a man of proved fidelity in public life, and whose relations to the party are such that all its members can heartily unite in his support." It is easy enough to pick out a candidate who answers to these demands. There are several of them in the party, but none of them is at the head of a boom, or is seeking the nomination in any other way. They are all formidable, not through wire-pulling and pipe-laying, but because the spirit of the time is in their favor.

The worst showing for Blaine is in the New England States. His boomers have been claiming delegates in every one of them except Vermont, but now that the conventions have been held it is shown that he has no following to speak of outside of Maine. He has one delegate in New Hampshire, and two, or possibly three, in Rhode Island, but not one in Massachusetts or Connecticut. The conduct of Massachusetts is especially reprehensible, and we are surprised that it has not been sternly rebuked by the Blaine organs. In the face of their assertion that if Mr. Blaine was a bad man Mr. Edmunds was another, the Massachusetts Republicans elected a solid Edmunds delegation, and in State Convention chose four men as delegates-at-large who were fairly shouting for Edmunds.

There is a manifest quibble in Mr. Phelps's reply to Senator Edmunds's letter. In his first letter Mr. Phelps said: "Nor would you and I differ in giving the highest rank to Senator Grimes; but both he and Senator Edmunds acquired their interests in the Burlington and Missouri Road when they were in the Senate. They both supported the bill to restore the land grant to *their* road." Mr. Phelps now says he did not imply that Senator Edmunds owned stock in the Burlington and Missouri Road when he voted upon the bill, but merely that he was "in the Senate" when he acquired his interest in the road. What, then, does he mean when he says: "They both supported the bill to restore the land grant to *their road*"? How was it "their road" if they had no interest in it at the time the bill was voted on? It turns out that the bill was not a bill to restore a land grant, but virtually to change the name of the road. It was a bill to confer upon the Burlington and Missouri Railroad in *Nebraska* the grant already conferred upon the Burlington and Missouri Railroad in *Iowa*, which is a very different thing from restoring a lapsed land grant. Mr. Phelps ought to employ his leisure solely in the management of Mr. Blaine's estate, and leave that of Mr. Edmunds to an abler financier.

Our esteemed contemporary, the *Sun*, says the charges against Mr. Blaine will not injure him in the Convention. All the Democratic papers say the same thing, for two reasons. One is, that it is a legitimate deduction from their belief in the corruption and rottenness of the Republican party. The other is, that they wish extremely to have Mr. Blaine nominated. The *Sun* is, therefore, pursuing in the Blaine matter a perfectly proper course from the party-journal point of view. Any Democratic editor who joined in the outcry against Blaine would make a great mistake, and deserve to have it said that his circulation was falling off.

A very important report has been made by the Bureau of Statistics on the operations of the Tariff Act of 1883, showing the changes effected by that measure in the rates of duty on the various articles of import affected by it, and the change in rate upon all dutiable imports in the aggregate. The reduction in the aggregate is shown to have been only 1.47 per cent. That is, the average ad-valorem rate on dutiable merchandise during the six months ending December 31, 1882, was 42.34 per cent., and for the six months ending December 31, 1883, 40.87 per cent. On sugar the reduction was 1.47 per cent. It is worth mentioning that the present average rate of duty on sugar under our tariff (1.95 cent per pound) is exactly the wholesale price of raw sugar in the London market as stated by the *Economist* of April 26, viz.: one penny per pound, grocery sugars selling at two pence, and loaf at two and a half pence. The reduction on iron and steel effected by the tariff of 1883 was equal to 4.54 per cent.; on clothing wool 10.73 per cent.; on woollen manufactures 1.01 per cent. On the other hand, there was an increase of duty on earthen and china-ware equal to 13.11 per cent., on spirits and wines 22.76 per cent., on glassware 1.48 per cent., and on cotton manufactures 2.51 per cent. The following table shows the present average ad-valorem rates of duty on the principal articles of dutiable imports, to which we have added the rates as they would stand under the Morrison bill, supposing it to make an average reduction of 20 per cent.:

	Average ad valorem rates.	Morrison bill rates.
Spirits and wines	89.50	71.60
Manufactures of wool	62.19	50.76
Earthen and china ware	55.99	44.79
Glass and glass ware	55.58	44.47
Manufactures of silk	49.83	39.80
Clothing wool	45.58	36.47
Malt liquors	43.84	35.18
Sugar and melada	42.85	34.28
Combing wool	38.92	31.12
Manufactures of cotton	39.53	31.62
Iron and steel, and manufactures thereof	32.97	26.37
Carpet wool	21.78	16.43

The vote on the tariff in Congress on Tuesday was the first regular stand-up fight between the forces of protection and free trade which has taken place in this country since 1846. The tariff has been since then much debated, and frequently modified in one direction or the other, and there have been numerous skirmishes between the friends of low and the friends of high duties, but the issue has always been in some way a side issue. Tuesday's battle, in which the Democrats were divided on the distinct question whether there should be any step taken in the direction of revenue reform or not, was, therefore, the first marked advance which has been made in Congress in nearly forty years. It is not possible that the Democratic party can heal up the breach thus opened. The division showed that four Democratic members to one are in favor of revenue reform, and that without the aid of the Republicans Mr. Randall could not have defeated and delayed the policy to which the bulk of his party ought now to be irretrievably committed. He has done the Republican protectionists a very good turn, however, for he has enabled them to throw on the Democrats before the country the responsibility of refusing to make any concessions whatever to the rising popular demand for lower duties, or to make any attempt to remedy the failure of the legislation of last year to produce the reductions which the Tariff Commission recommended.

That he was only able, even with the Republican aid, to carry out his plans by a majority of 159 to 155, after the fullest preparation, ought to be sufficient to satisfy him that it is not to his views that the future belongs.

The situation now furnishes, however, to the Democrats the materials for one of the finest blunders they have ever committed—a blunder so huge and attractive that the mere thought of it must make the mouths of some of them water. That blunder would consist in treating the vote in the House as conclusive proof of the impolicy of any further attempts at revenue reform on the Democratic side, and the wisdom of going into the Presidential campaign on the theory that the tariff will do as it is, or, as the *Sun* puts it, that there are "matters of more moment that demand attention," without being able to mention on demand what these matters are. The appearance of the party once more on the Presidential field without any baggage in the shape of ideas or policy would certainly be the most delightful spectacle its enemies could have, and its effectiveness will be greatly increased if the Morrison bill be treated by the managers as a mistake.

"Puts and calls" have been in a languishing state for some months, and they have now received a bad blow in the failure of Mr. James R. Keene to take up the privileges which it is said he has been raising money on for some time back. As the Stock Exchange very properly refuses to recognize puts and calls as contracts to be enforced under its rules, the failure of Mr. Keene cannot raise any questions in that body. Possibly the intervention of the courts may be invoked to determine whether an agreement of A to receive stocks from B at a fixed price at a future time, in consideration of a sum of money paid down, can be enforced at law. Probably not. There must be some place to draw a dividing line between gambling and legitimate business, and if business organizations have drawn it at puts and calls, that is a safe place for the law to draw it. The failure of Mr. Keene will lead to anxious scrutiny of signatures on the part of holders of this evanescent sort of property.

An interesting fact connected with Mr. Keene's suspension is that it produced no bad effect upon the Wall Street market, though the total amount of his "puts" must have been very considerable—according to one account, 200,000 shares. That the market should have been strong notwithstanding the collapse of such a bull as this, shows what a mistake it is to imagine that the course of the market is governed by the agile gamblers and speculators who operate in it. The reason that the stock of such a corporation as the Erie Railroad affords an excellent field for gamblers is because of the extraordinary vicissitudes to which the management is subjected; the Keenes and Sages are produced by the condition of such properties. They enrich or ruin themselves or their friends, but in the long run the value of stocks is not much affected by them one way or the other.

A notable event of the past week in Wall Street was the heavy selling of Union and Central Pacific and Western Union Telegraph shares, which declined six to eight points. The Pacifics were depressed in part by reduced earnings, but still more by the conviction that they have passed from the monopoly stage to the competitive stage of their existence, and that they must hereafter fight for traffic, like the railways in the older States. The report that Samuel J. Tilden had sold out his Union Pacific had a demoralizing effect on the property, Mr. Tilden's sagacity in business matters being rated as highly as his shrewdness in politics. Western Union was depressed by a variety of stories, among others that Jay Gould was selling in the most intrepid manner. This the habitués of the street fully believe. They can find no other source of supply of long stock adequate to account for the number of shares tumbled upon the market from day to day. The only stocks which made any decided advance during the week were the Northern Pacifics and Oregon Navigation. The coal properties were well sustained, but there was a good deal of nervousness about Reading. Gold exports, although reaching $2,750,000, attracted no attention whatever. The business community no longer look upon the specie movement as an evil in itself, but merely as a sign of other existing evils.

There is a dispute between the bulls and bears in the wheat market on the question whether we shall have any considerable surplus to export during the remainder of the year. This is, of course, all guesswork, but much depends upon the price offered in foreign markets. The outlook in that quarter is by no means encouraging, but the causes which tend to curtail exports here operate in the same way in Russia and India. While the European markets have not improved, the Indian scare has largely passed away, having been succeeded by a conviction that we can raise wheat and get it to the chief centres of consumption as cheaply as anybody. There has also been a general restoration of confidence in renewed prosperity, arising from a calmer survey of the productive powers of the country. Nations are not brought to permanent distress by a superabundance of everything needful for human wants. This reflection has gradually found its way into the channels of business, and has led to a more hopeful feeling. It is now commonly believed that prices have touched bottom, the shrinkage in general merchandise having ceased some time since.

Mr. Hurd's bill to reduce the duty on works of art to the old figure of 10 per cent., and remove the exemption of American artists abroad, will bring certain dissidents from the general petition of the artists for abolition of the art tariff to a distinct sense of their errors, and will probably diminish their number. To protect art by taxing all the American artists who work abroad even ten per cent. on the value of all the work they send home will not increase the selling price of their pictures as it might of the works of Rousseau or Millet, which are practically priceless, but will simply be a tax on the painter who has not a cosmopolitan reputation and market, and whose prices are regulated by the home demand alone. He will merely sell his pictures for the familiar prices minus ten per cent., while the purchaser of a picture in Paris will charge himself necessarily with the duty. The young artist, who most needs protection, if anybody needs it, will be the person who will not get it. And sending his pictures home for sale he must pay the duty as if already sold. This is the legitimate and inevitable effect of the duty on art, for, as Mr. Hurd showed, and as we stated long ago, the distinction by nationality cannot be maintained in face of our treaties. Those who went in for a thirty per cent. duty have done this good service, that they have laid the last feather on the back of the foreign producer and compelled him to invoke the treaties. This ought to bring the narrowest-minded protector of American art over to the total abolition of the duty. But is it worth while for the country to employ (if even we had competent ones) art-appraisers for the trivial gain involved to the Treasury? And as we must reduce income, why should we not do so on an item in which protective or any duties are an injury to everybody involved, and a useless expense and complication involved in the collection, etc.?

The plan of "tapping" South America with a railroad 6,000 miles long, running from Mexico south through the Isthmus and to the principal towns below the Equator, is a far more harmless scheme for developing international trade than many that have yet been advanced. It is not likely to lead to a war with any South American State, and is less likely to breed trouble than a "Pan-American" congress. It would no doubt cost more than having free ships, but then the cost and the losses would fall on the shoulders of the capitalists who undertook the work. They could always stop, too, if they found it was too expensive; nobody could compel them to build the whole 6,000 miles; and unless the South Americans showed a liberal disposition about taking stock and bonds, we trust they would stop. The plan of getting the Government to spend $100,000 or so on a preliminary survey by "commissioners" is the only part of the scheme to which the public could possibly object; this will be a mere bagatelle to the capitalists who have the matter in charge, and can properly be charged to the construction account. There seems no reason why Congress should do anything about it.

The acquittal of Kellogg, following as it does upon the heels of the other failures of justice in the Star-route cases, is unfortunate for the Government; but the explanation of the result furnished by Mr. Ker, who drew the indictment, shows clearly enough how it happened. The act under which Kellogg was indicted provides that "if any member of Congress shall receive or agree to receive from any person any compensation, directly or indirectly, for any service rendered or to be rendered in relation to any contracts, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor," etc. The Statute of Limitations requires that an indictment shall be found "within three years

from the time the offence was committed." Price, the contractor, testified that in July, 1879, he promised Kellogg $20,000 if he would get Brady to make an order relating to a couple of Star-routes; that Kellogg took the papers and reported that it was "all right"; that Brady made the order in July, 1879; and that Price thereupon gave Kellogg, for "fixing" Brady, a note for $5,000 (paid November, 1879), and five "Post-office drafts," dated July 16, 1879, each for $3,000. These drafts, according to Mr. Ker, are not negotiable paper, nor are they authorized by any law or regulation of the Post-office Department. They are recognized by the Auditor as a sort of order upon him to enable the contractors to pay their debts; they cannot be sued upon; they are revocable at any time before payment, and are only called drafts by courtesy. These drafts were to be paid out of money coming due to the contractor quarterly, the last payment being due March 31, 1881. The Government proposed to prove that Walsh collected the money every quarter, handed Kellogg half of it, crediting Brady, by Kellogg's directions, with the other half.

The indictment was found April 18, 1883, and the question in the case was whether Kellogg received his "compensation" within three years from that time. The Court took the view that he received it at the time the promissory note and drafts were given (July, 1879), and that the prosecution was barred. Mr. Ker thinks the decision ought to have been that he got no compensation till he got the money. Price's testimony was, as might have been expected, that the paper was received in full payment. The point seems to be one of which different lawyers might take different views, and we hope that it is not necessary that Judge Wylie's decision should be followed generally by criminal judges. The view of such transactions taken by plain, practical business men like Kellogg, Brady, and Price is, we believe, that it is a continuing or ambulatory agreement, not wholly satisfied until the cash is transferred from the pocket of the briber into that of the bribee.

The death of "Chevalier Wikoff" removes from the scene a curious character, who played, according to his own belief, an important part in the world for many years. He had a good education, and a passion for the society of distinguished artists and theatrical people, and did one very good turn to the people of the United States in bringing Fanny Elssler here. Those who have read his reminiscences have probably a friendly feeling toward the deceased Chevalier, and do not attach great importance to his occasional lapses from the path of strict rectitude, which usually got himself into deeper trouble than any one else. He was a journalist, and had throughout his life a strong belief in the appetite of the public for "news," though he never had capital enough to turn it to proper account. His faculty of invention was very strongly developed, and we think it is a pity for his friends and admirers not to recognize this fact. Taken seriously, his account of himself would have seemed monstrous. As a "Chevalier," he will be generally regretted.

It is evident that the Rev. Dr. Newman did not take all the tendency to Stalwart political methods with him when he departed from the Methodist Church. Judging by the debate in the General Conference at Philadelphia on Monday, the influence of the parson's example is still felt there. One of the delegates said he regretted that the disposition to employ "methods which find favor in political assemblies" was growing so rapidly in the Church's election of bishops, and alluded to "combinations" which were disturbing the proceedings of the Conference. He was greeted with a loud chorus of "Amens," and was followed by the Rev. Dr. Hatfield, of Rock River, who created a tremendous commotion by charging that the old Methodist custom of the delegates spending hours upon their knees before voting for a bishop had given place to "caucussing, log-rolling, and wire-pulling." He said that a "delegate could hardly get out of a car before he was button-holed and asked to join a combination," and that there was too much of the "you tickle me and I'll tickle you," and too little of genuine piety, in the elections to be good for the Church. The Rev. Dr. Hatfield was finally shut off, but no one seems to have questioned successfully the truth of his charges.

It is very odd that the captain of the *City of Rome* should not have received far severer public censure for his extraordinary conduct in the matter of the supposed wreck of the *State of Florida*. His own story is that he, in command of one of the largest and most powerful steamers afloat, was signalled by a sailing vessel that she had a shipwrecked crew on board, and though the rest of the message was imperfectly made out, it led him to believe that they were the crew and passengers of the *State of Florida*. He took no notice of this, however, and kept on his way, reaching England on the 27th of April. He then learned that the *State of Florida* was over-due, and that there was some anxiety about her. Nevertheless, both he and his officers kept silent about the signal till the *Devon* came in six days later, with two lifeboats of the missing steamer which she had picked up at sea. The captain of the *City of Rome* knew well that at this season of the year the Atlantic steamers are apt to be pretty full; as a matter of fact there were eighty-five passengers on board the *State of Florida* besides the crew. He knew the kind of accommodations an ordinary sailing vessel can supply in our day, both as regards food and quarters, to a large addition to her own crew. He knew that there is no certainty when any sailing vessel will get to port. The one which signalled him might not get in for thirty or forty days. He knew the mortal anxiety which the friends and relatives might suffer in the interval between the arrival of the news of the wreck and the arrival of the rescuing ship. Moreover, he might have run down to the ship and got the full particulars at least, in two or three hours, if he did not bring off the passengers. He, however, kept straight on, caring more for the glory of saving half a day in a quick trip than for the rescue of a hundred people from great suffering and danger. His silence, too, after he reached port seems to indicate that he knew he had been doing something which it would be difficult to defend or excuse. If the racing against time which is now going on across the Atlantic among the great steamship lines is to cause sailors to forget or make light of their primary duty of helping their fellow-men amid the perils of the great deep, owners ought to be admonished that speed is not the only thing which a line needs to earn popularity.

The British Ministry seem to be giving way before the popular sympathy with Gordon and the growing dread of French interference in Egypt. The French have been decidedly emboldened by their success in Tonquin, and are taking a much more decided stand about their interests in Egypt than at the beginning, and of course it would greatly strengthen the Ferry Cabinet to be able to retrieve the terrible mistake of refusing to participate in the original occupation when invited to do so. There is to be a conference in London in the first week in June, called by Great Britain, nominally to settle on some plan of repairing the Egyptian finances, but France insists on its providing for the cessation at a fixed period of the British occupation. This is rousing more or less irritation in England, where there is a strong popular tradition, as old as the conquest of India, that the control, and, if need be, the undivided control, of Egypt must be in British hands. Any appearance of yielding to French dictation about Egypt, therefore, or any withdrawal or agreement to withdraw from Egypt at the French demand, would put the Ministry in a position of considerable peril. Their embarrassment over Gordon grows greater every day. He is clearly shut up in Khartum, and talks of making his escape through Central Africa. The insurrection, too, seems to be spreading down the Nile, and the demand that he shall be relieved grows louder in England. So an expedition begins to be definitely talked of, but it could not take the field under three months, and nobody knows what may happen before then.

The defeat in the Committee of the Reichstag of the bill prolonging the Anti-Socialist Law for two years was caused by a tie, two Ultramontanes voting with the Liberals who opposed it. This looks as if Prince Bismarck had not as yet come to terms with the Clericals. The bill may still, however, be submitted to the Reichstag, and a dissolution is threatened if it should be thrown out there. The Liberal opposition seems to be due mainly to dislike of familiarizing the country and the Government with the protracted use of extraordinary police powers. No one denies that the Socialists are more or less turbulent and dangerous, and probably there would be no difficulty in arming a Liberal minister with ample and extraordinary means of repression, even for a long period; but arming a minister of strongly autocratic views with them is another matter. Bismarck has prosecuted men like Bunsen and Mommsen for mild criticism of him in speeches on the stump during a parliamentary canvass.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 30, to TUESDAY, May 6, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

STATE CONVENTIONS were the political feature of the week. On Wednesday the Republicans of Massachusetts held an enthusiastic meeting in Boston, which was presided over by ex-Governor John D. Long. In the course of his address he made the following notable allusion to the tariff: "Conditions, however, are rapidly changing, and it may be but a very few years, especially in view of the progress already made, before the system of protection will have done its work and may be laid aside. I hope so, for it involves a most perplexing problem, so interwoven with all the other fibres of the national economy that artificiality and lack of simplicity and singleness are its most objectionable features." He, however, opposed the Morrison bill as unwise. On the first ballot Senator Hoar, Henry Cabot Lodge, ex-Governor Long, and ex-Congressman Crapo were elected delegates-at-large to the National Convention. They are for Edmunds and Lincoln as a Presidential ticket.

The Massachusetts Democrats, on the same day at Worcester, passed a resolution that "It is the sense of the Convention that General Butler should be nominated President of the United States at the National Democratic Convention at Chicago." Benj. F. Butler, Josiah G. Abbott, M. J. McCafferty, and James Delaney, were elected delegates-at-large.

The Maine Republican Convention on Wednesday recommended Blaine as a candidate for President. The West Virginia Convention instructed the delegates to vote for Blaine as long as he was in the field. All the California delegates are for Blaine, as are those of Nevada and Iowa. Of the Wisconsin delegates 10 are for Edmunds, 9 for Blaine, 2 for Arthur, and 1 for General Sherman.

The Maryland Republican Convention on Thursday elected delegates-at-large on a platform expressing preference for Blaine. The Minnesota Convention adopted a resolution in favor of Blaine. The Texas delegates are divided principally between Blaine and Arthur. The Rhode Island delegates, it is said, will vote for Blaine on the first ballot. The Colorado delegates are for Blaine. The Oregon delegates are instructed for Blaine. The Utah delegates are instructed for Arthur, and the Wyoming delegates favor him. Kentucky sends Arthur delegates-at-large, as do Washington Territory and Florida.

In Kansas the Republican State Convention expressed a preference for Blaine, and nominated delegates-at-large of a similar opinion.

The anti-Mahone or Straightout Republicans of Virginia met at Richmond on Wednesday. There was a small attendance. The Convention adopted a resolution favoring Blaine and Lincoln, but did not instruct its delegates. They will contest the right to seats in the Chicago Convention with the regular Mahone delegates.

Vermont Republicans, on Wednesday, elected delegates for Edmunds, and instructed them to vote for him as long as his name was before the Convention. The New Hampshire Republicans elected two Edmunds delegates, one for Blaine, and one for Arthur. The Liberals and Republicans of North Carolina have united, and their platform proposes "to abolish the present system of county government; advises the immediate repeal of the internal-revenue laws; and favors such tariff laws as will not foster monopolies, but give all needed protection to American industries and labor."

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads on Wednesday unanimously agreed upon a bill "to secure cheaper telegraphic correspondence." It provides for the prepayment of all telegrams, except Government telegrams, by stamps, and the maximum rate for telegrams of twenty words or less, exclusive of address and signature, when the distance of transmission is 1,500 miles or under, is to be 25 cents; for every 250 miles or fraction thereof in excess of 1,500 miles, an additional rate of 5 cents may be charged. There are other regulations for important cities.

The House of Representatives on Saturday, by a vote of 184 to 13, passed the bill to secure a stricter enforcement of the Anti-Chinese Law.

In the House of Representatives on Tuesday the long tariff debate was brought to a close with speeches by Messrs. Randall (Dem.) and Kasson (Rep.) against the Morrison bill, and Messrs. Blackburn (Dem.) and Morrison (Dem.) in its favor. Mr. Converse (Dem.) then made a motion to strike out the enacting clause (the House being in Committee of the Whole). The motion was carried by 156 to 151. The test yea and nay vote was on the motion to agree with the Committee's report, which was adopted, 159 yeas, 155 nays. Of the 159 votes which defeated the bill, 118 were Republicans and 41 were Democrats. Of the 155 votes cast against the motion to reject the bill, 151 were Democratic and 4 Republican. The four Republicans were Messrs. Nelson, Strait, Wakefield, and Milo White, of Minnesota.

Mr. Van Wyck, on Monday, introduced a bill in the Senate to forbid the ownership by aliens and foreign corporations and companies of a greater quantity of public land than individual citizens of the United States are authorized to enter under the Settlement and Improvement Laws, or to acquire or hold a greater quantity of land in the Territories of the United States than 640 acres.

H. W. Cannon was nominated on Wednesday by the President as Comptroller of the Currency to succeed John J. Knox, resigned. He is thirty-five years of age, and has been a banker for many years. In 1870 he went to St. Paul, Minn., and in 1871 he removed to Stillwater, where he organized the Lumberman's National Bank, and was made Cashier of the bank, a position he has held for nearly thirteen years.

During April the decrease of the United States public debt was $5,232,075.

A sudden termination of the Government's suit against ex Senator William Pitt Kellogg, for receiving compensation while Senator in regard to the Price Star-route contract, was reached on Thursday. A motion was made by the defence on Wednesday to reject Price's testimony, on which the Government had founded their case. Judge Wylie, of the Criminal Court in Washington, in making his decision, referred to the counts of the indictment charging that Kellogg had received $1,500 from Price at different dates, beginning April 19, 1880. If the allegations in the first count were true, that the first payment was on April 19, 1880, it would bring the offence within the three years' limit imposed by the statute of limitations. If Price testified before the Grand Jury as he had done on Wednesday, then the indictment gave the wrong date, for the bribery took place on April 19, 1879, and the prosecution was barred. This was the principal point on which the Court ruled against the prosecution. The jury then rendered a verdict of "Not guilty." A *nolle prosequi* was then entered as to Mr. Price, who was under charge of conspiracy with Thomas J. Brady. This course was taken in fulfilment of a promise that Price would not be prosecuted if he told the truth.

The *Thetis*, of the Greely relief expedition, sailed from Brooklyn Navy-yard for St. Johns, N. F., on Thursday.

In the Assembly on Wednesday, Mr. Howe, from the special committee on the alleged abuses of the Utica Insane Asylum, presented the Committee's report. Mr. Howe said the Committee was convinced that the business affairs of the institution need a thorough revision. He offered a resolution, which was adopted, requesting the Attorney-General, Comptroller and President of the Board of Charities to devise a plan for a reorganization of the business and financial management of the charitable institutions of the State, so that funds may be administered by the Comptroller, and purchases of supplies may be made by some central authority or responsible agency. The report showed that great cruelty and brutality toward patients were exercised by attendants, one of whom was personally responsible for the death of the patient Hughes.

The Assembly Bill to regulate the hours of labor for car conductors and drivers was killed in the State Senate on Wednesday afternoon by a vote of 12 to 15. The bill prohibiting the manufacture of cigars in tenement houses was passed by the Senate, 20 to 2.

Six of Mr. Roosevelt's New York city reform bills were passed in the State Senate on Thursday, with only two or three opposing votes. The Senate on Thursday, by a vote of 12 to 18, refused to disagree with the adverse report on the Five Cent Elevated Fare Bill. On Friday the City Civil-Service Act, with amendments covering the Police and Fire Departments, and striking out the exemption of soldiers, was passed. An amendment extended the bill to all cities of the State.

James R. Keene, the noted speculator, suspended on Wednesday. In explanation of the event Mr. Keene said: "After paying out millions of dollars in cash in the last few months in my efforts to protect my privileges on a falling market, I have finally determined to-day to call a halt in the interest of those with whom I have business." His counsel, Mr. S. L. M. Barlow, said: "It is impossible to tell the exact, or even approximate, extent of Mr. Keene's liabilities. Mr. Keene himself does not know. He has expended $400,000 within the last fortnight to protect his privileges. It took $1,500,000 out of his pocket during the last month to make good his margins, and altogether, during the last six months or thereabouts, he has lost probably $4,000,000 all told in his Wall Street operations."

At about 10 o'clock on Tuesday morning the Marine National Bank, Wall Street, suspended payment. Its capital stock is $400,000. Definite information as to the cause of the failure and the probable results was hard to gain on Tuesday. Soon after the announcement, came rumors of trouble with the firm of Ward & Grant, brokers. The firm is composed of General U. S. Grant and U. S. Grant, jr., Ferdinand Ward, James D. Fish, and W. C. Smith. It is asserted that this firm owed the Marine Bank about $600,000, loaned on certain securities. On Tuesday morning the bank asked for payment, which was refused. Mr. Ward, who is also a director of the bank, was said to have disappeared, and with him the keys of the safe in which all the books and papers of the firm were deposited. Great sympathy is expressed for General Grant, who, it is said, knew nothing of the firm's speculations. The city has a deposit of $1,000,000 in the Marine Bank. It is not thought that the bank will be able to resume payments, and the exact condition of its affairs will not be known until the bank examiner completes his investigations.

A six days' walking match was concluded at the Madison Square Garden in this city on Saturday night, Fitzgerald, an ex-Alderman of Long Island City, being the winner with a score of 610 miles, the largest on record. Rowell, the Englishman, was second with 602 miles.

The General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church began its sessions on Thursday morning in Association Hall, Philadelphia. The attendance was very large.

Mrs. C. B. Kilgore, who was refused admission to the bar by the Philadelphia Courts of Common Pleas Nos. 1 and 2, was admitted on Saturday by Court No. 4

Forest fires prevailed throughout Northern and Western Pennsylvania and in parts of New York on Friday and Saturday, burning

a great deal of valuable timber and several villages, and causing some loss of life.

On Saturday news was received from London at the office of the State Line Steamship Company in this city that their vessel, the *State of Florida*, which left New York for Glasgow on April 12, had probably been lost at sea. The ground for the belief was that the steamer *Devon* had picked up at sea on April 27 two life-boats of the *State of Florida*, while the *City of Rome* reported having passed on the same day a sailing vessel which had signalled that she had on board the shipwrecked crew of the *State*— (supposed, therefore, to be the *State of Florida*). The vessel was of 3,155 tons burthen, and was built at Glasgow in 1857. She carried eighty-five passengers, thirty-five of whom were cabin.

The steamship *Alaska* brought to this port on Sunday afternoon the members of the Siamese Embassy, who were received by a delegation of naval officers. They went to Washington on Monday and paid their respects to President Arthur. They will travel around the country for several months.

Prof. Samuel D. Gross, M.D., the eminent surgeon and writer on medical topics, died in Philadelphia on Tuesday, aged seventy-nine. He was for many years professor in the Jefferson Medical College of that city.

FOREIGN.

Lord Dufferin has informed the Porte that the Egyptian conference will be held in London, and that it will be limited to financial affairs. The Porte has not replied to the invitation to join the conference.

Earl Granville, British Foreign Secretary of State, received on Thursday the reply of the French Government to the English proposal for a conference to discuss Egyptian affairs. It is couched in very friendly terms and accepts the conference in principle. It asks, however, for a previous exchange of views between the two Governments upon matters evidently connected with the financial question, which it will therefore be impossible to treat separately. It has been settled that the conference will be held in London, beginning the first week in June.

The London *Post* says it understands that the conditions upon which the French Government will consent to the conference with England upon the Egyptian question are, that England shall give up all idea of annexation and of a protectorate; and that, on the other hand, France shall recognize the services rendered by England in Egypt, and shall acquiesce in the right of England to maintain a military occupation of Egypt until the task of reorganization has been completed. France stipulates that the date of withdrawal of the British troops shall be definitely fixed. France, on her side, pledges herself not to interfere by arms with the affairs of Egypt, recognizing that England alone has the right so to do.

In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Gladstone said that the latest advices from Khartum indicated that the city was in no military danger. He was unable to speak in regard to the termination of General Gordon's mission until he received replies to the communications which the Government had addressed to the General. The Egyptian correspondence shows that the Government refused to allow Indian troops to relieve General Gordon, on the ground that India has no direct interest in the Sudan.

Parliamentary documents published in London on Monday contain a despatch from General Gordon, dated Khartum, April 16, to Sir Evelyn Baring, in which he says: "As far as I understand the situation, you state that there is no intention of sending relief here or to Berber. You refuse me Zebehr Pasha. I consider myself free to act according to circumstances. I shall hold on here as long as I can. If I can suppress the rebellion I shall do so; otherwise, I shall retire to the equator and leave you the indelible disgrace of abandoning the garrisons of Sennaar, Kassala, Berber, and Dongola, with the certainty that you will eventually be forced to smash up the Mahdi under great difficulties, if you would retain peace in Egypt." This despatch, when read in the House of Commons, produced an unpleasant impression, and it is believed that it will affect the vote on a pending resolution to censure the Government.

Khartum despatches, of April 21, reported everything safe. Trade, it is asserted, will be carried on with El Mahdi's men in case Khartum is taken. The Greek merchants are already in direct correspondence with El Mahdi with a view to the establishment of regular commerce.

Hussein Pasha was still at Berber on Wednesday, and telegraphed that it was too late to retreat. The town was completely surrounded by rebels.

There were fresh reports of the surrender of Berber in circulation at Cairo on Sunday. Three English officers of the Egyptian army have been ordered to ascend the Nile on May 9th, for the purpose of making a reconnoissance.

Two thousand refugees have reached Assuan from Korosko, and more are coming in daily. Evacuation is proceeding quietly at that place. Refugees who left Khartum before it was invested by El Mahdi are expected at Assuan within a few days.

The debate on the Franchise Bill was resumed in the House of Commons on Thursday night. A motion was made that to increase the electoral privileges of Ireland at the present time is dangerous to the state. Mr. Gladstone opposed it, saying that it was impossible to maintain the union between England and Ireland except by giving equal rights to both countries. The motion was not pressed.

The House of Commons has rejected, by a vote of 149 to 79, the bill licensing crematories. It was opposed by the Government on the ground of public feeling against cremation.

Lord Randolph Churchill has resigned the Chairmanship of the National Conservative Union in London, owing to a violent quarrel with the Marquis of Salisbury over the affairs of the Union. This withdrawal has created a sensation in London. The cause was a bitter disagreement with the Marquis of Salisbury. Lord Randolph Churchill indignantly denies a report that he intends to withdraw from the Conservative party and form a new one.

In consequence of documents found in the possession of James Eagan, the man who has been under arrest at Birmingham for complicity in a dynamite scheme, William MacDonnel, a publican, was arrested in Wednesbury, a town seven miles northwest of Birmingham, on Thursday, and taken to that city. He is charged with being a Fenian District Centre. He will be tried with Daly and Eagan for treason-felony. On Saturday all three were arraigned in the police court, and after some damaging testimony against them had been produced they were remanded for one week.

Fitzgerald and ten other Fenians were arraigned at Sligo, Ireland, on Monday, charged incidentally with being Invincibles, and specifically with the murder of landlords and others.

Michael Davitt has abandoned politics, and will go to Australia and make that country his residence in future. The reason generally assigned is the dispute between Davitt and Parnell as to the nationalization of land scheme.

James Stephens is engaged in Paris upon a work entitled 'A History of Fenianism and the I. R. B.' (Irish Republican Brotherhood), compiled from private diaries and the correspondence between himself and the late Fenian leader, John O'Mahony. The way in which the organization spread in Great Britain, Ireland, and America, and the original constitution of the Brotherhood will be fully explained. An impartial picture of the inner circle up to 1870 will, it is asserted, also be given.

The Oriental Bank of London suspended payment on Friday. On Saturday the bank shares were quoted at a discount of 35 per cent.

The Ceylon Company (Limited), of London, failed on Monday. It owed the Oriental Bank $2,000,000.

Chevalier Henry Wikoff died at Brighton, England, on Friday, at about seventy-four years of age. He has been prominent for half a century in the society of Europe and America. He was born at Philadelphia, and was educated at a Princeton academy, Yale, and Union. He was admitted to the bar in 1834, but the following year began a life of travel with a voyage to Europe. In 1844 he started a paper called the *Republic*, for the advocacy of free trade, in which he sank $70,000. He was the friend of Louis Napoleon, of Lord Palmerston, and a hundred celebrities. In 1880 he came to this city to publish his book, 'Reminiscences of an Idler.'

An additional credit of 40,000,000 francs, to defray the expenses of the Tonquin expedition, will be asked by the French Minister of Marine when the Chamber of Deputies reassembles.

The French Government has requested Señor Zorilla, the Spanish agitator, to leave France, and so avoid expulsion, and he has complied.

The election for members of the Spanish Chamber of Deputies resulted in the choice of 334 Conservatives, including 20 Ultramontanes. Forty two Liberals, supporters of Señor Sagasta; 35 members of the Dynastic Left; 3 Possibilists, including Señor Castelar; 3 Radicals, and 3 Cuban Autonomists were also chosen.

It is asserted in a Vienna newspaper that, owing to the discovery at Moscow of a plot to assassinate the Czar, the festivities designed in honor of the coming of age of the Czar will be held at St. Petersburg.

The Committee on the Bill to prolong the German Anti-Socialist Law has rejected the measure as proposed by the Government. The Reichstag will, however, be called to vote upon it.

Professor Virchow, the eminent scientist, has published a letter, in Berlin, in which he says that trichinosis in Germany caused by eating imported American meat is confined to a few isolated cases at Bremen. Besides this, he points out the dangers connected with the rearing of pigs in general, and urges the compulsory examination of German and imported American pork.

The marriage of Princess Victoria of Hesse to Prince Louis of Battenberg took place at Darmstadt on Wednesday. Queen Victoria, the grandmother of the bride, the Prince and Princess Imperial of Germany, and the Prince and Princess of Wales were present.

The ex-Empress Anna, widow of Ferdinand I of Austria, and aunt of the present Emperor, is dead, aged eighty-one. The ex-Empress was the third daughter of King Victor Emmanuel I., of Sardinia.

Three dynamite cartridges were found on Wednesday at Toronto under the Parliament buildings, two at the eastern and one at the western end. Wires were attached and preparations had been made for attaching the fuse. The discovery created considerable excitement, and additional guards were immediately placed at the building. It was at first supposed to be a Fenian plot, but afterward that it was probably a joke or trick on the part of some one who wanted to be appointed a police officer.

Another insurgent band, headed by Chief Varona, has appeared in Cuba. The civil guards have had an encounter with it, in which the rebels were defeated.

THE PARTIES AND THE PRESS.

THE following letter comes from a well-known Southern politician:

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can you explain a mystery that puzzles me? Half the nation believe that our revenue should be so raised as to protect, encourage, and maintain American manufactures. With this half agree Blaine, Arthur, Logan, Edmunds, and substantially the whole Republican party. The other half believe that the tariff is primarily solely for revenue, with just such protection as incidentally must arise from any tariff whatever. With this half agree Bayard, McDonald, Morrison, Carlisle, and all the Democratic leaders, and substantially the whole party. This is really the line of demarcation between the parties. Now, please explain to me why it is that no Republican journal (as for instance, the *Nation*, New York *Times*, New York *Herald*, Chicago *Tribune*) ever proposes boldly to support the party which it believes to be right, and oppose the party it believes to be wrong, upon that which must be for years to come the question of questions, dominating and controlling all others? Is there any country in the world, save ours, in which such a thing as a failure on the part of representative journals to support the party which advocates their views, is possible? Why is this so with us? Are Carlisle, Bayard, McDonald, and Morrison disloyal to the Union, or ever likely in any event to be so? An answer will oblige C.

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The answer is easy enough. In the first place we think few Republicans would admit our correspondent's statement of the facts to be correct. Few, for instance, would accept the statement that the half of the nation which believes in a tariff for revenue only, is to be found in the Democratic party, and the half which believes in a tariff for protection, is to be found in the Republican party. The lines which divide people on the tariff question are, indeed, notoriously not coincident with the party lines. There are both Democratic protectionists and free-traders, and Republican protectionists and free-traders.

Granting, however, that the Democratic party contains more revenue reformers than the Republican party, the question remains whether it contains enough to make it possible to consider it even in a rough way the party of revenue reform. This, too, must be answered in the negative. The Democratic party has never since the war ventured to take the field, either through its platforms, its stump, or its legislation, as a party of free trade or low duties. The feeble attempt it made to do so in 1880 was abandoned before the canvass was half over. Consequently no Republican who considered the tariff the most important question of the day has been able, since 1861, to feel sure, if he gave in his adhesion to the Democrats, on the approach of any electoral contest, that he would not find himself thrown ignominiously into the ditch before it was over, and left to find his way back to his own party in the wretched character of an undeceived renegade.

The attempt the Democrats are now making may be more sustained and more successful, but confidence is, of course, a plant of slow growth. A considerable portion of the party evidently wishes it to fail, and is afraid to go into the Presidential campaign on the tariff issue. They may yet succeed in depriving the Morrison bill of all its valuable features. No party can earn a character for sincerity on any subject in six months. Most Republican free-traders will be disposed to wait until the Democrats have boldly fought out a Presidential contest on the tariff issue, and lost in it, before throwing in their fortunes with them, even if free trade were what they considered the gravest question in the politics of the day.

This brings us to what is perhaps the most important point of all. The number of those Republicans who consider free trade and revenue reform so serious a question of the day as to make others by comparison of little moment, is very small. Most of them seek from the party they put or keep in power that kind of soundness which, in an individual, would be described by the term good character; that is, they want to be sure that it gets its impulse and direction from the more intelligent, industrious, thrifty, orderly, and in the best sense of the word conservative portion of the community—the portion which finds its political satisfaction mainly in seeing the laws faithfully executed, the public moneys honestly collected and spent, the fruits of honest labor secured to the owner, and peace maintained with the outer world. To this class the Democrats have, during the last quarter of a century, offered little inducement to join them. They had a great chance on the question of civil-service reform, which has taken such a strong hold of the public mind, but they deliberately put it aside. To have taken hold of this after the war, and made it a sort of support for the attacks on the corruption of the Republican party, would, as far as one can see, have been a most successful stroke of policy, especially if linked with an effort to put the currency on a sound footing. Far from taking hold of it, however, the Democrats not only allowed the Republicans to start the reform movement, of the strength of which the recent legislation in this State is such a striking proof, but since its inception have mainly occupied themselves in obstructing and ridiculing it. The credit they might have got from Mr. Pendleton's share in it, they have deliberately refused by repudiating him and trying to exclude him from public life.

In fact, the only thing they have offered revenue reformers as an inducement to join them has been "harmony," as if harmony were in itself a supreme political good. But, of course, nobody can be tempted by harmony without asking what the harmony is about. Harmony in itself, meaning the absence of discord, is of no more value in politics than music. When anybody asks what Democratic harmony means, the answer has always to be, a general agreement that it would be nice to get the offices away from the Republicans, and divide them, without reference to the public interest, among the Democratic politicians. To this kind of harmony, however, almost everybody who cares for good government in these times prefers discord, and discord is now what all Democrats who love their party ought to try for. The road to success lies through it.

THE "STRENGTH" MARKET.

Harper's Weekly, in recently condemning the boss system of instructing delegates to vote for a particular candidate at the Convention, said:

"The foolish practice of instructions to delegates has been generally, though not universally, abandoned by the conventions of this year. It is a practice which converts a representative with discretion into a mere instrument, and it is absurd, because local conventions may as well announce their will and their number of votes for candidates as send thirty, or forty, or fifty, or seventy men to a distant city, at great expense and inconvenience, to do the very same thing."

The practice is, however, not by any means so absurd as it seems. It would not serve the purpose of those who uphold it just as well to announce their will and the number of their votes as to send forty or fifty or seventy men to a distant city. They do not send the instructed delegates simply to vote. They send them to make bargains, and "deals," and "trades," and this could not be done by letter. In fact, to the friends of instructions the convention is not simply a place of nomination, but a market in which "strength" is bought and sold. The instructed delegates are not bound to hold out for their candidate indefinitely. As soon as they perceive that there is no reasonable chance of nominating him, it becomes their duty to sell his "strength," or, in other words, to find out who among the other candidates, whose prospects still are good, will give most for their votes in the shape of office or patronage for their own man. This accounts for the lively interest which instructed delegates retain in the work of nomination long after their own chance of success has passed away.

The candidate at the coming Convention who will have most strength to sell will probably be Mr. Blaine, and his brokers will enjoy the great advantage of being long forewarned that the best they can do is to make a "deal." To have to offer strength for sale suddenly, after having previously expected to find a better use for it, is of course always disadvantageous. Mr. Blaine's delegates will go to Chicago knowing exactly what their business on hand is, so that they will waste no time. What he would like to trade for is very well known. One of his pet fancies is that he would make a brilliant Secretary of State, and probably any candidate whose chances are good can have his "strength" for a promise of the State Department. It is surmised, according to the Boston *Herald*, that either General Sherman or General Harrison would give it to him, but that Edmunds, Arthur, Gresham, or Lincoln would not. The *Herald* adds "that this is a matter which should be inquired into by delegates who think Blaine's influence in the Cabinet would be pernicious." It certainly is. There will, of course, be many delegates at the Convention who will oppose his nomination simply because they think he cannot be elected, and these may think that he would make a good Secretary of State. But no delegate who thinks him unfit to be President can help thinking him eminently unfit to be put in charge of our foreign affairs. It will, therefore, be undoubtedly the duty of all such delegates to find out if they can whether, in voting for any candidate, they are voting to put Blaine in that department of the Government in which he can do most mischief in the shortest space of time.

That he has by no means abandoned the hope of being able to make trouble with foreign nations was revealed by an observation in the letter which his mouthpiece, Mr. William Walter Phelps, recently wrote in his defence. Mr. Phelps said, that as to the Blaine foreign policy, "however much some Eastern journals may criticise, it is popular with a large majority of the American people." That Blaine thinks so still there is no doubt. Garfield's death, he feels, put a sudden and unfortunate stop to a series of rows with foreign Powers, which he was industriously getting up, and which would have covered him with glory. Like all politicians of his type in every country in the world—the flashy, unscrupulous, conviction-less type to which Disraeli and Louis Napoleon belonged—his idea of "brilliancy" in administration is the absorption of the public attention in foreign complications, to the neglect of home affairs, and the general promotion of financial looseness, so as to give plenty of chances to the class of enterprising political adventurers. If Garfield had lived, Blaine would probably have made so much trouble that he would have by the end of four years been permanently excluded from the political arena, or "ordered off the course," like the jockeys and betting men who indulge in sharp practice or get up scrimmages at race meetings.

It would be most unfortunate now if he should get another chance. Our relations, both political and commercial, with the South American Republics are doubtless capable of much improvement. We ought, too, doubtless to have some definite understanding with Great Britain and all European Powers about the piercing of the Isthmus. But the very last man in American public life to be intrusted with the transaction of any such business is Mr. Blaine. He not only is wanting in the kind of knowledge necessary for any such work, but the unsteady, sensational character of his mind, and his devouring egotism and ambition, make him now unfit for any work but that of electioneering. He cannot put pen to paper without producing a "campaign document." The very same reason which makes so many people opposed to all attempts, however moderate, to change the tariff, ought to exclude him from all share in the National Administration. He is essentially, by temperament and character, a disturber of business in all cases in which his operations are visible above the surface. The larger our population grows, and the greater the volume of our invested capital, the more delicate does the machinery of our trade and finance become, and the more necessary is it that our foreign affairs should be in the hands of cool, sensible, clear-headed men, who are more concerned about the fortunes of their country than about their own. Of these we luckily have plenty both in public and private life.

BOOM MORALITY.

A Stern Moralist, armed with power, would, we think, at this stage, call together the newspaper members of the Blaine boom, including Mr. William Walter Phelps, and address them somewhat in this fashion:

"Inasmuch, dear friends, as the charges against your candidate for the Presidency, which you are fighting so manfully, and which you are afraid will damage him, are not that he bought railroad bonds, but that he has been corrupt, tricky, unscrupulous, and evasive, don't you think your manner of defending him is likely to aggravate any unfavorable impression about him which the public has already formed? For instance, I notice that you have published with much horn-blowing Mr. Phelps's 'complete answer' to the *Nation;* but although I have watched your columns closely, I have not yet seen in them a line of the *Nation's* original accusation or of its reply to Mr. Phelps. If you went before a jury, you know the accusation would be heard first, then the answer, and then the reply, and you would be laughed out of court if you asked to have nothing submitted but the answer. What makes this the more remarkable is, that the *Nation's* reply contained Mr. Blaine's own letters, on which the case against him rests. The mere inspection of these ought, on your theory of the affair, to knock the *Nation's* accusations into flinders. Why then, brethren, do you not print them in their order, and, if you do not like the *Nation's* comments on them, insert some of your own?

"I know of course that your object in this concealment and evasion is to humbug somebody; but whom can it be? You are of course not straining your consciences for the benefit of the regular Blaine devotees. They do not need any vindication, because no accusation would produce the slightest impression on them. The people you are trying to convince must be the Independents, and the friends of other candidates. Do you seriously suppose that any of these who still feel any curiosity about the character of your Knight are going to rest satisfied with the Phelps letter and your flatulent applause? Of course they read the other side of the case, as presented by the *Nation* and other journals. What conclusion, then, do you think they draw from your reserves and exclusions? What inference does the world draw, brethren, about anybody who hides the accusation against him before he asks you to hear his defence? Could you get an old suit of clothes in that way from a charitable widow, not to speak of 'a nomination on the first ballot' from the Republican party?

"Would that I could dismiss you, dear friends, with these few and imperfect remarks. But there are one or two more of your capers which fill me with alarm for your temporal and eternal future, and about which I must say something. As you know, our ingenuous young friend here, Mr. Phelps, has been trying to show that Mr. Edmunds, in buying the bonds of a railroad which had three months previously benefited by Congressional legislation, did precisely the same thing as Mr. Blaine did in the Little Rock and Fort Smith case, for which he has been attacked. 'The cases were so analogous,' says our candid young friend, 'in all essential particulars, that it seemed proper to group them.' 'Mr. Edmunds,' reëchoes the *Tribune*, 'went just as far as Mr. Blaine and *no further*—made exactly the same sort of investment, after the same sort of action in Congress, within the same interval of time, *on the same terms.*' Brethren, this is dreadful. You know as well as I do, looking at the matter even from a low worldly point of view, that in lying, as in other things, safety lies in moderation. In this case your excess brings more trouble on your protégé, Mr. Blaine, for don't you remember that he, on the 25th of April, 1869, denied in Congress, in the most solemn and formal manner, that the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad was indebted to Congress for anything, and asserted that it derived 'its life, franchise, and value *wholly* from the State, and *not in any sense* from Congress'? So that either you are making Mr. Edmunds go much further than Mr. Blaine, and indeed do something which Mr. Blaine did not do, or else you are announcing to the world that your own candidate was guilty of deliberate and conspicuous falsehood. You didn't think of this when you were writing your letters and your articles? Well, but you ought to have thought of it. In the business in which you are now engaged, nothing is so important to you as a good memory. You ought, in fact, to block out your work together, agree on your story, and see exactly where it will land you, before you begin writing.

"But this, dear friends, is not all that troubles me about you. You have in your haste omitted one defence of Mr. Blaine, which, if it had no other merit, would have had the merit of truthfulness. You might have said that he never made any investment at all in the Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds, and in this way you could have proved triumphantly that he was not only as pure as Mr. Edmunds, but far purer. For there is not a particle of evidence, either in his letters or in the testimony before the Judiciary Committee, to show that he ever put one cent into the securities of the road. Warren Fisher swore he never sold him any bonds at all. In fact, all the securities he got he seems to have earned as commissions on sales. They were, in short, you might have said, the product of honest toil, unlike Mr. Edmunds's Burlington and Missouri bonds, which were simply purchased in the market for cash. I mention this by way of showing that if you would read the Mulligan letters and the testimony, you would not only avoid some damaging errors and inconsistencies, but often stumble on truths which you might turn to account. It is not unnatural that you should dislike reading them, but they ought in your present undertaking to be a sort of *vade mecum* for you. They contain everything that is of importance for you to know to make you successful as apologists, even if they do not wholly save you from sin and absurdity."

THE FALL OF PRICES.

All the leading European economists have been discussing during the last two months the cause of the widely extended fall in the price of commodities. The silver men, led by M. Laveleye, the Belgian, of course find it in the scarcity of money, owing to the repudiation of silver by the leading commercial countries. But this theory really finds little acceptance, and excites but little attention, outside the ranks of the small knot of zealots who have during the last few years made silver their hobby. Mr. Robert Giffen, the

Chief of the Statistical Department of the Board of Trade in England, has published an address, in which he shows that a considerable reduction has taken place in all the necessaries of life in England within the last forty years, except butchers' meat. In support and illustration of his thesis, he produces a table given him by the treasurer of St. George's Hospital in London, showing that the cost of everything needed by the patients, except meat and service, has greatly diminished within the last fifty years. M. Leroy-Beaulieu and other writers show that the same tendency to lower prices for all the necessaries appears on the Continent and has existed for many years, although just now a little more marked than heretofore. He, however, dismisses the silver explanation as "mystical," and maintains that in the presence of other powerful agencies which we see at work, there is no need of it. He ascribes the fall of prices, in fact, to four great and plainly efficient causes, the activity of which is not only not declining, but is likely to increase for a good while to come. The first is the opening and development both of new countries and of old countries formerly productive but since then relapsed into barbarism; second, the reduction in cost and increase in rapidity of transportation, combined with the lowering of custom-house tariffs; third, the increasing abundance of capital throughout the civilized world, and its increasing tendency to flow into the more backward countries; and fourth, the incessant improvements in machinery. These four causes, he says truly, are permanent, and will probably increase in power. In other words, the present period of industrial depression will probably soon pass away, but the high prices will not come back. Business will have to adapt itself to low prices.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu proves his case as against the bi-metallists by asking why, for instance, we should ascribe the fall in the price of grain to scarcity of money, when the increased production in America, in India, in Australia, and in Chili, and the great reduction in freight furnish so easy an explanation of it. So also as regards sugar, the enormous increase in the production in Germany, in Austria, and in France is sufficient to account for the fall in that. The fall in coffee, in petroleum, in cotton, in wool, in iron and steel, may all be accounted for in the same way. But things which are not capable of rapid multiplication, or of increased economy in production, and which cannot be made the subjects of international competition, such as houses, domestic servants, theatres and other amusements, diamonds, bric-à-brac, and the like, have not fallen, but have risen in price—a fact which seems to make the demonstration complete.

Turning to his own country more exclusively, M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows, as Mr. Giffen has shown in his paper on the cost of living in England, that the working classes have steadily profited by this fall. The statistics show that from 1866 to 1881 the consumption per head of population in the city of Paris of such articles as wine, bread, butchers' meat, poultry, fish, butter, eggs, and cheese has steadily, and in some of them enormously, increased, except butter, which has fallen off, and poultry and game, which have remained stationary. Clothing and furniture have also fallen, and, in fact, nearly everything except house rent. But high rents, in the face of considerable building, are in themselves a proof that other things are cheap, and that the competition for comfortable dwellings is great.

All this means, of course, that the future is increasingly dark for socialistic agitators. The probabilities are that we have entered on a period in which the population will fall far shorter than ever before of pressing not only on the means of subsistence, but on the means of very comfortable subsistence. The fall of prices means, in short, a superabundance of the fruits of labor such as the race has never before witnessed, and never until lately dreamed of—or, in other words, a state of things in which poverty will mean more distinctly than ever either laziness, or incapacity, or physical disability.

WOMEN AT THE BAR.

THE struggle of Mrs. Carrie B. Kilgore for admission to the bar has finally ended in a rather curious victory. She has for two years been going about from one court to another with a diploma as bachelor of laws, granted her by the University of Pennsylvania, insisting that the laws of that State give her the right to admission. These statutes, like those of most other States, say nothing about the sex of lawyers, and only require that the applicant should be "of an honest disposition and learned in the law." Judges, however, have hitherto been unanimous, or nearly so, in the opinion that the uniform practice and custom of the modern world in confining the practice of the law to men ought to govern in the interpretation of such statutes, and that the only proper way to change the custom is by an act of the Legislature. Three separate courts in Philadelphia have taken this view, and if there was any doubt as to its correctness a very slight examination of the opinion of Judge Thayer, who has finally admitted Mrs. Kilgore, would be enough to remove it.

He disposes of the numerous decisions with regard to the proper interpretation of the statutes by declaring that he does not see how a custom can arise out of a "mere negation," which is certainly a funny way for a judge to overrule his brethren on the bench; he then "declines to enter into a controversy on the subject of women's rights," and finally decides the case on the following grounds: First, that "if there is any longer any such thing as what old-fashioned philosophers and essayists used to call the sphere of woman, it must now be admitted to be a sphere with an infinite and indeterminable radius"; that she is "found in all the pursuits and professions of life"; that persons who talk of her admission to these with apprehension as of "an impending social change," are asleep, and ought to "awake from their slumbers" and recognize the fact that "the revolution is over"; and finally, that it would not be in the line of a "wise judicial discretion" to attempt to "turn backward the Wheel of Time to convince history that it is all wrong, and to say at this time of day that woman shall not be permitted to pursue the vocation that suits her taste, and for which her studies have qualified her."

It will be seen that what Judge Thayer has really done is, not indeed to go into a discussion of woman's right to admission to the bar, but to assume that it is all settled, and that the customs of modern society allow her to engage in any calling she may like. If this is a correct view, the statutes relating to admission to the bar must be interpreted in the light of these customs, and by this means we reach the necessary conclusion that Judge Thayer is right and the other judges wrong.

The male bar as yet shows very little disposition to interest itself in the agitation for the admission of woman, and this is, we believe, generally due to a belief that women will never be able to enter into competition with them as lawyers. But is this clear? The "law business" in this country is in a very curious state, and there seems to be a demand on it for every species of man—for the learned and ignorant, the lazy and energetic, the bright and the stupid, the scrupulous and dishonest, the truthful and the mendacious. Many of these qualities are found among women, and in certain branches of practice, especially jury practice, the effect of a speech by a leading female counsel might be powerful. It is said to be the custom of some attorneys in New York to retain special counsel solely on the ground that they are likely to be opposed to other counsel of a browbeating turn, whose wrath they do not fear. Pitting a very talkative woman against a loud, bullying lawyer would make such a lawsuit a very "even thing." She would not dread him—a woman, when her blood is up, fears no one; and his scorn would only stimulate her to renewed efforts. In "woman cases" it has long been the custom of all eminent lawyers to make use of the woman in the case as far as possible, bringing her into court, melted in tears, or shaking with suppressed sobs, so as to move the soft-hearted jurymen. This machinery might be greatly reinforced by the aid of a lady counsel, ready to take her erring sister by the hand and make a final appeal to the jury on behalf of "all the hearts that would ache" if they should hang her.

The fact is generally overlooked by those who insist on woman's admission to the bar, that it seems to involve, as a necessary consequence, her being enrolled for jury duty. It would, in fact, be much easier to show to the satisfaction of a court that a woman is fit to perform jury duty than that she can stand the tremendous strain that advocacy sometimes entails. She would merely have to sit a few days out of the year, in a perfectly comfortable chair, and then consult with her fellow-jurors, and put pieces of paper with "Yes" or "No," "Guilty" or "Not guilty," into a hat or bonnet. There is no question that she is as able to sit for a few days in court as a man, for she frequently sits there for days together; and jury duty, as every one knows, requires no special training or qualification of any kind. The enforced silence might be a hardship, but then she would make up for this by magnificent opportunities for simultaneous conversation and argument in the jury-room. If woman's sphere has an infinite and indeterminable radius, it must include jury service. Indeed, it seems to us that really high-minded women ought to ask for jury duty. To

debar woman any longer from it (training her as it would for public life and the use of the ballot) must be wrong, at least if she is going to practise at the bar. Man would gladly yield a great part of this useful field to her.

A TERCENTENARY UNIVERSITY FESTIVAL IN SCOTLAND.

LONDON, April 25.

THE Scotch have just been holding a celebration of a kind which neither Scotland nor England has ever seen before, and which is sufficiently remarkable in itself, as well as exceptional in Britain, to deserve the notice of American readers. The University of Edinburgh, which, although she is the youngest, is the largest and most famous of the four Universities of Scotland, has been commemorating the three-hundredth anniversary of her foundation by a gathering of distinguished men from all parts of Europe, and, indeed, of the civilized world. Anniversary celebrations are a comparatively new thing in Great Britain, much less frequent than either on the Continent of Europe or in America; and they have been supposed not to suit the genius or habits of the English people, whose notions of a ceremonial occasion scarcely go beyond a heavy dinner, with long speeches. There have been no University ter- or sexcentenaries in England for another reason: that the two old Universities of Oxford and Cambridge grew up gradually, and do not know the date of their birth; while of the three recent Universities, one (Durham) is insignificant, another (that at Manchester) is but four years old, and the last (that of London) is only an examining board.

Scotland, where she differs from England, generally differs in being more like the rest of Europe than England is, and this character comes out in nothing more clearly than in her Universities. The three great ones—Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh—following the order of their date, are all placed in large cities, and have been associated with the daily life of the people in a way which was impossible to Oxford and Cambridge, where the towns are relatively small. Their students find their own quarters in lodgings wherever they please, while the great majority are, in Oxford and Cambridge, gathered into colleges in which a sort of semi-domestic life goes on. The instruction is given by University professors to large classes—classes sometimes three or four hundred in number; whereas in Oxford and Cambridge the main part still, and until lately the whole, of the teaching was supplied by the colleges through their tutors and lecturers. The students in the professional branches, such as theology, law, and medicine, but especially medicine, form a very large part of the total number in attendance, and employ a great many professors; whereas in Oxford and Cambridge professional schools barely exist, and are served by but a few teachers, nineteen-twentieths of the students seeking only to obtain instruction or degrees in arts. Education is cheap in the Scotch Universities, and still dear in those of England; and while the former have been long since freely open to students of any or no religious creed, the latter were till very recently restricted to members of the Established Episcopalian Church. Hence the Scotch Universities have had a practical and popular character which their wealthier, older, and statelier English sisters lacked, and have far more faithfully followed and reflected the tastes of the nation, and the tendencies as well as the needs of the time. The Scotch, moreover, have for the last three or four centuries cared more about education than the English. The typical Scottish youth has been poor, studious, industrious, ambitious; he has relied on his education to make his way in life, and he has gained so much by the cheapness and practical quality of his University teaching, that the whole nation has felt how largely its Universities have contributed to the position which this rugged little country has won in the world. All this made not only the city of Edinburgh, but Scotland at large, take an interest in the present celebration which England would not have taken in any similar commemoration at Oxford or Cambridge, and which surprised those Englishmen who came to assist at it.

The festivities extended over four days, and included a banquet, with speeches too many and too long; several receptions, a religious service, a meeting of the students, entertainments by public bodies, a torchlight procession, a solemn University meeting, in which delegates presented congratulatory messages and honorary degrees were conferred. As usually happens, the organizers tried to compress too many occasions of meeting into each day, and too many persons into one room. People parted a little fatigued, and having had, after all, no leisure to exchange ideas with those followers of their own studies whom they had chiefly desired to see. Nevertheless, there were at least three gatherings of rare and remarkable interest—the religious service, the conferring of degrees, and the students' meeting. The Scottish Universities, although all lay offices in them are now open to persons of all religious denominations, are substantially Presbyterian, not so much because the theological faculty is connected with the Established Presbyterian Church, as because the immense majority of the students, as of the Scotch people generally, belong to some one of the three great Presbyterian communions which divide Scotland. Now, Presbyterianism is a form of faith which does not readily lend itself to ceremonies or displays of any kind. It is as plain as plain can be, and, until this generation, used to pride itself upon its plainness, which was regarded as a relic and evidence of primitive Christian simplicity. No instrumental music; long extempore prayers; sermons delivered without notes; no architectural beauty—these were, during the last and earlier part of this century, the glories of Scotch Calvinism. Things have changed fast of late years. On this occasion the commemoration service was held in the ancient Church of St. Giles, in the High Street of Edinburgh, a little below that famous rock stronghold fortified by the Northumbrian King Edwin, under whose shadow the capital of Scotland has grown up. It was the cathedral church of the see in Roman Catholic days, and has now, after having been long deformed by ugly erections, and even partitioned off into three churches, been restored to its pristine beauty at an enormous cost. The service was conducted according to a printed form of prayer; the organ discoursed classical music; the choir chanted the *Te Deum*, probably never heard before in a Presbyterian church. As the long University procession, headed by the Chancellor, Rector, and Principal, each in gorgeous robes of office, with the graduates, the representatives of other Universities, the other distinguished visitors, and several of the Judges of the Court of Session and peers of Parliament, all wearing some academic or official dress, moved slowly up the aisle, to the places prepared for them, the spectacle was one which evidently delighted the Presbyterian congregation as much as it would have horrified their grandparents sixty years ago.

The meeting on the day following, when the delegates from other Universities were received by the Chancellor and Rector, in the presence of an immense throng, and presented the congratulatory addresses which these bodies had sent by them to the University of Edinburgh, was even more striking. More than forty Universities, and nearly as many other learned bodies, were represented, including not only the great schools of the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, and the Low Countries, but also of Scandinavia, Russia, Hungary, Spain, the United States and Canada, Chili and Brazil, India, New Zealand, Australia, and Japan. After these addresses had been handed in, more than one hundred and twenty persons of eminence were successively presented for honorary degrees—persons among whom there were more names of European fame than were perhaps ever gathered together before in one room. Among the Frenchmen and Belgians there appeared Pasteur, Caro, Pressensé, Ferdinand de Lesseps, Émile de Laveleye; among Germans, Helmholtz and Virchow; among Russians, Martens; among Italians, Aurelio Saffi, once triumvir of Rome, and Pasquale Villari. From the English-speaking countries also there came many distinguished figures, perhaps the warmest welcomes of applause being given to Mr. James Russell Lowell and Mr. Robert Browning. Tennyson and Ranke, being unable to attend, received degrees *in absentia*. The sight of the faces of so many men whose books and fame they knew, roused the students to an enthusiasm unusual even in Scotland, whose youth are more demonstrative than the English; and the impressiveness of the scene was enhanced by the extraordinary variety of dresses, academical and official, in which the visitors were arrayed. All the colors of the rainbow were displayed in the gowns and hoods, while the Russian delegates wore a gorgeous semi-military uniform, the representatives of the French Academy their green palm-embroidered coats, and other Frenchmen strange costumes of the days of the First Empire. Even more interesting was the meeting at which the students, who had created from among themselves a representative council to make arrangements, invited some of the most distinguished guests to address them: Virchow, Pasteur, Lesseps, Laveleye spoke in German and French respectively; Helmholtz, Saffi, and the Dutch poet and theologian Beets ventured into English. Mr. Lowell gave a short address, and Robert Browning, who is usually most unwilling to make any public appearance, was compelled by the shouts of the meeting to break his silence and respond to their fervent greetings. Perhaps the most important of the speeches was that in which Virchow criticised the Darwinian theory, and defined his own position towards it; and though it was more a lecture than a speech, it interested those who could follow it as a specimen of the style in which an eloquent German professor can light up difficult subjects by the force of his oratory.

Out of the many reflections which the festival seemed to suggest to the English visitors, I will mention a few only. The most obvious was the popular and national character of the whole celebration. The University, instead of being a possession of the upper classes and the Established Church, like Cambridge or Oxford, was evidently the creation and the minister of the whole people, pervaded by that feeling of nationality which is still so strong in Scotland. The townsfolk of Edinburgh seemed to feel it to belong as much to them as to the professors. This might, perhaps, have been observed in Scandinavia or in Germany no less. But there was also a sort of religious character about the occasion which it would have wanted in Germany, and which excited the admiration of the Italian Saffi, who sadly contrasted the friendliness of all sects and classes with the bitterness which in

Catholic countries separated the clerical party from the leading spirits of the Universities. Yet so far from theology or even letters holding the foremost place at the celebration, it was chiefly natural science that was glorified, and the scientific men who bore away the palm of applause and curiosity. Edinburgh has been latterly, above all things, a great school of medicine, and this has given a scientific turn to the tastes of its students, and made physicists and physiologists their chief heroes. Philology, theology, law, and economics were represented among the visitors by very few names so eminent as those of the scientific men, nor did these literary names appear to be quite as familiar to the audiences. Lastly, it was impossible not to be struck by the fact that the Continental visitors seemed far more at home in Scotland and a Scotch university than they would have been in England. Scotland, although she lies remote among her northern seas, is much more truly a part of the general European commonwealth than England is. She has not so many peculiar institutions and habits of thought, and when her children travel or settle abroad they adapt themselves far more readily to the habits, and sooner enter into the ideas, of a foreign people.

Y.

BISMARCK'S STRUGGLE WITH THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, April 21.

IT is rather difficult to characterize our present political situation. To express it in a few words, it means that Prince Bismarck is desirous of a conflict, and strains every nerve to bring it about. One sinister rumor after another is afloat, one stupid statement follows another, and, moreover, there are plenty of people—the Merchants' Exchange at the head of them—who believe in all this nonsense detailed in the newspapers every morning. The consequence, of course, is a general bewilderment and confusion.

Like the Uhlans, who, during the last war, raised as much dust as they could, in order to conceal the real position and direction of the main body of the army, the reptiles of our press are ordered to publish dozens of conflicting reports for the sole purpose of hiding the real aims of the powerful Chancellor. Public opinion is so demoralized that it blindly accepts his dictates, even adoring them and bowing to them as destiny or fate. It is as if the "ruere in servitium" of Tiberian Rome were to find a parallel with us. The newspapers speak of his brother ministers as if they were his subordinates, and call them either *personas gratas* or *ingratas*. The other day, when Bismarck rode through the Thiergarten, I myself saw ladies and gentlemen facing about and saluting him like the old Emperor. A few years ago he was simply called by his family name; now men of standing and independent position speak of him as "His Highness," or "the Prince," or even "He." People whom he occasionally accosts on his way seldom fail to report the great event to the newspapers, and find a welcome in their columns. A prominent political writer conceived the idea of classifying the criminal prosecutions of offences against Bismarck. He stopped short, however, in his work when he found out that these prosecutions were all instituted according to four printed blanks drawn up by Bismarck, and that although numbering about 400, they were all alike, and consequently would have wearied the reader. The future historian of the nineteenth century will call its latter half the Napoleonic-Bismarckian era. Both men, Louis and the Chancellor, it will be said, worked with the same means for the same end; both tried to subject the world to their arbitrary rule by appealing to the lowest passions of men, and they attained their object by temporary expedients. They played with men like chess pieces, destroying any political harmony and party if not exactly serving their ends, in order to rule alone and supreme. There is no noble trait in their policy, and even Bismarck's great past services and grand merits are overshadowed by his arbitrary will and autocratic rule.

He is at present looking out for a good pretext for dissolving the Reichstag. An eminently practical man, with a rare intuition, he strikes a vein which promises him sure success. He demoralizes his political antagonists before the battle commences, and thus the more easily defeats them. No better pretext could he have found than the prolongation of the exceptional law against the Social Democrats. "Look at the venerable old Emperor," the Sentimentalists of all shades and the doughfaces in politics continually repeat, "who has deserved so nobly of his country, and who will be exposed again to the murderous attempts of the Socialists if the Liberals do not vote for Bismarck's measure. Out of party spite the Opposition is ready to sacrifice the most valuable life in the whole country." Such nonsense has the desired effect, and Bismarck fructifies it by declaring that he will dissolve the Reichstag if it does not vote unconditionally for the prolongation of the law. The Conservatives are willing to do so; the National Liberals, reduced to only forty members, have already been frightened into the humblest submission. The new Liberals are not yet and will not be unanimous in their vote, and only a majority of them will reject the measure. The smaller fractions, as, the Social Democrats, the Poles, the People's party, and the Alsatians, will, of course, likewise oppose the bill. Of the Liberals, the historian Mommsen wants to have it limited and amended instead of doing away with it without any restriction; but even he is willing to vote for the prolongation, as in so momentous a question as the dissolution of the Reichstag it does not suffice to be right: one should have the full appearance of being in the right. So he considers the continuation of the exceptional state of things as the lesser of two evils. No doubt other independent and conscientious members, from strategical points of view, will arrive at the same conclusion, but in my opinion they are mistaken. If the majority of the Reichstag follow the views and advice of Professor Mommsen, Bismarck in a very short time, after having been baffled in his present plan, will come out with a new scheme, and make his humiliated opponents swallow a still bitterer pill. He has no time to lose. Having failed to create anything new or stable in the field of social legislation, he must, with his restless mind, turn to extraordinary measures, to economic sorcery and miracles.

The men who have been and are working with him do not believe any more in good results emanating from wrong principles. The final decision, however, of the pending Anti-Socialistic Bill depends on the Centre, which at present, in order to get more concessions from the Government, fights it more bitterly than ever before. But in the present instance Bismarck does not care for the support of the Ultramontanes. On the contrary, he will be glad to be opposed by them, for if they vote for him, the bill in all probability will be carried, and that is exactly the thing which the Chancellor does not want, as he will not be able to find a more suitable pretext for getting rid of the present Opposition. What he really is driving at can easily be guessed from his occasional remarks and the comments of the officious press: he still wants to carry the tobacco monopoly and the doubling if not trebling of the duty on timber, corn, and wheat. A political loss or defeat can always be made good, while the consequences of such economical experiments, if remediable at all, are fraught with untold misery and ruin. In the meantime, Bismarck tries to discredit the tendencies of the new Liberal party as hostile to the reserved rights of the single States. In doing so he, of course, joins the centrifugal current, the strengthening of which forms the chief aim of the smaller sovereigns. The Liberals have inserted an article in their platform which demands imperial ministers to be made responsible to the Reichstag. Although this demand is a natural consequence of the organic development of the Constitution, and although as early as 1867 the National Liberals and Free Conservatives, headed by the late lamented C. Twesten and by Count Münster (our present ambassador in London), had, with Bismarck's consent, introduced a motion to this effect, now the same measure is branded as an attack on State rights, and as a kind of high treason against the legal basis of the Empire. The Bundesrath most cheerfully received this new proof of the Chancellor's paternal care for the welfare and peace of the high allies, and so eagerly availed themselves of his important concession that they at once unanimously voted their thanks.

I cannot take Bismarck's threatened withdrawal from the Cabinet as serious. The Emperor has put off his decision, as might have been anticipated, and will finally reject the demand. The Chancellor wanted to kill two birds with one stone. He had to exert a pressure on the National Liberals as well as on the Government and the Conservatives, and to intimidate them into his unconditional support. This end he has reached; the latter will, in the approaching elections, strictly execute his orders or disappear from the political scene.

In the game of bluff, Rome at present holds the trumps. The priest who stood longest in the way of a compromise satisfactory to the Prussian Government—Archbishop Ledochowski, of Posen, for the last year a member of the Papal household—has offered his resignation to Leo XIII. Thus far the latter has refused to accept it, for the evident reason that he desires to make as much political capital out of it as possible. His demands will, of course, not be modest, but calculated to make Bismarck reject them. The Pope can afford to wait. A refusal to come to terms at present will not hurt him, for he knows that he will ultimately succeed. At all events, he will have proved his peaceful disposition to the world at large and to the Roman Catholics of Germany in particular. This bidding high and low between the two antagonists is as undisguised as possible, and wholly unworthy of so great a Power as the German Empire. Let me, finally, state that all rumors of a Ministerial crisis are without foundation. Bismarck flatters the "outs," but is far from turning the "ins" out, who thus far have worked to the full satisfaction of their boss.

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Correspondence.

MENDACIOUS PERSONAL GOSSIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Considering the deference in thought and conduct shown toward women in this country, perhaps the most malicious story set afloat in connection with the recent visit of Mr. Matthew Arnold is that for which a respectable Boston weekly journal made itself responsible, namely: that Mr. Arnold, from the vantage ground of a seat in a street-car in that city,

entered into conversation with a lady swinging by a strap in front of him, and, having inquired of her the location of the Hotel Vendome, promised her his seat when he should leave the car.

Mr. Arnold's attention having been called to this particularly spiteful publication, he replies, under date of April 18, as follows:

"The incident is a fabrication; but why give things of this kind importance by noticing them?"

The query accompanying the denial would indicate that Mr. Arnold does not quite understand us yet. Would it be subjecting him to further castigation to make a further quotation from his letter?

"Mendacious personal gossip is the bane of American journalism." ***

WASHINGTON, April 30, 1884.

PROTECTION OF AMERICAN ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be due to my comparative ignorance of high-tariff literature, but I cannot help regarding the *American Protectionist* as a unique publication. Its editor is a brilliant specimen of the class to which the woman belonged whose husband claimed that he had the most even-tempered wife in the world—she was always mad. While he may be a most amiable person in his social relations, an examination of some twenty numbers of his periodical affords sufficient evidence of the fact that, when he writes upon his chosen theme, he is always "in high dudgeon." Here is a specimen of high-tariff rhetoric, taken from the issue of April 8, which is sufficiently precious, I think, to be put before your readers. Speaking of the duty on works of art, the editor says:

"The advocates of the foreign-art policy—of foreign artists, foreign art, and foreign schools; the dudean critics of the New York press; the 'slap-dash' impressionists; the queer, kinky, wild-eyed students; the eccentric cranks of the pencil, brush, and modelling tool; the silent, nondescript draftsmen of the illustrated papers, all cry aloud for 'free art.' Then add to these enemies of the fine art and artists the millionaire; he wants to add to his collection and wait for a rise. Then last, and worst of all, is the unnaturalized art dealer, who wishes to sell only foreign works; who has a private salesroom, which he uses to abuse American art and artists, to tell his patrons that 'Nobody buys American pictures now,' etc. . . . These are the people, with a few honest exceptions, who are trying to make the Committee on Ways and Means in Congress believe that they represent the artists and the friends of art in America. Bosh! They represent American artists just about as much as the Territory of Utah represents the States of the American Union."

Verily, your artists and dealers in works of art must be "a queer lot," as the devil is said to have remarked about the Ten Commandments. It would doubtless be impossible to duplicate the collection from any other profession, if this description is any approach to accuracy. In the above representative quotation we have the employment, with a vengeance, of the maxim said to be current among the legal profession: "If you have a bad case, try to divert the jury from the main issue by abusing the opposing counsel." Can it be possible that anybody expects to make converts by such preaching? If this is the method of the high-tariff advocates, no wonder free-trade doctrines are gaining ground. No more effective propaganda could be made among thinking people than to put into their hands such arguments—it is a perversion of language to call them arguments; but its effect would not be what its authors intended. C. W. S.

ATHENS, O., April 28, 1884.

A LIBEL SUIT IN CYPRUS.

AN DEN HERRN HERAUSGEBER DER NATION:

SEHR GEEHRTER HERR: Sie werden mich verpflichten wenn Sie diesen Brief, sowie zwei Artikel des Cyprus *Herald* (einer vom 6ten October 1883, und ein anderer vom 24ten März 1884) baldmöglichst abdrucken. Daraus erhellt, dass Colonel L. P. di Cesnola mich zu verklagen beabsichtigt, zu welchem Vorhaben ich ihm den besten Erfolg wünsche. Nur fürchte ich, er (L P. di Cesnola) dürfte leicht auf Cypern verlieren was er in New York scheinbar gewonnen hat, oder gewonnen zu haben glaubt. Ich meinerseits bin vollkommen im Stande Punkt für Punkt das zu beweisen, was ich in meinem Artikel (Cyprus *Herald*, 6ten October 1883) aussprach. Ich begreife nicht wie nur Colonel L. P. di Cesnola so aufgebracht gegen mich sein kann. Im Gegentheil! Er sollte mir dankbar sein, da ich ihm die Wahrheit sage.

Nach dem heute auf Cypern unter England bestehenden Gesetz habe ich als Angeklagter das Recht den Kläger persönlich als Hauptzeugen herbeizurufen. Ich werde mir natürlich nicht das Vergnügen versagen, den tapferen Colonel persönlich kennen zu lernen und noch dazu auf Cypern, seinem Felde so anstrengender Thätigkeit während zehn Jahren. Hoffentlich wird das Vergnügen des miteinander-persönlich-Bekanntwerdens ein gegenseitiges sein. Wir können dann hier "con amore" (wie man auf Italienisch sagt) auf dem Eiland der Aphrodite von Golgos und Paphos und Idalion aber zugleich vor dem englischen Untersuchungsrichter (etwas prosaisch, aber praktisch) die Waffen kreuzen, und dieser englische Richter wird dann zu entscheiden haben, ob ich ein Recht hatte im Cyprus *Herald* (6ten October 1883) zu schreiben wie ich schrieb.

Einen grossen Fehler freilich habe ich an dem Ende jenes Artikels begangen. Wenn ich in diesem einen Punkte geirrt habe, so thut mir das ausserordentlich leid, und bitte ich den Colonel L. P. di Cesnola fussfällig um Verzeihung, zerknirscht wie ein echter Büsser. Ich habe nämlich in jenem Artikel der Hoffnung Raum gegeben, der wackere Herr G. L. Feuardent würde schon in erster Instanz seinen Process gegen L. P. di Cesnola gewinnen. Das war ein Fehler von mir, ein ganz grober Fehler. Alle übrigen Punkte aber, welche ich in jenem Artikel andeutete oder ausführlicher besprach, kann ich nur als wahr bezeichnen.

Nicht ist zu leugnen, dass auch viele Fehler von den Herren G. L. Feuardent, Cl. Cook und ihren Freunden begangen worden sind. Sie haben neben vielen erwiesenen Wahrheiten viele Dinge von L. P. di Cesnola behauptet, die sie entweder nicht beweisen konnten, oder die von Cesnola und der Gegenpartei als evident irrthümlich bewiesen werden konnten. Diese Punkte sind dann von dem geschickten Advocaten Herrn Choate zu Gunsten seines Clienten ausgenutzt worden. Immer werden wir besonders Herrn G. Feuardent zum grössten Danke verpflichtet bleiben, im Interesse von Licht und Wahrheit eine—und in diesem Falle die erste—Lanze gebrochen zu haben. Ich hoffe bestimmt, es wird nicht die letzte gewesen sein; und die zweite des Herrn Feuardent wird den Herrn L. P. di Cesnola so aus dem Sattel heben, wie es die treffliche Illustration im *Life* (New York, January 3, 1884; page 8 and 9) darstellte, aber für immer und ewig!—Das walte Gott im Interesse der wahren Wissenschaft und Alterthumskunde.

Hochachtungsvoll ergebenst,

MAX OHNEFALSCH-RICHTER.

DORF EPISKOPI, beim alten Curium,
29ten März 1884.

[We subjoin a translation of the above. The articles referred to deny the existence of a "Treasury of Curium," and hence attack the authenticity of the jewelry in the Cesnola collection ascribed to that source.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You will oblige me by an early publication of this letter, as well as of two articles in the Cyprus *Herald* (October 6, 1883, March 24, 1884). They show that Col. L. P. di Cesnola intends to bring suit against me, in which undertaking I wish him the greatest success. I only fear that he may easily lose in Cyprus what he apparently won in New York, or thinks he won. For my part, I am quite able to prove every assertion made in my article in the Cyprus *Herald* of October 6, 1883. I do not understand how Col. L. P. di Cesnola can be so angry with me. He should, on the contrary, be grateful to me for telling him the truth.

In accordance with the existing law in Cyprus, under English rule, I have the right as defendant to summon the plaintiff personally, as principal witness. Of course I shall not deny myself the pleasure of making the acquaintance of the brave Colonel, and that, too, in Cyprus, the field of his so arduous labors during ten years. I hope that this pleasure will be mutual. In a somewhat prosaic but practical manner, we may then cross our weapons *con amore* (as the Italians say) on the island of Aphrodite of Golgos and Paphos and Idalion, but at the same time in presence of the English commissioner, who will then have to decide whether I was justified in making the statements that appeared in the Cyprus *Herald* October 6, 1883.

One great error, indeed, crept into that article at the end. If I erred in this one point, I am extremely sorry and beg Col. L. P. di Cesnola's pardon on my knees, with all the contrition of a genuine sinner. In that article I expressed the hope that the worthy Mr. G. L. Feuardent would win his suit in the first instance against L. P. di Cesnola. That was an error on my part—a gross error. But as for all the other points which I hinted at or discussed in detail in that article, I must insist on their truthfulness.

It cannot be denied that many errors were made also by Messrs. G. L. Feuardent, Clarence Cook, and their friends. Along with many proved truths, they asserted many things in regard to L P. di Cesnola which they could not prove, or of which the incorrectness could be proved by Cesnola and the opposite party. These points were then made use of by the clever lawyer, Mr. Choate, in favor of his client. We shall always be specially indebted to Mr. G. Feuardent for having broken the first lance in behalf of enlightenment and truth. I ardently hope it will not be the last, and that Mr. Feuardent's second attack will throw Mr. L. P. di Cesnola out of his saddle, as so well represented in *Life* (New York, January 3, 1884), but permanently! May God grant this in the interest of science and of archæology.—Respectfully,

MAX OHNEFALSCH RICHTER.

EPISKOPI, near ancient Curium,
March 29, 1884.

Notes.

DR. RICHARD T. ELY, of the Johns Hopkins Seminary of Historical and Political Science, Baltimore, is engaged upon a 'History of Political Economy in the United States,' in conjunction with two members of his advanced class. He will be obliged for any books, pamphlets, brochures, magazine articles, speeches, etc., which may be of assistance in this undertaking. These may be sent to the address above given.

In that excellent paper, the Chicago *Dial*, for May (now entering, by the way, on its fifth year), announcement is made that the first supplement to Poole's 'Index to Periodical Literature' for 1882–83 is ready to be put to press as soon as 300 copies are subscribed for. At this rate, the cost per copy will be about $6 50; and subscribers will get the benefit pro rata of any increase in the edition, as there is no question of anything but covering the expense of manufacture. It is expected that $3 will prove the maximum cost. To Dr. W. F. Poole, of the Chicago Public Library, subscriptions should be sent as early as possible. Hereafter, annual supplements will be attempted.

Macmillan & Co. will publish immediately 'Reflections in Palestine,' a mystical compilation from letters written by General Gordon during his recent sojourn in the Holy Land.

The articles in which Professor Jebb has discussed various aspects of the question of the site of Homeric Troy and Dr. Schliemann's claim to have discovered it, which have appeared in the *Edinburgh Review*, the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, the *Fortnightly Review*, and elsewhere, are about to be collected into a volume, and will be published by Chapman & Hall in the course of the summer.

A new book of travel, 'At Home in Italy,' by Mrs. E. D. R. Bianciardi; 'Summer,' a new volume derived from the journals of Thoreau; and 'The Fate of Mansfield Humphreys,' by Richard Grant White, are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, will publish 'A Boy's Workshop,' a practical book of instruction, with illustrations.

R. Worthington, New York, has purchased the remainder of the edition of Commander Gorringe's costly and most interesting work on 'Egyptian Obelisks,' and will put it upon the market at about half the subscription price.

The third volume in the series of 'Stories by American Authors' (Chas. Scribner's Sons) contains short tales by Fitz James O'Brien, Mrs. Burnett, G. P. Lathrop, David D Lloyd, Celia Thaxter, and Brander Matthews.

An English translation of Daryl's 'La Vie Publique en Angleterre' has been made by Henry Frith, under the author's supervision ('Public Life in England'; New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons). We have so recently reviewed the original edition that it is only necessary to say here that its minor errors have been eliminated.

Busch's 'Our Chancellor' has been translated by William Beatty-Kingston, and the two volumes rolled into a single very comely one (Charles Scribner's Sons). The pagination of each volume has been preserved, the total number being about 700 pages.

Mr. Stephen Fiske's modest contribution to "Men of the Time," called 'Off-hand Portraits' (George R. Lockwood & Son), deals with the impresarios, "statesmen," financiers, lawyers, journalists, actors, clergymen, inventors, etc., of this State, and more especially of this metropolis. Useful as it is, in a certain way, its publication will be thought premature by one who reads the glowing anticipations of Mr. Abbey's recent unfortunate experiment with the Metropolitan Opera-house; or the untimely reference to Conkling's political destruction of Blaine, who, whatever may be thought of his prospects at Chicago or at the November polls, is certainly a much livelier corpse than the Sage of Utica.

Sir S. W. Baker's two great works on the Nile sources and tributaries have been boiled down into less than three hundred pages duodecimo, and published under the caption 'In the Heart of Africa' (Funk & Wagnalls). This epitome could hardly fail to be interesting, but the reader will obtain anything but a clear idea of the main expeditions or of the chronological sequence of events. There is no map.

To their "Classics for Children" Ginn, Heath & Co. have added 'Quentin Durward,' expressly edited by Miss Yonge, who furnishes a lucid introduction, foot-notes, and appendices.

There are some good things in the "Parchment Paper" selection of *vers de société*, 'The Parlor Muse' (D. Appleton & Co.), but the editor has not been very discriminating, and the result is rather dreary as a whole.

The April number of *Appalachia* (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth) worthily completes the third volume, its contents being uniformly of a high excellence, and the embellishments embracing two photographic views taken in an ascent of Mt. Adams last winter on snow-shoes. The example of the Appalachian Society has, as was to be expected, excited a desire in other parts of the country to effect a similar organization—in Tennessee, naturally, and even in New Mexico.

Another periodical which, in the land of ice and granite, is engaged in fostering a love of outdoor life, is *Outing and the Wheelman*, now in its fourth volume, and already one of the handsomest of American magazines (175 Tremont Street, Boston). The May number is a very favorable specimen, and while the bicycle has perhaps a prior claim on its space, fishing, yachting, canoeing, and all invigorating sports are looked after. The review department is well conducted, and the illustrations are abundant, and, as in the present number, often exceptionally good work.

The *Bay State Monthly*, too, appears to hold its own, and we should call the May number (Vol. i., No. 5) quite the best that has yet appeared. It opens with a biographical sketch of President Arthur, by Ben. Perley Poore.

"Slavery in the Colony and State of New York" is the subject of a careful and very interesting article in the May number of the *Magazine of American History*, by Mr. Frederic G. Mather. The course of emancipation in the other Northern States of the old thirteen is also briefly indicated by this writer. Mr. James P. Baxter's paper on the great seal of the Council for New England, with an illustration, seems to dispose of the hitherto accepted identification of it with the arms printed on the reverse of the title-page of Captain John Smith's 'Generall Historie' of 1631.

The first number of the lately announced monthly *Bulletin of Massachusetts Natural History* (Amherst, Mass.) is before us. It is a modest octavo of sixteen pages. The purpose of its projectors is laudable, and we have no doubt it will be a useful addition to the minor scientific periodicals. The English of the writers needs a sharper revision, for we have met with such queer expressions as, "all the *sang froid* which we are capable of *exerting*," and "we take their word at once rather [than] to *impinge* the character of an Audubon," etc.

The *Archives of Pediatrics*, the only journal in the English language devoted exclusively to children's diseases, has been transferred to John E. Potter & Co., who will issue it from their New York office.

The *English Illustrated Magazine* for May (Macmillan) shows a noteworthy improvement in the illustrations over those of any previous number. The quality of the American wood-cutting, and the delicacy of the printing of the same, so long the distinction of our illustrated monthlies, is very nearly approached by the cuts which illustrate "A Woman's Keepsake," after drawings by Alfred Parsons.

The *Antiquary* for April (J. W. Bouton) is a number of unusual interest. An article upon the House of Lords, by Mr. James Gairdner, is the second part to Mr. Gomme's article with the same title in the February number. Mr. Gomme treated of "its origin," Mr. Gairdner treats of "its functions." This article possesses especial importance, because it deals principally with the period of the fifteenth century, which Mr. Gairdner has made peculiarly his own, and, moreover, because it goes counter to the accepted views upon the subject of the powers of Parliament. In a review, in the *Academy*, of Canon Stubbs's third volume, Mr. Gairdner expressed a qualified dissent from Stubbs's opinions on this head, and the present article continues the discussion more in detail. The conclusion reached is that, down to the time of the Tudors, the Lords "were the highest legal tribunal and the sole real legislative body." Another article of great value is by Mr. Gomme, upon "The Old Land-Rights of Municipal Corporations." This is to be continued, and it is enough to say here that it is in Mr. Gomme's special line of research, and aims to illustrate the growth of municipal institutions out of those of the village community. Besides these very solid articles we have the usual variety of interesting papers upon points of archæology and manners and customs—Cheapside, Piccadilly, Fairloss Fair, Walton & Cotton's Fishing House, Palæolithic Remains in Surrey, and Monumental Brasses of Cambridgeshire.

"British Interests" in Africa form the ninety-fourth topic in Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for April; the ninety-fifth being Tyler's Administration, in the important series which has so far exhausted the Presidencies.

Mr. Aldrich's 'Story of a Bad Boy' has been translated into French, with the author's consent, by Th. Bentzon, under the neutral title of 'Un Écolier Américain.'

The leading article in *Le Livre* for April is the second of two on German caricature contributed by M. John Grand-Carteret. This deals exclusively with the Southern or Munich school in a spirit of perfect sympathy and appreciation, and in a philosophic vein of contrast with the Northern school, already discussed. One cannot complain of the writer's Southern bias as political, even if there is to be read between the lines a certain pleasure on finding the Prussian humor inferior to the Bavarian. The Bavarians did their share of the fighting in 1880-81. M. Grand-Carteret contents himself with a bare mention of Wilhelm Busch, to whom he purposes devoting an entire article at some future time—a distinction which will appear to some excessive. He has also in reserve a paper on Austrian caricature. As all these, like the one to which we are speaking, will be freely illustrated, they will be worth looking forward to.

The Société de l'Histoire de l'Art Français has just added to its series of publications the fifth volume of the 'Procès-verbaux de l'Académie Royale de Peinture et de Sculpture, 1648-1793,' and 'L'État-civil des Peintres et Sculpteurs de l'Académie Royale; Billes d'enterrement de 1648 à 1713.' For the same collection M. de Chennevières is to edit the correspondence of Nicholas Poussin, and M. de Montaiglon the works of Bernard Palissy, both of which will, it is expected, add much new material to the history of French art.

A very concise and brief, but within its scope comprehensive, grammar of post-Biblical Hebrew ('Grammatik der neuhebräischen Sprache') has been issued by Professor Siegfried, of the University of Jena. It is chiefly devoted to the language of the Mishnah and the Midrashim. Connected with it is a bibliography of post-Biblical Hebrew literature ('Bibliographischer Abriss der neuhebräischen Litteratur'), by Professor Strack, of the University of Berlin, the two treatises together forming the first and second

parts of a 'Lehrbuch der neuhebräischen Sprache und Litteratur' (Karlsruhe and Leipzig, 1884; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). A chrestomathy and glossary are to form the third part. Strack's contribution occupies less than one-third of the little volume, and is, to say the least, very fragmentary; but its enlargement into a comparatively complete work is promised, in case the present joint publication should meet with success, which it fully deserves.

The new German Empire's *Culturkampf* against the supporters of Papal pretensions has given rise to a large number of writings on the *Investiturstreit* which raged between the German Emperors and the Popes in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The history of that memorable contest over hierarchical investiture, during which the Emperor Henry IV. was compelled to do most humiliating penance, at Canossa, before Pope Gregory VII., was, perhaps, never studied more diligently than it has been since Bismarck told his Ultramontane opponents that they might rest assured he would never go to Canossa. Among the more learned contributions to the history of that period is Dr. M. F. Stern's 'Zur Biographie des Papstes Urban's II.' (Berlin, 1883), a sketch which places the abilities of that champion of Papal supremacy over the secular authority and of Christianity against Islam almost on a level with those of Gregory VII. Among the points now said to be completely settled by the investigations of Sybel, Kugler, and Hagenmeyer is, that Urban II. was the real initiator of the first crusade, and that the story of Peter the Hermit having been his precursor in that enterprise, which gave so lasting a new direction to the course of universal history, is a myth.

—Mr. Samuel Bancroft, jr., writes us from Wilmington, Del.:

"I would call the attention of your reviewer of 'The New English Dictionary,' in his notice of the use of 'Album' in the American and English senses, to the title of Browning's 'Inn Album' as an instance of the use of the word as a 'visitors' book' in England. I have never happened to meet with it in this country in that sense, but have always been used to thinking that it was regular English usage so to employ it."

— Mr. Julian Hawthorne's account of "The Salem of Hawthorne," in the May *Century*, seems to have attracted a good deal of attention in Massachusetts, where the illustrations are alleged to be devoid of local character. They certainly do not recall Salem very definitely, and many of them might be used to illustrate other articles than this. The fact is, that idealizing a scene illustrating Hawthorne or his works or life is open to serious objections as a matter of taste. Hawthorne himself idealized everything he touched, and for illustrations we do not want the idealization of some new hand, however clever, but the plain hard facts of New England life which the golden light of his imagination transfigured for us. To our mind, to be sure, the 'Blithedale Romance' or the 'Scarlet Letter' could hardly be illustrated at all, and the same thing is true of many of his other books. Salem, if given at all, might be given pretty literally. The essay is the best piece of writing which we have seen from Mr. Julian Hawthorne's hand, and begins with a mention of the curious fact that his father constantly missed his way in walking:

"This trait, or deficiency, is not without its reflection in his writings. It is of small importance to him what the topography of his story may be —whether his house faces north or south, whether his street turns to the right or to the left. He is willing to let these and analogous matters take care of themselves; and herein he differs markedly from the great French novelist Balzac, who wrote by the map and the rule, and who always knew precisely the income of all his people, and from what investments it was derived. On the other hand, the American possessed, to quite as great a degree as the Frenchman, the perception of the picturesque: his light and shadow, his color and atmosphere, have never been surpassed. But he shunned rather than sought to make his outlines and directions correspond too closely with palpable reality. The intensity with which he could convey the feeling of a place, a character, or a situation, was almost in inverse ratio to its literal resemblance to any material prototype; he was essentially a romancer, and the world of his imagination was like the material world only as the mind of man is like his body: a spiritual world of types, elements, and harmonies, rather than a physical world of accidents, individuals, and technicalities. When I was lately visiting the scenes of his stories, I was impressed by nothing more than by the manner in which he had contrived to escape from the rigid flesh and blood of his scenes, and to make everything plastic and significant, while fully preserving and indeed intensifying the spirit and sentiment which the scenes embodied. The subtle, artistic balance and structure of his compositions would have been distorted by the intrusion of photographic facts."

This is well put; but it must not be forgotten that Hawthorne was, as his "note-books" show, a close observer of nature, and his most imaginative and un-local descriptions were founded on the most minute photographic studies. Mr. Thomas Hughes writes an article on Trades-Unionism in England, and takes a characteristically cheerful view of this development of the labor movement. Trades-unions as we know them in this country would not, perhaps, give him so much reason for satisfaction.

—*Harper's* contains a very pleasant account of the Holy City of Kairwan, the Mecca of Africa, with numerous illustrations, by A. F. Jacassy. The picture given of African life does not contain many new features. In Tunis, as in other parts of the continent, we find a corrupt government, a degraded agricultural class, a juridical religion, a retarded and monotonous civilization, utterly different from anything known in any other part of the world, except Asia. The Kairwanese women—and it is in the position of woman, after all, that we find the key of any civilization—have no recreation or amusement except coloring their bodies with white and their lips with red, loading themselves with rich garments and jewels, and then going to sleep. The richest women, of course, get the longest naps; the poor look upon the stupor of sleep as the greatest luxury in life. A lady brings in the market as much as a hundred dollars; an ordinary woman, only twenty—the difference in price depending on the difference in social position. The priests lay down the law, and the judge sells it; the result being not what we should call justice, but not so far removed from it as, judging from what such a system would produce elsewhere, we should infer.

— *Lippincott's* also has its African article—the diary of "the last European who rode through the desert from Berber to Suakim." He was, it seems, Col. the Hon. J. Colborne, of Hicks Pasha's staff. The notes of his journey give a vivid idea of the nature of the country, and of the extraordinary difficulties likely to attend any management of a campaign in the Egyptian desert, by English statesmen, at a distance of several thousand miles. One or two quotations from the diary will show what it is:

"The next morning we entered the howling wilderness. Our way lay across a barren plain of reddish sand and grit; the pale, sickly, yellowish-gray weeds became more sparse, and soon disappeared. These had been preceded by scanty patches of reed-grass, and occasional thorny mimosa. Now not a blade of vegetation was to be seen. We halted at a point where this plain merges into a bewildering maze of shifting sand-hills, utterly desolate. I was glad to quit my *angareb* and the back of my camel, as I had been in torture the whole day, and the soft sand formed a delightful bed. So thankful was I to be rid of the nauseous jolting that I looked with kindly eyes even on this unlovely spot—unlovely, perhaps, but sublime and impressive as stupendous loneliness and vast space could make it. . . .

"The next morning we began the passage of the loose sand dunes above mentioned, the most painful and perilous portion of the two hundred and eighty miles of desert between Berber and the Red Sea. The camels labored through the yielding sand, sinking under their feet at every step. On this day the mirage was intensely real. Before me lay a lake, its blue waters laughing in the sun, studded with gem-like islets clad with verdure, and bordered by castles, high turrets, and battlements, and again by gleaming villages and smiling hamlets, the whole scene fairy-like in its beauty, and a painful contrast to the arid sand and fierce heat and consuming thirst from which I was suffering. It is in vain that one rubs one's eyes, and seeks to disabuse one's self of the illusion. The thing is there, undeniably, apparently solid and tangible; you know it is mocking you like an *ignis-fatuus*, but the most accurate knowledge of the physical laws which govern the phenomenon will not brush it away from the retina. There is small wonder that the ignorant and inexperienced should have frequently yielded to the delusion. Life is the price paid for such a mistake. Some years ago a company of soldiers perished from thirst in this region. Disregarding the warning of their guides, the poor fellows, fresh from Egypt, and mad with thirst, broke from the ranks and rushed toward the seeming lakes of transparent water which was presented to their eyes on all sides. They pressed on eagerly toward the ever receding phantasm, and one by one fell prostrate to leave their bones to bleach on the sand. . . .

"Later in the day the sky assumed a grayish tint, then a deep yellow, and the sun became darkened and appeared as a blood-red disk. I perceived a cloud of sand rolling up from the west. With a roar it was upon us, and I had to bury my face in my *burnous* to shield it from the cutting particles of sand. The camels floundered about, blind and helpless: the Arabs howled and cried 'Abdallah!'—the whole caravan was in a state of confusion. What track there had been previously was obliterated. The drivers had lost their way, and there was the ugly fact of our water being very limited in quantity; and water in the desert means life."

—Harper & Brothers have made a fresh imprint from the plates of their seven-volume edition of Coleridge of 1853. The interval is a long one, and, in obedience to the changed view of the bookbuyer as to what makes a complete book or series, the publishers have added to the last volume a general index, prepared by Mr. Arthur Gilman, which very much enhances the value of the set. Still more, however, is the lapse of years marked by Professor Shedd's introductory essay, which chose to treat of Coleridge rather as a philosopher and theologian than as a poet, in the belief that in the former character his influence was best and greatest, and destined to be most enduring. We cannot believe that the same writer would venture such a statement to-day. It is only necessary to ask if Coleridge's poetical reputation has faded, during the past thirty years, either at all, or in anything like the degree in which metaphysical speculation has fallen into disrepute. In fact, if there is any part of Coleridge's life product which his punning signature Ἔστησε—

"('Tis Punic Greek for 'He hath stood')"—

will certify to a distant posterity, it is beyond all question his verse. And of his prose, if we except his 'Table-Talk,' what is surer of a long lease of life than chapters xiv.-xxii. of the 'Biographia Literaria,' containing the critique of Wordsworth?

—Not to be led into a discussion with the stereotyped plates of this edition, let us take a concrete example of the perishableness of Coleridge's theologizing. Professor Shedd thus presents Coleridge's view of Sin:

"Sin, therefore, as involving a radical change in the character, development, and history of the human soul, originates in the Will. *If man*

were a mere creature of Nature, his development would go on with the same necessary uniformity with which a crystal or a tree is built up in accordance with the law of Nature. But he is also a Spiritual, *i. e.*, *self*-determined, creature, and hence that possibility of sinning which has become a dreadful actuality. By virtue of this power, man is capable of throwing himself out of the normal line of development prescribed for him by his Creator, etc."

For any one wishing to comprehend Coleridge's system, it may have been useful to pen these lines in 1853; but the appearance of the 'Origin of Species' six years later deprived the passage not only of any weight, but, may we not say? of any interest.

—Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. have in the press and will publish immediately, 'The Foundation of Death: a Study of the Drink Question,' by Axel Gustafson. It is an attempt to give an exhaustive account of the habit of consuming alcoholic liquors, and the author claims to have collated all the accessible works on the different aspects of the subject, physiological, pathological, therapeutical, and moral, to the number of over 3,000. A bibliography of some 1,300 of these will be given, arranged chronologically and also according to countries. The scope of the work may be judged from the following titles of the chapters: 1. Drinking among the Ancients. 2. The History of the Discovery of Distillation. 3. Preliminaries to the Study of Modern Drinking. 4. Adulterations. 5. Physiological Results, or the Effects of Alcohol on the Physical Organs and Functions. 6. Pathological Results, or Diseases Caused by Alcohol. 7. Moral Results. 8. Heredity, or the Curse Entailed on Descendants by Alcohol. 9. Therapeutics, or Alcohol as a Medicine. 10. Social Results. 11. The Origin and Causes of Alcoholism. 12. Specious Reasonings Concerning the Use of Alcohol. 13. What Can be Done? Considerable interest has been aroused in the book by the expressions of leading temperance reformers in England, to whom the proof-sheets have been submitted. Dr. Norman Kerr, the President of the newly-founded Society for the Study and Cure of Inebriety, said of it in a recent lecture, "This great work will, I feel convinced, have a profound and permanent influence on the educated mind and on the public opinion of America, Britain, and the Continent of Europe"; and the Rev. Stopford Brooke, who has lately become an enthusiastic advocate of teetotalism, writes that it is "seriously of great importance to the whole cause of temperance in England" that the book should appear as soon as possible.

—Backward in many ways modern Greece appears to the Western mind, and primitive enough is the Catalogue of the National Library, of which the first portion, covering the Theological collection, is before us—the work of Leopold Zahn, revised by Dr. Michael Deffner, the librarian. However, it would be out of place, and a little ungracious besides, to criticise the scheme of it. We have rather amused ourselves by strolling through the American alcove, so to speak, and noticing what chance drift has found its way thither. Not quite a dozen and a half of our native writers, as we reckon, are represented on the shelves. We find no work by Jonathan Edwards, by Joseph Buckminster, by Charles G. Finney, by Lyman Beecher, by Moses Stuart, by O. A. Brownson, by Edward Robinson, by Theodore Parker, by Emerson, Pierpont, Furness, May, Bushnell, Starr King, Chapin, Milburn, E. N. Kirk, Vinton, or Storrs. The most recent book is H. W. Beecher's 'Lectures on Preaching,' done into German (1874). F. H. Hedge's 'Primeval World' (1873) is likewise in a German edition. One of the two works of Channing is in the French of Laboulaye. One of two of T. H. Gallaudet's is translated from the same language into Greek. Leonard Bacon, Timothy Dwight, Nathaniel Emmons, Samuel Worcester (but not his brother Noah), and A. H. Judson eke out the little company. The redoubtable Parsons Cooke, of Lynn, is, by an unlucky transposition of names, entered under "Parsons," and so honored with a place next to Pascal; and a similar misunderstanding puts Lowell Mason among the L's. Finally, we take down an address to the Boston Young Men's Christian Association in 1859, by Robert C. Winthrop, the only layman on the list, with the exception of Dr. Mason.

—Some time ago (*Nation*, June 19, 1879) we called attention to a work of the eminent Belgian scholar, Professor Willems, of Louvain, upon the Senate of the Roman Republic—of which the first section, treating of the organization and composition of this body, was published in 1878. The second part, upon its powers, was published last year, and is, like the other, a work of exhaustive scholarship. It is in three books—the first treating of the powers of the Senate during vacancies in the executive magistracies; the second treating of its relation to the *Comitia;* the third, of its relation to the magistrates. If we consider that the magistrates were, not in theory but by the force of circumstances, the executive agents of this permanent body, it will be seen that this last book embraces the whole subject of the administrative powers of the Senate. It comprises much the largest part of the volume—657 pages out of 777—and is divided into eight chapters, in which the powers of the Senate in regard to the cult, the finances, the administration of the provinces, etc., are fully discussed. These chapters are upon questions less exposed to controversy. The first two books are chiefly controversial in their character, being devoted to the two important and obscure subjects of the *interregnum* and the *patrum auctoritas*. M. Willems agrees with Mommsen that both of these powers belonged to the Senate, but differs from him in holding that they belonged to the Senate as such, and not to the patrician Senators by themselves, as Mommsen holds. His arguments upon this are strong, and it must be confessed that, in the fragmentary character and obscurity of the testimony, it is impossible to establish either view by positive evidence. Nevertheless, we cannot think that he has satisfactorily answered all of Mommsen's arguments, and especially he does not touch the point—first developed, we believe, by Rubino, although presented from a different point of view—that the auspices were the inalienable possession of the original citizens, the patricians: they were forced, after a long struggle, to concede their temporary possession to plebeian magistrates, and even to admit plebeians to the college of augurs, which had the interpretation of them. But they never surrendered their exclusive right to them in theory; and when, by the failure of election, or from any other cause, there were no magistrates in whose hands the exercise of them was lodged, they returned to their original possessors—*auspicia ad patres redierunt*. The *patrum auctoritas*, too, according to this theory, was not a general right to give their consent to the action of the people, but, as those in whom the religious sanction of the state was vested, to watch over their action from this point of view, and to render invalid whatever votes of the people seemed to violate the religious constitution of the republic.

—Unless our memory be at fault, George Edwin Maclean is entitled to the distinction of being the first American to produce strictly original work in the field of Anglo-Saxon editing. This work may be found in the *Anglia*, vi. 425-473, vii. 1-59; it has also been reproduced in pamphlet form as a doctoral dissertation (Leipzig: T. H. Stauffer). We heartily commend it to every student of Anglo-Saxon. It is unmistakably the product of sound method and patient research, and does credit both to the author and to the Leipzig school of philology. The core of it consists of a thorough reëditing of Aelfric's Anglo-Saxon version of the well-known 'Alcuini Interrogationes,' *i. e.*, a set of answers composed (in Latin) by Alcuin, the friend of Charlemagne, to solve the perplexities of his English correspondent Sigewulf concerning the book of Genesis. The editor gives not only the Anglo-Saxon version, but the Latin original wherever helpful: Aelfric having abridged considerably, the full Latin text would have been superfluous. The Anglo-Saxon text followed is that of the Corpus Christi College MS. No. 178 (although the 'Interrogationes' are now bound up in MS. No. 162). Variants of four other MSS. are given in the footnotes. The editor's account of his finding the 'Interrogationes' in MS. 162 and restoring them to their rightful place in MS. 178, is as striking an instance of editorial acuteness as we have noted for many a year. Also, his introductory remarks upon the relative values of the MSS. and upon the question of Aelfric's authorship of the Anglo-Saxon version are full of valuable information. They give evidence of his having mastered the subject in all its bearings, whether literary or grammatical. In view of the preponderating influence exerted by Aelfric in shaping the later Wessex form of our early speech, we feel peculiarly grateful for such a valuable addition to our stock of knowledge.

—Recent researches by Dr. Spoerer, of the Astrophysikalisches Observatorium at Potsdam, bring into prominence a noteworthy feature of the behavior of the spots on the solar surface. Recalling the fact, long known, that these spots lie largely in zones on either side of about twenty degrees of solar latitude, Dr. Spoerer has deduced, from a thirty-year series of their positions and numbers, the remarkable law that from the time of one minimum of spots until the next the region of greatest spot-activity slowly drifts from the highest latitudes at which they are observed down toward the solar equator—being at a latitude somewhat less than twenty degrees at about the time of the intervening maximum. Instead, however, of the spot-frequency travelling back in the same way, the activity appears to be suddenly transferred to the high latitudes very soon after the second minimum has passed. These unique deductions cast a rather gloomy light upon those theories which ascribe the spot periodicity to extra-solar influence. Meanwhile, astronomers abroad are entertaining very dissimilar views with regard to the epoch of occurrence of the present maximum of the solar spots. While it appeared a most reasonable deduction from the past behavior of the sun's surface that we should have the greatest display in the year 1883, the foreign authorities are divided as to the interpretation of the observations lately made—some asserting that the solar energy has been waning since 1882, the true maximum thus being long past, while others are ready to prove that the sun's activity has been on the increase throughout the year 1883, with the maximum still possibly in the future. So long as the precise phenomena to be regarded as characterizing activity or quiescence of the solar surface remain unconventionalized, such differences of interpretation may well be expected—to say nothing of the intractable inability of astronomers to derive observational data from more than one solar hemisphere at a time.

—The frequent appeals to our picture-buying public to seize unrivalled opportunities to enrich themselves by purchasing the pictures of great modern masters at auction sales, indicate that the business prospers. At a most rational estimate of the average price of the pictures sold here in the course of a season, there must be a very large investment in pictures assured or guaranteed as by "the greatest modern painters." If the assurance were well founded, our picture-buyers would be fast growing rich. For, whatever may be said in the abstract of the uncertain or indeterminable value of pictures, nothing in investments is more sure than the pictures of men whose position is well determined in the annals of art. A Millet, a Rousseau, a Turner, a Delacroix, even a Meissonier, authentic and uninjured, will more certainly hold its value for the future than will the average mining or railway shares. The clever collector who can foresee the eminence of a young painter before the general public, will as certainly profit by his acumen as a clever land speculator; he will buy, at a small price, work which will rise in value as long as the civilization of our epoch endures. We have seen drawings, for which Turner in his life-time received eighty guineas, sold for £1,000, and a generation of shrewd dealers has grown rich on the rise in the values of works of men, some of whom are still living. The great drawback in this mode of investment is the difficulty of determining the authenticity of the works. A perfect counterfeit, as with bank notes, might circulate indefinitely, and maintain a value which was always *fictitious*—detected, it becomes worthless. To prevent the collector or investor from wasting his money in this way is at once a public benefit and a service rendered to the deserving artist. This may be done by pointing out to the purchaser that in every case where a picture is an important one and represents a considerable investment, a guarantee may easily be obtained in the shape of an authenticated history of the picture from the day it left the artist's studio, strengthened, if the artist is still living, by his own written statement, certified by the local authorities, as signatures are when they are to be used abroad. We have known too many cases of dealers who maintain a reputation for trustworthiness selling counterfeits, to make such a condition in all important sales a needless precaution, even in the case of the most honest dealers, who for the rest will be the most willing to accept it. We have under our eyes a collection of pictures to be sold at auction in which are some professedly the work of the most eminent modern painters, purchased originally with the most formal assurance that, if they were to be sold, it would be always at a profit, but in which the pictures ascribed to the men of established high reputation are, with very few exceptions, gross forgeries, for which the investor will not receive the price he paid, and, unless some one else is deceived equally with himself, not a fraction of the price.

A RUMANIAN NOVELIST.

Ein Fürstenkind. Roman von George Allan. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich. Pp. 213. 1883.

Among the few Americans who have been long enough in Bucarest to be disgusted with its diet, its shabbiness, and its prices, there is no doubt a certain number of those who have looked below the surface and have found the city to be a rare puzzle of contradictions. Alongside of its Oriental character of squalid dilapidation, it has the Occidental features of border civilization. It is down at the heel like Constantinople, and yet ambitious as Denver. If the curious American has talked with Rumanians, he has been told that their race is more purely Roman than any to be found in Italy; that, amid surrounding barbarism, they have never lost the light of ancient culture, and that to-day the *salons* of Bucarest may vie with the most elegant of Paris. If the American has gone into society in Bucarest he will have seen graceful manners, and will have heard French spoken with singular ease and purity, but the representatives of foreign countries whom he may have met will have united, almost to a man, to befoul the fair picture the Rumanians have drawn of themselves. The purity of their race is but a conceit of their own, their culture is but the refuse of Paris and Vienna, in politics they are Oriental, and of their morals it is most frequently asserted that they do not exist. With all this there is occasionally a reluctant admission that the country is somehow making progress. Bucarest has the beginnings of a museum and a park, its principal street is paved in part of its length, it has a statue—two, in fact—and one has heard talk, if we are not mistaken, of a Rumanian picture. Less contestable proofs of civilization are the good dinners which may be had for a high price, *chez Hugues*, and the cabs, which are certainly the best in Europe. It might be added that, in spite of Orientalism, the Government is gradually making for itself a place in the world of Powers, that the railways and the King and Queen are, in their several ways, doing much for the country. Indeed, we should be glad to render a hearty tribute to the influence for good of a royal pair who, by a pure life, by a high sense of duty, by their solid culture, by real labor in many directions, promote the welfare of their kingdom. There is something touching in the contrast between the ideal of these noble workers and the seething mass of barbarism and corruption on which they seek to act. The force of the contrast can be felt only by those who have seen something of Rumanian society. For those who must judge from books, the novels of George Allan form a valuable body of testimony.

Mme. Kremnitz (George Allan is but a *nom de guerre*) is German by birth and culture, but has lived many years in Rumania. Nearly all that she has thus far written—and she is no novice in literature—has relation to the country of her adoption, and might have been the work of a Rumanian born. Novels, translations from Rumanian authors, a short life of the Queen, her collaboration with the Queen in stories and poems—which, if it be a secret, is yet a very open one—have combined to render her one of the foremost figures in the little circle of authors and persons of letters that goes far to redeem the emptiness of life in Bucarest. Mme. Kremnitz does not, then, write as a stranger; it is her own world that she describes. Neither has she any wrongs to redress, any party to serve: she does not even propose to satirize a state of society. She tells her story with perfect simplicity and directness; if it makes you detest the world depicted, that at least has been no part of her intention. Her objects are simply those of a literary artist of the realistic school. There is no mist about her characters to magnify or to soften their outlines. And yet the reproach cannot lie against her that her intellectual atmosphere is dry or hardening in effect. Transparent it certainly is, but there is still distance and charm. What is it makes the atmosphere of a novelist? What but a sense of proportion which settles the relative prominence of objects, the more or less of sympathy that colors them, the indefinable personal quality moulding the style in which they are presented? In Mme. Kremnitz the sense of proportion is keen, and exhibits a growing refinement in her successive works; the sympathy has a strange, quivering delicacy, resembling shyness at times, that has a peculiar fascination in it; and the style has a clearness and grace unusual in German writers. There is in it a certain mingled directness and reserve which at first may seem cold, until we discover that the one is the simplicity of art and the other but a finer sensitiveness. As the hand of the artist has gained confidence, however, the value of her manner becomes more apparent. On comparing 'Ein Fürstenkind' with an earlier work, 'Aus der Rumänischen Gesellschaft,' for instance, it will be seen that without changing her method the outlines have become clearer and stronger, the relief fuller. There is less work that is tentative, or, rather, an effect sought is produced by fewer touches, and is consequently by so much the more certain.

The present story is a painful one: it is of a young Princess with a lovely face, a charming nature, and great wealth. Her mother, however, hates her because her figure is deformed; the man who marries her is forced to the union by his father, and shoots himself rather than live with her. The father in-law extorts from the heiress a power of attorney, and squanders her wealth without even a pretence of accounting for it. A second marriage is made for so-called love, but the husband contributes to the ruin of his wife by incurring debts rather than go to the trouble of rescuing her fortune from her former father-in-law, and then deserts her for the most vulgar of fleeting passions. The miserable story is made up, we believe, from facts, as it might have been, indeed, anywhere else. The damning thing for Bucarest is that such facts would elsewhere have been exceptions, whereas they are there of every-day occurrence. The evidence of this may be found in the book. Not that Mme. Kremnitz makes any such charge; the evidence is rather in the absence of accusation—just as in the comedies of Wycherley, which are certainly anything but jeremiads, it is at once seen by the manner in which abominations are taken for granted that nothing but the atmosphere of the London world and the Court of Charles II. has made such comedies possible. We do not mean to imply that Mme. Kremnitz in any other way resembles Wycherley. He rejoices in the exploits of his Horners and Dorilants, while she, though she neither excuses nor accuses, shows that the world as she sees it is to her a very sad place indeed. In their quiet straightforwardness her pages preach a strong, a terrible sermon, one of the sort which allows no one to sleep. There is, in fact, not a dull page in the book. There appears to have been no intention of preaching. The authoress made her story out of the materials immediately around her, and because she has the art of telling simply, strongly, and truly, the result strikes you just as a good portrait does—one of Titian's, for instance—and bears its moral just as facts, when rightly seen, must.

One peculiarity of any such representation of human nature is to make you feel your kinship with it, no matter how bad it may be. So we must own to being struck, while reading Mme. Kremnitz, with a feeling that Bucarest, after all, bore some resemblance to cities nearer home. The frivolity, the surface brilliancy covering emptiness and corruption, the aping of Paris in those respects where Paris is most easily copied, the lack of either noble ideal or solid culture, the slippery sense of honor in money matters, the frailty of the marriage tie, show that the rottenness of Bucarest differs from that of portions of our society in degree rather than in kind. It is only that Bucarest is a worse sinner, not at all another creature. It is the extent to which certain evils are developed that is the monstrous thing. MM. de Goncourt, Zola, and

Huysmanns might gnash their teeth in despair if they knew what they had lost by not being born in Bucarest. To the credit of Mme. Kremnitz—we beg her pardon for naming her in conjunction with such a crew—it must be said that, even in Bucarest, she has made her picture faithful without stooping to the study of plague spots. She is a realist who has not lost all sense of proportion, for whom the sore does not hide the man. We cannot help thinking it a pity that writers who love dirt for dirt's sake, like the trio named above, had not lived in a city where their "naturalistic" studies would not have been such a flagrant outrage to general truth. As for Mme. Kremnitz, on the other hand, could she have lived in Paris she might have gained with the larger canvas a more cheerful view of life.

'Ein Fürstenkind' is a well-told story: one can reproach it only with having the "défauts de ses qualités"—it is painful because it is faithful. But Bucarest is fortunately not all of Rumania. The division of the kingdom into the provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia marks a corresponding division in the character of the inhabitants. Even Bucarest profits by the better portion, for Moldavia sends up to the capital the greater part of the brains and manliness to be found there. Mme. Kremnitz has offset what was painful in her novels by introducing us to a better Rumania in her two volumes of 'Rumänische Skizzen.' These are translations of stories by Moldavian authors, and give us a glimpse of a more agreeable world. Indeed, the tales of Slavici have a rare charm both in matter and manner. That they do not lose in the latter respect in their German dress is due to the skill of the translator. None of the stories read like translations. They are tales of peasant life, chiefly among the mountains toward the Hungarian frontier, and even beyond in Transylvania, in those parts where the population is chiefly or entirely Rumanian. We are transported to another world, a world where it is pleasant to live, and where one loves and believes in one's fellow-man. His faults are not disguised: he has an Old World ignorance and superstitions, but therewith all the Old World simple virtues. The Rumanian village furnishes idyls as natural and charming in their way as 'Cranford.' Of course it is a long way from the village to the city, but the idyl has truth in it as well as 'Vanity Fair'; and when one wonders at the progress which is visible in Bucarest, in spite of extravagance, frivolity, improvidence, trickiness, dissipation, corruption, one does well to remember that back of the capital there is a land where men work honestly and live cleanly.

It is no small merit in Mme. Kremnitz that, by introducing us to the two worlds, she has done much to help us to a proper understanding of Rumanian life. We may hope, too, that she will complete her work by giving us studies from the life of a third world now struggling into existence. The world of Mme. Kremnitz's novels is the aristocracy, that of Slavici's tales is the peasantry of the mountains. Formerly in all countries these were the only classes recognized by fiction. No doubt the phenomena of modern society will reproduce themselves here in somewhat the same sequence followed elsewhere. Modern physical well-being, modern education, have already developed between the proletariat and the old boyar caste a middle class. Naturally, this forms the strength of the Liberal party; it furnishes the ferment, the working leaven of society; it is pushing, striving, gaining for itself every day some new position; it has the virtues and the characteristics of a middle class anywhere. It is probably, so to speak, still in its hobbledehoy age; but it will gain repose and refinement, and will end, as in France or England, in claiming the domain of art as its own. To-day the mouthpiece of its aspirations is M. Bratiano, the leader of the Liberal party, himself a noble who has cut loose from the ties of his class; to-morrow it will be the turn of the poet and the novelist.

THE SCOURGE OF CHRISTENDOM.

The Scourge of Christendom: Annals of British Relations with Algiers prior to the French Conquest. By Lieut.-Colonel R. L. Playfair, H. M. Consul-General at Algiers, author of 'Travels in the Footsteps of Bruce.' London.

PEOPLE of a despondent habit of mind, who are apt to doubt the progress of the world from worse to better, would probably derive a good deal of comfort from the perusal of 'The Scourge of Christendom.' There is a great deal in the world amiss still, but at any rate the civilized world is no longer so out of joint as to tolerate a Dey of Algiers in the midst of it. The march of the ages has improved that potentate out of existence, and it is now almost as difficult to realize why he was ever permitted to exist as to believe in the reality of mythological monsters—a gorgon or chimæra dire. The strange history unfolded in the book before us is briefly as follows: For nearly three centuries the city of Algiers was held by an army of Turks, nominally 12,000 strong, but rarely reaching to that total. The Dey or chief among them was chosen by a popular vote, in which every soldier of the army had a right to participate. So long as the Dey remained Dey, he was possessed of arbitrary powers, and could bastinade, bowstring, or decapitate his subjects to any extent that seemed good to himself. But as soon as the electors got wearied of a Dey they had a very short method of dealing with him: they killed him and chose another. Sometimes a considerable number of Deys were chosen in the course of a single morning, and, failing to give satisfaction, were forthwith put to death. Thus, Colonel Playfair tells us that "On September 10, 1695, a change of government took place; Hadji Shaban Dey was murdered by the Janissaries; *several new ones were appointed and killed on the same day;* and eventually the choice fell on Hadji Ahmed, the poorest, the oldest, and the most infirm person they could find; the soldiery declaring that they would no longer be governed by a person of bravery or of administrative ability." For a Dey to die peacefully in his bed was the rarest event; these sovereigns were murdered with such punctual uniformity a year or two after their election that the wonder is that any one should have consented to become Dey.

These Turks and their Deys ruled with a rod of iron over a number of Arab tribes who, had they only been unanimous, could have eaten them up. These Arabs had no political privileges at all beyond those of being taxed, bastinaded, and plundered. The Turks maintained their authority by incessantly fomenting discord between one tribe and another, and, when a paltry quarrel had broken out, allying themselves with one party so as to insure the destruction of the other. But the singular part of the history of this small band of Turkish ruffians and marauders consists in the relations which subsisted between them and the nations of Europe. They were truly, as Colonel Playfair designates them, "the scourge of Christendom." Although never at any time possessed of a naval force sufficient to cope with that of the weakest European nations, for upwards of two centuries they set all the great Powers at defiance. Their privateers roamed over every sea, capturing merchant shipping, and dragging Christian men and women into a horrible slavery; and the great monarchies of Europe, instead of singly or in combination crushing this piratical pest once for all, were fain to purchase a temporary respite from their ravages by paying them tribute, and by sending humiliating embassies to form treaties of alliance with the Dey. The United States did not escape the attention of the pirates of Algiers. So many vessels became their prey that the Mediterranean trade was all but closed to their enterprise, and even the Atlantic they could not navigate in safety. We were at last obliged to conclude a peace on the best terms we could obtain. It cost us more than a million Spanish dollars, and we had to pay in addition a heavy annual tribute both in money and naval stores. In 1798, Mr. Playfair tells us that Mr. Eaton, American Consul at Tunis, was sent to Algiers in charge of four vessels as arrears of tribute. "Can any man believe," was the remark of this Consul after he had seen His Highness the Dey, "that this elevated brute has seven Kings of Europe, two Republics, and a continent tributary to him, when his whole naval force is not equal to two line-of-battle ships?" The insolence of these piratical ruffians, encouraged as it had been by centuries of impunity, can be imagined from what happened in Algiers, at a time when Great Britain was mistress of the seas, and her fleets were commanded by such men as Nelson, Dundonald, and Collingwood. At that very time, in Algiers itself,

"acts of tyranny were committed on Jews under British protection. British vessels were treated with the greatest injustice. The Consul was constantly insulted at his country house; the water was cut off, and finally guards were sent to turn him out. His demands to export to Malta prize and British goods were refused; he was not allowed to choose his own dragoman; all the bidders for the cargo of a Spanish prize were taken up, and had seven hundred strokes of the bastinade each; and he (the Consul) concludes: 'There is so much to say, that it is scarcely possible that it can be done by correspondence.'"

These pirates of Algiers made treaties and broke them according to a regular system. Their chief resources were derived from the sale and ransom of the slaves whom they captured; and they could not, with safety to themselves, pursue this particular industry if they were at war with a number of European Powers at once. They were, in consequence, always ready to enter into a treaty of peace with as many Powers as they thought best fitted for the particular operations which they had in hand. Thus, if they were at war with France—*i. e.*, were capturing French merchant ships—they were, in general, anxious to be at peace with Great Britain; but as soon as France had, by presents and other humiliations, purchased a period of immunity for her mercantile marine, the pirates began to prey upon English commerce, quite regardless of any preëxisting treaty. They flourished upon the gigantic selfishness of those on whom they preyed. These foolishly and ignorantly persuaded themselves that each in turn benefited by the depredations from which some neighbor was suffering; and in their delight at these depredations they overlooked, or at any rate heeded not, those of their own subjects who were enduring a miserable and hopeless servitude in Algiers. The lot of these slaves was dreadful in the extreme:

"They had to work from early morning till late in the afternoon, excepting on Fridays, when they were free either to take their repose or work for themselves. Their labor was exceedingly hard, and sometimes they had to perform their tasks laden with heavy chains. Some were sent to the quarry to break stones; others were harnessed to carts to convey building materials to the various public works. Those employed at the ovens were even more miserable, having hardly any respite day or night; the filth of these ovens was horrible, and the heat unbearable. Vermin swarmed everywhere. Those of the slaves who were able to act as

skilled laborers could hardly ever hope to obtain their freedom, save on most onerous conditions. The Dey sometimes sent a number of them to sea, and in that case they were allowed one-third of their share of booty. Others were allowed to keep taverns, paying duties proportionate to the quantity of wine they sold, and these sometimes amassed a sufficient sum to purchase their freedom. . . . If a slave ever dared to raise his hand against his master, the retribution was terrible. A young Christian, on one occasion, killed his master under provocation so gross as to justify the act. He was dragged to the place of execution over the rough and pointed stones, subjected to the insults of an excited and brutal crowd. On his arrival there, each of the spectators seemed to take a pleasure in assisting at the work. He was crucified against the wall with four large nails; a red-hot iron was thrust through his cheeks to prevent him speaking, and in this condition he was slowly burnt to death with firebrands. Such acts of cruelty were by no means uncommon, and even the simple bastinado, administered at the request of any Turk, was hardly less terrible in its effects than the most refined tortures."

Nothing could surpass the philosophic calmness with which the English Government contemplated the fate of such English men and women as were consigned to this awful destiny. They haggled long and parsimoniously over the sums demanded by way of ransom. A hundred pounds more than they liked sufficed to make them give up the attempt in despair, as occasioning too large an expenditure of money. Colonel Playfair gives us a treaty concluded with the Dey in the reign of James II., which provides that "the King of Great Britain shall not be obliged to redeem any of his subjects then actually in slavery; but it should depend absolutely on his Majesty to redeem such as he might think fit, agreeing for as reasonable a price as possible with their masters for their redemption, *without obliging the said masters against their will to set any at liberty.*" It was not until 1816 that Christian slavery ceased in Algiers, and its cessation then was due not to the united action of Europe, but to that of Great Britain and Holland. It was on the 27th of August, 1816, that the combined British and Dutch fleets, under command of Lord Exmouth, achieved that memorable bombardment of Algiers which destroyed the piratical power of the Dey, obtained the release of all the European slaves in his territory, and put an end to Christian slavery forever. Colonel Playfair quotes an interesting description of this bombardment from the official diary of Mr. Shaler, the American Consul-General:

"At 3 o'clock the British Admiral took his position, in most gallant style, within fifty yards of the mole-head, the other ships taking theirs in succession in the same manner. At this moment the Algerines opened their fire upon the Admiral, and the battle instantly became general. At about twenty minutes past 3 the marine batteries appear to be silenced. The cannonade endures with a fury which can only be comprehended from practical experience; shells and rockets fly over and by my house like hail. The fire is returned with constancy from several batteries situated at the N. W. angle of the town, and from one of four heavy guns directly under my windows. These batteries are exposed only to an oblique fire, and apparently have not suffered much. At 5 an attempt was made to renew the fire from the marine batteries, but it does not continue ten minutes. At half-past 7, the shipping in the port on fire. At half-past 8 the cannonade endures with unabated fury on the part of the English, and is returned from the batteries in this quarter. The upper part of my house appears to be destroyed; several shells have fallen into it; whole rooms are knocked to atoms. At 9 the fire slackened; at 11 it appears to cease, is fully renewed at intervals; at half-past 11 it ceases entirely. At 1, from my terrace, everything in the Marine appears on fire; two ships wrapped in flames have drifted out of the port, and appear to have driven the combined fleets from their position. Heavy thunder and rain. The lightning enables me to discover the combined fleets at anchor in the bay."

The narrative terminates with an account from an eye-witness of the capture of Algiers by the French, and the deposition of the Dey—one of the few conquests which even the most enthusiastic lovers of peace may remember with delight. French rule in Algiers is very far from being a model for all nations to follow, but, as compared with that exercised by the pirates of Algiers, it is excellence itself. Colonel Playfair is to be congratulated upon having written a book which is both eminently readable and a distinct addition to our historical knowledge.

SCHUYLER'S PETER THE GREAT.—II.

Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia. A Study of Historical Biography. By Eugene Schuyler, Ph.D., LL.D., Author of 'Turkistan.' In two volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

With the close of the seventeenth century the narrative before us becomes almost purely historical. The properly biographical element recedes. Charles XII. of Sweden, against whom the Czar has entered into an offensive league with Frederick IV. of Denmark and Augustus the Strong of Poland and Saxony, figures as conspicuously as the subject of the work, if not more so. Patkul, the Livonian nobleman, whose deadly hostility to Sweden was so cruelly revenged by Charles, and Mazeppa, the fickle Hetman of the Cossacks, are more prominently sketched than the foremost companions of Peter. Separate chapters are devoted to the battle of Narva, Charles's first victory over the Russians, in 1700; the negotiations for mediation and alliance, 1701; Russian successes on the Baltic coast, 1701–'4; Charles's movements in Poland for the dethronement of Augustus, 1702–'5; the campaign in Courland, 1705; the operations around Grodno, 1706; Charles's advance into Saxony and the peace of Altranstädt, 1706; the diplomacy of 1707; the war in Lithuania, 1708; and the battle of Poltava, which ruined the royal Swede, 1709. These first ten years of the Northern war, in which his career is mostly eclipsed by that of his younger Swedish rival, nevertheless show Peter in the best light in which he ever appears. His energy, perseverance, and determination appear indomitable. No reverse stuns him. In the midst of campaigns with varying success, he pursues his internal reforms, enforces his former Europeanizing decrees, establishes institutions of learning, enlists foreign skill and science, reorganizes the administration, regulates the monasteries, creates St. Petersburg in the marshes of the Neva—by forced labor and at the cost of more than one hundred thousand lives—and altogether gives a new direction to the course of his nation's history. He is indefatigable in acquiring knowledge, decreeing, and directing. His foibles and failings are less perceptible, although his character, temper, and habits hardly undergo a change. After the battle of Poltava, Europe looks upon him with mixed admiration and awe. Leibnitz writes:

"The Tsar henceforth will attract the consideration of Europe, and will have a very great part in general affairs. People greatly praise his humanity and his goodness in giving Swedish officers leave on parole. . . . It is commonly said that the Tsar will be formidable for all Europe, and will be like a modern Turk. But can he be prevented from educating his subjects and rendering them civilized and warlike? *Qui jure suo utitur nemini facit injuriam.* As for me, who am for the good of the human race, I am very glad that so great an empire is putting itself in the ways of reason and order, and I consider the Tsar in that respect as a person whom God has destined to great works. He has succeeded in having good troops. I do not doubt that . . . he will succeed in also having good foreign relations, and I shall be charmed if I can help him make science flourish in his country. I maintain even that he can do in that respect finer things than all other Princes have done."

Of the terrible oppression and extortion, legal and illegal, which, added to the never-ending conscription, ground down the Russian people, while the great empire was "putting itself in the ways of reason and order," the German philosopher probably never realized the extent. Nor is it likely that he knew how popular revolts in the remote interior, kindled by despair or delusion, were stifled and revenged by the Czar while he was doing his "great works" before the eyes of Europe. It was not long before his victory at Poltava that, of the Astrakhan rebels sent to the capital, "three hundred and sixty-five men were executed—many of them broken on the wheel." Another insurrection, in the region of the Don, was finally suppressed both by wholesale executions and widespread devastation. "The young men were sent off to other provinces. As to the aged, the women, and the children, Apráxin wrote to the Tsar, 'these will disappear of themselves.'" Peter would, perhaps, have been less cruel in his repression of these risings had they not been so threatening in the midst of his perilous campaigns. And scarcely was the Swedish invader vanquished—more by his own recklessness than by Russian strategy—when the Turkish war of 1711 brought the Czar to the very verge of ruin. Peter on the Pruth was no wiser as a commander than Charles on the Vorskla, and he was far from being equally brave. He was ready to save himself by flight, regardless of the fate of the army; he was ready to sacrifice former conquests and honor. But both himself and his army and almost all his acquisitions were saved by the supine indifference of the Grand Vizier—not by Catharine's jewels and nocturnal bribery, as less authentic history used to tell. Charles was furious at the escape of his foe, and in his fury and wonted stubbornness remained for years on Turkish soil, hoping against hope to be placed at the head of a Turkish army for another invasion of Russia; while Peter, active, energetic, and wide-awake as ever, carried the war into the enemy's territory, into Pomerania and Finland. All his new campaigns, even after Charles's return to his country, were offensive and easily successful, his antagonist remaining as reckless as ever in his fight against old and new enemies, as well as in his diplomacy, and the resources of Sweden, in men and means, being fatally exhausted. A bullet put an end to Charles's life in 1718, and Peter dictated peace to Sweden in 1721.

While his armies and Baltic fleet desolated the shores of the Swedish possessions, Peter found time to continue and extend his reforms. He had established a senate; he now reorganized the clergy and created a permanent supreme synod, which made him the virtual head of the Russian Church. He also found time for a two-years' journey abroad (1716–17), in company with Catharine, now his wife, during which he visited the courts of Berlin, Copenhagen, and Paris, and often showed himself so little divested of his earlier brutality that monstrous stories were told of his indecencies. The worst of these stories, that which induced Thomas Carlyle to apply to Peter the opprobrious epithet "Samoyedic," Mr. Schuyler discredits. On this point he evinces some eagerness, almost betraying a bias, to save as much of his hero's honor as can possibly be saved; but the closely-following account of Peter's treatment of his son Alexis is again a totally unvarnished picture of the autocrat's excessive barbarity, although the complete unworthiness of the unfortunate Prince to succeed even so barbarous a father is also fully exhibited. What is most harrowing in this narrative is not so

much the sacrifice of a child's life in itself—a sacrifice not wholly premeditated, and prompted by motives in which the fierce patriotism of a Brutus and the fierce selfish jealousy of a Herod appear mixed—but the sweeping fury with which it is carried out and followed up. Alexis was hounded, treacherously dealt with, and tried not for crimes but supposed evil intentions. The last interrogatory, "attended by torture, in the presence of the Tsar and most members of the court," lasted for three hours, and on the evening of the same day, July 7, 1718, he expired in his prison. The tortures and cruel deaths to which many of the sympathizers with the Prince, falsely accused of being his fellow-conspirators, were subjected, our readers may excuse us for not stating in detail. The day after the death of Alexis the anniversary of the battle of Poltava "was celebrated in the usual manner in the presence of the Tsar, ending with a banquet and a ball." Peter lived to celebrate that anniversary six times more; accepted, after the final peace with Sweden, the titles, bestowed upon him by his nation's gratitude and adulation, of "Emperor," "the Great," and "Father of his Country"; added to his conquests from Sweden annexations from Persia; and till his death, on February 8, 1725, at the age of fifty-two years and eight months, continued his constant activity as a passionate Europeanizer and merciless autocrat, as well as his occasional exhibitions of buffoonery. Even shortly before his death, "during the holidays, the Emperor, with the Prince Pope, the Drunken Synod, and a procession of maskers, went about from house to house with songs and congratulations."

Besides general accuracy in stating facts, Mr. Schuyler's work has the merit of accuracy in transliteration from the Russian. His index alone, with all the Russian names accented, is, to a friend of Russian history and literature, worth the price of the book. Deviations from his strict rules of transliteration, as in "*H*ilkof" (for Khilkof), "*H*olmogory," "Mi*ch*ailovitch," "Miloslav*s*ky" (side by side with "Zboro*f*sky," "Zamyslo*f*sky," etc.), or "Ossipovitch" (side by side with "Esipof), are rare, except in the map. Other slips in Russian, as "Preobrazhensky," as a noun, for Preobrazhensk or Preobrazhenskoe (*selo*, not *gorod* or *monastyr'*, being understood), are exceedingly rare. In non-Russian matters we have noticed "King Gedimin" (for Grand Duke Gedimin), "Countess Kozelska" (for Countess of Cosel), "Tikoczin," "Yawo-row," "*the* Zenta," "Tékély," "Wurtzburg," and a few other inaccuracies. On the whole, the revision of the book leaves little to be desired, though, in a solitary instance (vol. i., p. 114), we find three successive false dates: "in 1688, during the reign of the Tsar Alexis" (he died in 1676); "in 1870, on the celebration of the 200th anniversary of Peter's birth" (he was born in 1672); "and again in 1872." The mechanical execution of the volumes is also excellent.

What Shall We Do with Our Daughters? By Mary A. Livermore. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

ALL that good intentions and all that the aim at a high ideal could contribute, may be found in this little book, but it is not from these only that a strong argument can be constructed, or conviction enforced; least of all upon a subject in itself so involved, and now so confused by prejudices on the one side and over-sanguine hopes on the other. The book is late. The lectures when delivered, as the preface states, ten years ago, had their due purpose in awakening interest. Time has fulfilled some of the hopes, has answered some of the questions. It has altered the bearing of all of them. "What shall we do for our daughters to prepare them for life?" is a more accurate title for the book, since the writer has nothing new to say of their future. Many marry. Of the others, a minority live in more or less of ease. The rest support themselves. All that the book contains concerning ways and means has been said over and over again. A sound body, a well-trained mind with powers of practical adaptation, and pure, high moral purpose, are what every parent would desire for a daughter. To repeat this again is only harping upon an old theme. We have gone further than that, and there are other, later questions that are burning for an answer. There was probably never a time when the children of the rich were better cared for physically than now. How shall this improvement be extended to people of moderate circumstances? Opportunities for higher education, for special education, are multiplying far in advance of the numbers ready to profit by them. Why is this? Or, to put the same thing in another way, how can it be made worth while for a woman to give herself an expensive training? How is it that a woman undertaking an occupation above the rank of day-laborers (very many teachers, be it said without offence, are that)—any occupation that can be classed as professional in a man's sense of the word—finds the habits of her whole sex arrayed against her? How can it be helped that the whole body of women of leisure counts as a dead weight against those that must work? How can we prevent that sad waste which we witness almost every year—the failure and death of some choice woman because there is not power to discriminate, as successful men do, between work that is worth doing and work that must be left to inferiors? The list of questions grows under our hand, and the newspaper column is no place to answer them. Lamentation or invective is equally useless. Too much of all that has been said has started from the assumption that the present state of things is the result of a deliberate conspiracy for persecution on the part of men. Hence what was well meant to awaken interest, as in the book before us, has been only the sowing of seeds of bitterness in young, restless hearts. What is wanted is patient study of circumstances, based upon some philosophical theory of the development of the race through a struggle where it was inevitable that the strongest, and only the strongest, should come to the front first.

Martin Luther: a Study of Reformation. By Edwin D. Mead. Boston: George H. Ellis.

THE purpose of Mr. Mead's little book is expressed in the title. It is a study, less of the Reformation of the sixteenth century than of the principle of reform in general, as illustrated by the personality of Luther. It is a case of avowed hero-worship. The author's model, in plan and method, is Carlyle. He has lived into the peculiarities of his master so completely that he cannot or will not avoid reproducing them on every page. It is as if the worst blemishes of the great author's style—blemishes which we may forgive because without them Carlyle would have been some one else—had been purposely adopted here as real ornaments. The result is that the whole book has the stilted, artificial effect which an imitated style must necessarily produce. Invective and satire, to be effective, must seem to be the outward expression of an inward passion which can work itself out in no other form; not, as here, to be the props and stays of ideas not especially original or vigorous in themselves.

Yet the word here spoken by Mr. Mead is one much needed at the close of the debate called forth by the Luther anniversaries. Stripped of their rhetorical ornament, these chapters tell us, what is well worth hearing, that the Roman answer to the great demonstration of enthusiasm for Luther's memory has been nothing more than a warming over of the ancient dish of absurd and monstrous calumnies which, from Luther's time until now, has been served up for the satisfying of the faithful. It is good service to point out, as Mr. Mead has done, that what seems to many the failure of Protestantism is nothing more than the failure of certain schemes and certain combinations going under the name of Protestant, while the real thing, the spirit of Protestantism, is moving on in other forms to ever new victories.

The whole content of the criticism on Mgr. Capel is so sound that one may wish the author well out of his false ideas of style, and well started in the direction of a simplicity which would give much greater weight to his attacks. And his hero-worship is far from that blind reverence which sees only good in its object. He recognizes Luther's faults, and dwells upon them; only he insists that these faults, which have been seized upon as a reproach to the great cause, had really to do with the cause only in so far as they helped to make up the mighty individuality of the man. This is the sum of it, that the protest of Luther was the protest of individualism—even unconsciously to himself—the demand that every man should stand on his own power to read and interpret what seemed to him the word of God. Whatever sets itself in the way of that protest, no matter upon what claim it may rest, must, in the long run, give way.

The Historical Monuments of France. By James F. Hunnewell. Boston: James R Osgood & Co. 1884.

MR. HUNNEWELL'S impressive-looking volume is a kind of desultory guide-book among the *monuments historiques* of France—that is, those of her old buildings which have been enrolled and taken under Government protection as worthy of public defence against decay or despoiling. The author has apparently travelled much in France, and read of her buildings and history, and he gives us, in the language of an intelligent amateur, the description, the story, and often the gossip of such of the monuments as he has studied. His accounts are interesting, full enough to give the ordinary reader what he will care to know, and to show the travelling architect where to look for more. Two hundred and fifty 8vo pages are far from giving scope, at Mr. Hunnewell's leisurely pace, to traverse all the monuments on the roll, which are nearly two thousand; but the book is long enough for the reader, and the architect will find a valuable guide for his travels in the ample lists of the monuments which are given in an appendix, with short descriptions of the buildings, including many that are not "classed." In point of accuracy, this book seems to us better than most of like kind, after making allowance for a good deal of rather negligent proof-reading, and here and there an error which cannot be so easily accounted for. A quicker sense of historical and architectural relations would have made the book better; a knowledge of architecture would have enabled the author to pick out and duly emphasize facts which he now slurs over or omits. The few illustrations, selected mostly from familiar sources, and fairly reproduced by process, serve as embellishments rather than illustrations, being too scanty to furnish a commentary. We wish it had occurred to the author to add a reproduction of the map prepared for the Commission des Monuments Historiques, and appended to Hocquart's

'Archéologie des Provinces et Departments de France,' which is now hard to get. As it stands, however, the book is worth anybody's having, and ought to be of real assistance to architectural travellers.

The Game Fish of the Northern States and British Provinces, with an Account of the Salmon and Sea Trout Fishing of Canada and New Brunswick, together with simple directions for tying artificial flies, etc., etc. By Robert Barnwell Roosevelt. Orange Judd Co.

MR. ROOSEVELT is one of the very few American writers on angling who understand their subject and know how to express their knowledge and opinions clearly and interestingly. The book in question has had two previous editions, in 1862 and 1865. The present one, Mr. Roosevelt states in his preface, contains "a great deal of fresh matter, and the information and directions have been brought down to the present time." Nearly half the volume is devoted to the salmon and various kinds of trout, the chapters on the latter being so good that many an old fisherman might study them with advantage. We judge from what is said about large trout on page 21 that Mr. Roosevelt regards as apocryphal the stories of the monsters of 8 to 10 lbs., which are undoubtedly taken from the Rangeley waters in Maine. The chapters on sea trout, which are interspersed with narratives of personal adventures, are very good; but Mr. Roosevelt has given, for reaching the sea-trout and salmon rivers, the old routes, which have been, many of them, abandoned since the completion of the Intercolonial Railway connecting the Canadian Provinces, and reducing to a comfortable journey of two days what seven years since was a disagreeable one of a week. The Miramichi, Nepisiquit, Restigouche, or any of the Bay of Chaleurs rivers may now be reached from New York within two and a half days. There is opportunity for some difference of opinion with Mr. Roosevelt regarding the Canadian salmon rivers and their inmates. For instance, on page 94 he states: "The upper shore of the St. Lawrence furnishes the largest fish, but New Brunswick the most abundant." By the upper shore we suppose is meant the north shore of the river and gulf. The Romaine River certainly yields very large fish, but we doubt if a heavier average than the famous Grand Cascapediac, flowing into the Bay of Chaleurs, which, Mr. Roosevelt says, furnishes "*some* salmon and innumerable grilse." We know of no other north-shore river where the fish average so heavy as on the Restigouche and Matapediac in New Brunswick and Quebec; but the Natashquan on the north shore probably contains a greater number of small salmon than any river in Canada.

Following those on salmon are chapters on whitfish, cisco, bass, blue fish, "mascallonge," carp, etc., some of which might be open to question as being "game fish," but the information is none the less desirable. The "propagation of fish" is ably and interestingly treated, from the most modern standpoint, and, in addition to valuable information, hints and suggestions are given about the utilization of our barren waters that should be known and acted upon by all who have it in their power to do so.

The Relation of Animal Diseases to the Public Health, and their Prevention. By Frank S. Billings, D.V.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

THIS work appears at a time when the subjects discussed in it are claiming attention at home and abroad. The first half of the book is devoted to the consideration of the contagious diseases peculiar to the domestic animals, the writer having gathered from various sources everything of value relating to them, and leaving little to be desired. The chapter on trichiniasis, partially illustrated, is very interesting, and well up to all that is known of the disease. The article devoted to tuberculosis of cattle is, in connection with the subject of diseased milk, full of suggestions for the physician. The writer very truly says: "If young animals can be infected by milk taken from tuberculous cows, what is there to prevent the same thing from taking place in babes brought up on the bottle?" The whole question of infection is studied carefully and thoroughly, the modern germ theory, with the experiments upon bacteria, receiving a large share of attention. The dog has a dozen pages, including some stringent but well-considered regulations guarding against an outbreak of rabies. The chapter upon glanders, more particularly as connected with its inoculation in man, will repay the careful attention of the reader.

The second half of the book is devoted to a history of veterinary medicine, with very full descriptions of the schools of France and Germany. Probably the pages on the use of horse-flesh will be new to many readers. The increase of its consumption for food purposes in Berlin is shown by the figures following: In 1853 the number of horses slaughtered for food was 686, while in 1868 the number had increased to 4,026. Apart from the fact that horse-flesh is specially nutritive and digestible, it is not liable to those verminous affections that produce the germs of the different kinds of tape worms of which the human body is the recipient. Rinderpest is made the basis of an appeal to the Government for public interference of the most searching character, and the book concludes with a demand for a national veterinary police system, together with a national veterinary school of an exceptionally high scientific character. The writer's arguments, in view of the important hygienic and financial interests involved in the diseases of domestic animals, are clearly and forcibly rendered. Animals are to receive the same care as men, while the veterinary surgeon is to occupy a position enabling him to take rank with the recognized physician. The author is plainly an enthusiast, and possibly the scientific character of the book may limit its interest for the beginner in veterinary pursuits; but for the more advanced student and for the general reader there is much valuable and well-arranged material. The volume, of 446 pages, is well printed, and will be an addition to the library of any lover of domestic animals.

Biography of Ezra Cornell, Founder of the Cornell University. A filial tribute. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1884.

MR. A. B. CORNELL, as the biographer of his father, has had opportunities such as are given to few sons who undertake similar tasks. The material of a singularly noble, useful, and generous life was before him, and there was nothing to be apologized for or glossed over. Ezra Cornell, until middle age, knew the hardships of long-sustained struggles with poverty, and when at last a fortune came to him suddenly and, as we may suppose, unexpectedly, he displayed admirable wisdom as well as the greatest generosity in its expenditure. His money went almost entirely for others, and there is no reason to doubt that the unfortunate railway investments spoken of in the latter part of this volume, and which cost him so dearly, were undertaken with the sole expectation of realizing a large additional sum for the University. The early history of the telegraph, with which Mr. Cornell was intimately associated, and the success of which was largely due to his indefatigable industry and enthusiasm, is the subject of an interesting chapter. During his political career in the State Legislature amid the stirring events of the war, he was honorably and prominently identified with many of the important measures considered. In 1863 Mr. Cornell began the erection in Ithaca of the Cornell Library Building, and three years later presented it "for the free use of all residents of Tompkins County." In 1865, by the offer of a gift of $500,000 as an endowment, he secured from the Trustees of the State Agricultural College the transfer of the income of the land-grant fund to Cornell University, adding a donation of 200 acres of land in Ithaca, on which the College buildings were to be erected. The United States land scrip which represented the fund in the hands of the Trustees of the Agricultural College was at this time worth, for the purposes of location of lands, only about 60 cents per acre, and in order to secure to the University the profits which might accrue from using this scrip to locate lands instead of selling it outright, Mr. Cornell made a contract with the State to purchase the scrip at 60 cents an acre, locate the lands at his own expense, pay the local taxes, and turn into the State Treasury for the benefit of the University all the profits that might be realized. To this contract of his is largely due the present prosperity of the institution bearing his name, and, as stated on p. 220, he advanced, in carrying it out up to September, 1874, more than $500,000, besides giving it years of hard work.

Many interesting minor episodes are related in the book, and the author must be praised for having taken advantage of his vacation from politics to write the annals of so good and beneficent a life.

La Cour Impériale à Compiègne. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1884. Pp. 304.

IT is difficult to conjecture the object of this book, the point of view of its author, or his motive for writing it. It is a medley of the most incongruous materials, of various degrees of worthlessness. Pointless anecdotes, forgotten scandals, and long extracts from documents that have lost what little interest they ever possessed, alternate with tiresome descriptions of hunting parties at Compiègne and stale fulminations against Prussian "perfidy." It will give a sufficient idea of the magnificently impudent method of book-making pursued by the author to mention that, in censuring the defective organization of the French ambulance, he considers it appropriate to devote over thirty pages, one-tenth of his whole work, to a minute and detailed account of the Prussian order of the Knights of St. John, in a style that would do credit to one of our Sunday newspapers. Indeed, the book is remarkable as a rare exception to the rule that French books, if they possess no other charm, generally possess that of manner. It is a dreary performance throughout, and there is not a quotable sentence in it.

Successful Preachers. By the Rev. Geo. J. Davies, author of 'Papers on Preaching,' etc., etc. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1884.

SOME five-and-twenty years ago we read Mr. Davies's 'Papers on Preaching' with so much pleasure that we expected a great deal of satisfaction from the present volume, but our expectation was in vain. 'Papers on Preaching' was evidently written *con amore*, and only after long and diligent search into the history of preaching. It was bright and sensible, and the writer's "anecdotage" was never wearisome. His 'Successful Preachers' is a series of twenty

sketches, twelve of which have appeared in the *Guardian* newspaper at intervals during the year 1881–1882. A certain scrappiness and incoherency is the most characteristic note of each and all of them. They have no beginning, middle, or end, and they seldom leave a definite impression. Their poverty is especially noticeable in those instances where we have had full biographies of the preachers treated of. It is really astonishing that with such biographies as those of Kingsley and Wilberforce and the brothers Hare at his command, the writer could have made his sketches so dull and spiritless.

The general impression is not favorable to the preaching of the English Church, although among the preachers named are Samuel Wilberforce, Henry Melvill, Charles Wolfe, and Archer Butler, Robertson, Kingsley, and Stanley. There is a very meagre appendix on American preachers of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in which Mr. Phillips Brooks has special mention, but to little purpose, the emphasis being upon the collapse of a rush-bottomed chair under his weight when he went to Convocation at the Jerusalem Chamber. The Rev. Charles Bradley, the father of twenty-two children, one of whom is the present Dean of Westminster, was one of the greatest masters of "divisions," and several examples of his divisions are given, but they are not striking. Mr. Davies has a very interesting subject in the Rev. James B. Mozley, and is more successful than in some other instances in giving an impression of his power. There are various allusions to the custom, which would appear to be very common in England, of preaching MS. or printed sermons which are not the preacher's own. The waning popularity of the Rev. Charles Bradley's sermons is accounted for by the fact that they are labelled "dangerous," *i. e.*, they cannot be stolen with impunity. On one occasion the preacher, seeing Bradley in the audience just as he was concluding his discourse, added: "I have the more pleasure in having read you this excellent sermon of Mr. C. Bradley, as I see him an attentive listener." This is one of many pleasant stories in the book, but they do not redeem the general sense of dulness and inconsequence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brownson, H. F. The Works of Orestes A. Brownson. Vol. VII. Containing the third part of the Writings in Defence of the Church. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse.
Butler, Samuel. Selections from Previous Works. With Remarks on Mental Evolution in Animals, and a Psalm of Montreal. London: Trübner & Co.
Church, Rev. R. W. Bacon. Harper & Brothers.
Croke, J. Greenbag. Lyrics of the Law. San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co.
Dale, T. N. The Outskirts of Physical Science. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 15, 1884.

The Week.

THE affairs of the firm of Grant & Ward grow more bewildering from day to day. "Ten millions of liabilities and no assets and no business," appears to be the showing of the bankrupt estate. It is now stated and generally believed that the "Government contracts" which the firm induced multitudes of innocent victims, male and female, to believe that they had under their control, yielding enormous profits, were altogether a myth, and that they never had a Government contract, great or small. The business of the concern consisted simply in taking in people's money and paying them large "profits" out of the principal as long as it lasted, and then going to smash. Its prototype may be found in the Royal Bengalee Life Assurance and Disinterested Loan Association, but whether the Montague Tigg of the concern is to be looked for in the person of Ferdinand Ward, or James D. Fish, or some less conspicuous but more cunning rascal, is not yet clear.

The failure seems to be the last efflorescence and crowning glory of Stalwartism. The name of General Grant was used as a general guarantee of firmness, solidity, and success in all the relations of life. The Government contracts upon which such tremendous profits were coming in were supposed to be awarded through his influence and that of his immediate friends and followers in politics. When this mine had been worked out, a lot of city contracts, quite as imaginary as the Government contracts, came to the front, and more money was got in by the promise of large profits from that source. How these profits were actually realized may be guessed by glancing at the city's deposit account in the Marine Bank. The city was issuing 3 per cent. revenue bonds, and Grant & Ward were bidding higher prices for them than anybody else would pay. Fish was a partner in the firm, and was also President of the Marine Bank, and the Marine Bank was one of the city's depository banks. The *modus operandi* for the realization of profits in city contracts was evidently to buy say $100,000 of city bonds, pay for them, and have the money deposited in the Marine Bank, then use the same money to buy another $100,000 worth, and have the money again deposited, and so on, selling or hypothecating the bonds meanwhile, and finally bursting and leaving no assets. The failure is the most colossal that ever took place among merely private firms in the United States and one of the most disgraceful.

The stock market has been in a state of nervous prostration ever since the collapse of the Marine Bank and Grant & Ward. So many bad things have cropped out one after another that the bulls are thoroughly demoralized. The failure of the Northwestern Car Company, of Stillwater, Minn.; the reported passing of the Union Pacific's dividend, which, although premature, is none the less believed to be inevitable; the prospect of a receivership for the Wabash Railway—which, however, is contradicted by a telegram from St. Louis—and a series of Canadian failures, have conspired to depress the whole list with slight exceptions, and to an extent hardly warranted by the general condition of trade and industry. It can no longer be said that trade is in a declining state. Low-water mark was evidently reached three months ago. Trade journals are pretty generally agreed that, although there has been no marked revival of activity, the shrinkage has ceased. The Marine Bank and Grant & Ward explosions were not due to general causes, but to transactions even worse than ordinary "kite-flying." They betoken no deep-seated disease in the financial world. Their effect upon the currents of business in Wall Street has been exaggerated to this extent. Yet it would be unsafe to predict anything like an early recovery from the feverish condition which that phenomenal catastrophe has produced.

An analysis by sections of the vote on the Tariff Bill shows that protection sentiments are making very little headway in the South. Of the forty-one Democrats who voted with the Republicans in favor of killing the bill, only four come from the South—one each from Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, and Louisiana. The State of Georgia, in which the growth of manufacturing interests has been especially marked, is not represented by a single protection vote, and South Carolina has only one, that of a colored man. Twelve of the forty-one are from Pennsylvania, ten from Ohio, six from New York, four from California, three from New Jersey, one from Illinois, and one from Connecticut. Of the 151 Democratic votes cast for the bill, eighty three are from the South and sixty-eight from the North.

Mr. Hewitt's tariff bill is a very meritorious measure, and is designed evidently to meet the objection raised against the "horizontal" feature of the Morrison bill. It seeks to accomplish tariff reduction with special reference to existing conditions, or what Mr. Hewitt considers to be existing conditions. Of course the views of other people may differ widely from his as to these conditions, and this difference of opinion will bring up the whole list of dutiable imports for debate seriatim—too wide a range of controversy to be entered upon with any prospect of success at so late a day in the session. The Republicans will oppose Mr. Hewitt's bill as strenuously as they opposed Mr. Morrison's. With them the tariff is not an economical question at all, but a game of political fence. Reduction of the revenue is nothing to them at the present time as compared with the chance of creating a division in the Democratic party in the Presidential campaign. Therefore Mr. Hewitt must look for no help on that side of the House. Judicious and discriminating reduction has no more attractions in that quarter than horizontal reduction. Nor is the bill likely to prove more satisfactory to Mr. Randall and his followers than the Morrison bill was. They are opposed to "meddling with the tariff." They desire to leave things as they are. Any bill which disturbs the existing status is as bad in their view as any other bill. There is little prospect, therefore, of any change in the aggregate vote favorable to Mr. Hewitt's bill as contrasted with Mr. Morrison's, while the element of time in which to consider it is now wanting.

The House Judiciary Committee are now considering various forms of the proposed constitutional amendment to prohibit the issue of legal tenders, and it is said by those who are active in the matter to be very desirable that there should be public expressions of opinion on the subject by bankers, merchants, savings-bank depositors, and all classes interested, without distinction of party. The fact is that there is no class not interested in the matter; but the subject presents two difficulties that are very serious: the first is the fact that the class which suffers most from paper money—the laboring population—the class most pinched by any fluctuation and unsteadiness in prices, is the class in which the belief in and longing for "fiat" money is now most prevalent. There is no large number of bankers, merchants, or business men who are hoping for an inflation of the currency by Congress, to remedy the stagnation in business, as there was several years ago. It is the labor-reformers, the anti-monopolists, and demagogues like Butler—that is, politicians who live on the delusions of the "toiling millions"—who represent the present paper-money movement; and the movement before the recent decision of the Supreme Court appeared to be making very little headway. What vitality it now has is due to the adhesion so suddenly and unexpectedly given by the Supreme Court to the extreme paper-money view of the Constitution; and any amendment introduced into Congress to deal with the difficulty must be directed in a certain sense against the court itself.

The newspaper members of the anti-Blaine syndicate of 1876 seem to be experiencing a good deal of annoyance from people who wish them to explain their conversion into admiring Blainites. It is not a pleasant or easy task, but they are slowly pulling themselves together for it. Mr. Halstead, who is also still suffering from the exhausting effects of his conversion on the silver question, writes a letter to the Washington correspondent of the *Herald*, in which he says that he is really not a Blaine but a Sherman man, and that the reason he does not now believe the charges against Mr. Blaine which he did believe in 1876, is that he thinks worse than ever of the Democratic party, has "lost faith in the efficacy of independent movements," is grateful to Mr. Blaine for defeating the third-term movement, and found when he sought to hunt up the facts against Mr. Blaine that "they failed to materialize." Moreover, he is inclined not to believe the charges against Mr. Blaine touching the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road, or the

Northern Pacific and other railroads, because President Garfield told him that Mr. Blaine fully acquiesced in his suggestion, made at his first Cabinet meeting, that every member of the Cabinet should mind his own business, and also that he himself (President Garfield) made the appointments on which Conkling resigned. This, like much of Mr. Halstead's ratiocination, seems to contain a deeply suppressed premise of gigantic dimensions. That Mr. Blaine's own letters "failed to materialize" is a grotesquely humorous way of saying that Mr. Halstead is determined, for reasons of his own, not to be influenced by them this year.

We understand that some of the promoters of the Dorsheimer Copyright Bill have made up their minds that there is little hope of passing the measure at the present session of Congress, and are now considering whether it will not be better to tack on to it a clause protecting the American publisher, thus changing the measure from an authors' to a publishers' copyright bill. On the principle of taking all that you can get, when you cannot get all that you want, it would certainly be foolish for the Authors' League, which now embraces every literary man of much distinction in the United States, to prevent Mr. Dorsheimer and the publishers from getting such a bill through Congress, if they wish to do so. But all that can be fairly expected of the League is that it should refrain from active opposition. What it has undertaken to do is not to make the business of publishing books in the United States more profitable, but to secure a right of property to a class long defrauded of it by the apathy and indifference of the public. Let the authors stick to this, and their final triumph is certain, though it may be delayed.

We think it may be worth while to suggest to Mr. Dorsheimer the fact that it is at least very doubtful whether such a bill as his can, in the existing state of the English law, be transformed into a publishers' copyright bill. The English law provides for an international authors' copyright with any country which will provide for the same in return. It has nothing to say on the subject of publishers, nor of protection, nor of the manufacture of books, and therefore, without a new special act of Parliament, a publishers' act passed here calling for reciprocity abroad would be so much waste paper. But is there any reason to believe that the English Parliament would pass such an act? The English publishers have no special desire that American publishers should take any of their business away from them, and they might fairly protest against the Legislature of a free-trade country making bargains with that of a protectionist country calculated and intended to build up a flourishing foreign business at their expense.

Charles O'Conor, whose long-expected death is announced, was the last of a great generation of lawyers. He was remarkable even among a host of distinguished competitors for legal attainments and mental vigor, but he was remarkable also for something rarer, and which grows rarer still in his profession, as in most others, as the years run by—an independence of character on which neither fear nor favor ever made the smallest impression. There have not been many conspicuous men in any calling in this State, or in any other, who remained through a long and laborious life so true to their own ideals of character and aim as he did, and who had, at the close of an illustrious career, so little to look back on in the way of compliance or pursuit which they would have been ashamed to own. It is not often that a lawyer is so successful in reaching the "shining table lands" of professional fame, or, in other words, in becoming and remaining the kind of advocate whom the books and the commencement orator describe for the benefit of the neophytes who every year enter on the thorny paths of the law. He owed no money and no reputation to any arts, as Burke said, but manly arts. No man ever paid him a fee for anything but the honest service of his brain, or ever long expected from him any service which a member of the bar ought not to render. He took with him into every court which he entered something which no client could bargain for, and which could not be estimated in dollars and cents—a self-respect which made base shifts and devices impossible to him. He was wanting in many of the things which in our time, or perhaps in any time, give a man what is called influence. He took but little account of the forces which at the present day make the road of the good man who seeks to leave his mark on his generation so full of deflections. His political ideas were worthier of Sir Thomas More than of the modern American statesman. But he was a great example of something which is much scarcer and more precious than any sort of practical talent, and that was a character which always rang true to the strokes both of good and evil fortune, and a simplicity of heart which lasted into extreme old age, and survived all the honors and rewards of a chosen and dearly loved calling.

Judge Reid, the Kentucky judge who was brutally assaulted in his chambers by a member of the bar, Mr. Corneilson, who suspected him of deciding, or helping to decide, against him in a case before the court, has refused to comply with the earnest solicitation of a large number of his friends and of the public, that he should murder or attempt to murder Corneilson. He is a candidate for the Court of Appeals, and it has been supposed that refusal to commit murder under these circumstances would lead to his defeat at the polls. The situation was rendered all the more embarrassing by the fact that he is an elder in the Presbyterian Church; but church membership does not in Kentucky relieve a man from his homicidal obligations. Judge Reid, however, to his honor be it said, has publicly refused either to take life or attempt to take it, or expose his own life in a private quarrel. He says he will not do it, be the consequences what they may. If he cannot be elected to the Court of Appeals without blood-stained hands, he will submit to defeat. This is probably the bravest thing done in Kentucky within the present generation. There is not a murderer in the State who would have the pluck to do it, even in liquor. It is gratifying to hear that warm congratulation and approval is pouring in on him from some of the best men in the State. To make the affair complete as a sign of advancing civilization, the lawyer ought now to get about two years' hard labor in the penitentiary.

Another good sign in the same State is an action brought in the United States Circuit Court by a prominent lawyer named Garrigus, formerly of Russellville, Ky., against two other members of the bar, Messrs. Stanley and Frazier, of that place. They tried to murder him last year, and instead of trying to murder them in return when he got well of his wound, he moved to Indiana, and having become a non-resident, now brings his suit in the United States Court for $80,000 damages. This also is a brave act, but of course it is not so brave as if he had remained in the State. It shows, however, the slow dawning in the Kentucky mind of the idea that it is honorable and patriotic for the civilized men in a civilized community to leave the redress of private injuries to the law, and that no man should be judge in his own cause.

It looks now as if the English Conservatives were coming to the caucus at last, in spite of the horror which the spectacle of its working among the Liberals has excited among them. The revolt of Lord Randolph Churchill against the leadership both of Sir Stafford Northcote and Lord Salisbury, which is said to have led to a sharp quarrel with the former, is leading pretty plainly to a compromise which will turn over the party management to some sort of representative body, which of course will be a caucus, with all its attendant horrors. Lord Randolph's head appears to be filled with Disraeli's idea of a Conservative democracy—that is, of a democracy which would let itself be governed by "its betters"—as nearly as possible a contradiction in terms. He thinks that active steps should be taken to get hold of the new voters who are coming in under the impending Franchise Bill, so that they would use the vote simply to put gentlemen of the Tory persuasion in power. This is a close approach to the Bonapartist idea in France, which consists in the inalienable right of every citizen to elect the eldest male of the Bonapartes to the throne. The difficulty which all Tories have in dealing with any kind of democracy is that they cannot admit the doctrine of equality, and yet this is now the only political doctrine which modern democracy seems to care much about.

When a steamship comes into collision with a sailing vessel, the rules of the sea settle it that the steamer is to blame unless there is a thick fog or the ship's lights are not burning. It is the duty of the steamer to keep out of the sailing vessel's way, and to run no risks about it. Consequently, there is no doubt that some one on board the *State of Florida* neglected his duty, particularly as the collision occurred on a bright starlight night, when the sailing vessel's lights were plainly visible. The question concerning the accident

which is now of most importance is, why "water-tight compartments" do not keep ships afloat for a longer period after the hull has been seriously damaged. We can recall no case in which they proved to be of much use except that of the *Arizona* when she ran into an iceberg. In every other the ships with the water-tight compartments seem to go down as easily as if they were open within from stem to stern. The common explanation is that the communicating apertures between the compartments are usually left open, the intention of the captain being to have them closed whenever he sees that there is going to be a collision, or that his vessel is going to strike on a rock or an iceberg, and that then, being otherwise occupied at the moment of the accident, he forgets all about it until the ship is full of water, or until he is in the water himself. If this be true, it would seem as if there ought to be a committee of passengers to see that the bulkheads are kept closed up.

The municipal elections in Paris have been going badly for the Moderate Republicans. The extreme Radical or Socialist element has made heavy gains. Curiously enough it was not Radical but Monarchist gains that the Republicans seem to have been afraid of before the election. It was against the Monarchists that the Republican newspapers urged the electors to be on their guard. The Monarchists had in the last Council ten members all told. They hoped to gain about as many more, which would, they thought, give them the balance of power between the Republicans and the Intransigeants. They could, of course, make no use of this in a body whose powers were so restricted, beyond advertising their existence and slightly increased strength; but they attach a good deal of importance even to this. As a matter of fact, they have gained about five members, while the Intransigeants have gained heavily, so that probably there will be no "balance of power" after all. In truth, the Monarchists have been so anxious to show themselves that in some places—Corsica, for instance—they have made common cause with the Reds, and issued combination tickets. In Paris, too, the Socialists undoubtedly received a good deal of encouragement from them, open or secret. The result of the election thus far, and particularly the heavy increase of the Intransigeant vote, seems to fill the Republicans with dismay.

As regards immediate practical results the affair is of no great consequence, because the legislative powers of the Municipal Council are very limited. It votes the municipal budget, but under the strict supervision of the Prefect of the Seine, who can disallow any items he pleases. If it had a chance, it would make large donations to workingmen in support of strikes, if not set up public workshops. During the past winter it has made more than one attempt to vote money in aid of the strikers in the Southern coal mines. The election means, more than anything else, that the discontented working-class population of Paris has greatly increased, and that it wants something—it does not well know what—out of the Government. To the Royalists and Bonapartists all this seems clear gain. They know that the Government will not be allowed to fall into the hands of the Communards, but they think that if property should become alarmed again by the apparent increase of their power, the Republic would be seriously endangered.

One of the most curious state papers of recent date is the Pope's Encyclical against the Freemasons. To most people who do not belong to the order, the Freemasons are a harmless body of persons, who amuse themselves with secret and pompous ceremonies, and practise brother kindliness with somewhat more emphasis towards their fellow-members than towards the rest of the world. But the Pope's opinion of them, like all Papal opinions, is traditional—that is, comes down without change from a period when secret societies were formidable and had political aims. The Church began denouncing the Freemasons in 1738, and every Pope since has considered it a duty to show them up as enemies of religion and morals. Leo XIII., in the present Encyclical, handles them without gloves, and takes no note of any change either in them or in the world which supports them. They are the children of Satan. They are trying to ruin the Holy Church and deprive Christian nations of their religion. They have made in recent times incredible progress. They resort both to audacity and cunning to make their way. Their power now in modern states amounts almost to sovereignty. They are trying to substitute for the religious and social discipline of Christianity a new one, of which the fundamental principles or laws are borrowed from "Naturalism." They advocate the separation of Church and state. They attack the Catholic religion. They would like to cut down the number of priests. They are opposed to the temporal power of the Pope. They are ready to destroy the Papacy itself. They treat the existence of God as an open question. They deny the fall of Adam. They are the authors of "realism" in literature and art. They treat marriage as a civil contract. They say that all men have equal rights. In fact, they are the enemies of everything that is sacred or valuable in modern society. The document is enormously long, and concludes with a call for energetic resistance to these wretches, and invokes for that purpose the assistance of the Virgin Mary, St. Michael, St. Joseph, St. Peter, and St. Paul.

Recent statistics show that the cost of living at German universities, notwithstanding the fact that the Germans are becoming fonder of spending money than they once were, is still very low as compared with that in America. Rent, food, and clothes are all cheap, and there it is not the fashion, as with us, to be lavish, so that the competition in expenditure, of which so many well-meaning but weak-minded American undergraduates are the victims, is practically unknown. A thousand dollars a year is the figure now generally given in estimation of the ordinary expense at a "crack" American college; and probably a considerable part of this is to be attributed to the general lavishness prevailing outside. The tone of American life is not simple, and comparing the general scale of living, inside and outside, now and twenty years ago, we doubt if the undergraduates have done more than keep up with the rest of us. The only people whom we discipline into plain living and high thinking are those engaged in the work of teaching; we make that calling as unattractive to men of ability as possible. An able professor, with a family, screwed down to $4,000 or $5,000 a year, and surrounded by undergraduates living in splendor and luxury, may be pardoned if he sighs when he thinks of the position of the learned in Germany.

Midhat Pasha, who has just died, was probably the last statesman, in the ordinary sense of the term, that Turkey will produce. He figured prominently on the scene as long as anybody thought reform and resuscitation were possible in the Ottoman Empire. Since his retirement the only question about Turkey which interests observers is, How long will it last? That will not be answered in Constantinople, and probably no attempt will be made to answer it until after Bismarck's death. Austria and Russia will then undoubtedly have something to say about it, and will try to say it.

Coloman Tisza, who, since 1876, has stood at the head of the Hungarian Cabinet, has been extraordinarily successful in his dealings with the nationally disaffected portions of the population. He has recently brought about a reconciliation between the dominant element of the country, the Magyars, and the Serbs of southern Hungary, heretofore defiantly hostile to the Magyar hegemony reëstablished by the agreement with Austria, which Beust and Deák carried through in 1867. These Slavs had, in 1848–9, waged a Vendean War against the revolutionary government of Hungary, and had subsequently been rewarded for their reactionary services by the erection of their territories into a separate crownland of Austria, under the name of Serb Voivodina. This creation lived only a decade, but the national aspirations of the Serbs of Hungary, fomented by the success of their brethren beyond the Turkish border, survived in full force, being fanned by the clergy on one side and by radical agitators on the other. Tisza has, for years, unyieldingly fought against both of these, not without occasional stretching of his constitutional powers. A considerable recent change in the disposition of the royal government of Servia toward Austria-Hungary finally gave him an opportunity of using conciliation and the blandishments of patronage, and, with consummate skill, he has succeeded in creating a strong Serb party ready to recognize Magyar supremacy and the fundamental laws of 1867, and to support the present Government party, on condition that the Serbs and their Church shall fully enjoy all the fruits of national and religious equality guaranteed by the Constitution. The new Serb programme was adopted at an assembly of notables convened in Buda-Pesth at the close of March, and was confirmed last month by a larger and more popular gathering at Great-Kikinda. This event promises to be of the highest importance in the history of Hungary.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 7, to TUESDAY, May 13, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE failure of the Marine Bank and of Grant & Ward, of this city, continues to be the principal topic of interest in financial and business circles. Although more than a week has elapsed since the failure its extent is still indefinite. During the week the Grants, Ward, and James D. Fish have made assignments of their property. The amount involved in the failure of Grant & Ward is variously estimated at from eight to ten million dollars. Their affairs are in such confusion that definite figures are as yet unavailable. Mr. Ward, the member of the firm to whose wild schemes the disaster is ascribed, is aiding in the work of investigation. He is constantly under the supervision of detectives, and it is asserted that he will be arrested on criminal charges. The affairs of the bank have been in the hands of Examiner Scriba, whose report has been forwarded to the Government in Washington. It is believed that the stockholders have lost everything, and that the depositors will not be paid in full. Walter S. Johnston, of Philadelphia, was on Tuesday appointed receiver of the bank.

The financial situation was still further complicated late on Tuesday by the report that the Second National Bank, of this city, had lost about $2,000,000 through the speculations of its President, John C. Eno. About midnight the Directors issued a notice that whatever loss had been incurred had been made up; that the capital stock was intact, and that the bank was prepared to meet its obligations on demand. No doubt is expressed as to the solvency of the bank.

The Northwestern Car and Manufacturing Company of Stillwater, Minn., of which United States Senator D. M. Sabin is President, has been put into the hands of a receiver. The failure of the Marine Bank of this city precipitated the trouble. The liabilities are roughly put at $1,000,000, and the assets at $4,000,000. Senator Sabin on Monday said that the company would pay its debts dollar for dollar, and that, with the extension that would be asked, it would be able within a reasonable time to resume.

Mr. Edmunds introduced on Wednesday a bill in the Senate to place General Grant on the retired list, and in doing so significantly said that he commended the measure to the Military Committee for reasons which every one could understand. Mr. Edmunds clearly referred to the New York failure. Mr. Cox introduced a similar bill in the House on Monday.

The Senate on Tuesday passed without debate the bill providing that "in recognition of distinguished services rendered to the United States, General U. S. Grant, late General of the Army, be placed on the retired list with the rank and full pay of General of the Army."

The United States Senate on Thursday passed the House Shipping Bill, amended so as to give the Secretary of the Treasury power to appoint the Shipping Commissioners.

Mr. Hewitt (Dem., N. Y.) introduced in the House on Monday a tariff bill which proposes a reduction of from 10 to 20 per cent. on a number of the existing schedules, and makes a number of additions to the free list. A bill for the abolition of the tobacco tax was introduced on the same day.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday non-concurred in the Senate amendments to the Fitz-John Porter Bill restoring him to the army, and the bill went to a conference committee.

The River and Harbor Bill reported on Wednesday in the House appropriates $12,619,100 upon the engineers' estimates of $35,301,885. This is about $6,000,000 less than the bill which was passed in 1882 over the President's veto.

One million dollars for the New Orleans Industrial and Cotton Exposition were appropriated by the House on Thursday.

Now that the Morrison Tariff Bill has been defeated, the programme of the majority of Democrats in the House is to finish the absolutely necessary business as soon as possible, to attempt to transact no other business, and to adjourn.

Ex-Senator Spencer has decided to bring suit against Attorney-General Brewster for causing him to be arrested on a telegraphic order in Nevada, and bringing him to Washington on a charge of contempt of court in connection with the Star-route cases. He places the damages at $20,000.

The Kentucky Democratic State Convention, held on Wednesday, recommended Speaker Carlisle as the Presidential candidate. The platform denounced the present tariff. Free-trade delegates-at-large to the Democratic National Convention were elected, one of whom is Henry Watterson.

The Independent Republicans of this State have issued an address to the delegates to the Chicago Convention, urging upon them the necessity of nominating a candidate who will not "provoke popular distrust and create bitter dissension within the party, as well as give impulse and strength to the opposition outside of it." It points out that any candidate would come within this category who (1) has been prominent in faction fights, (2) whose record is tainted with an unsound money system, (3) who is likely to launch the Government into a fantastic foreign policy, and (4) whose record is unclean or justly assailable.

In the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday, when Mr. Oliver's proposed amendment to the Constitution, guaranteeing to cities the right of municipal self-government, was announced, Mr. Roosevelt opposed it. Its passage would, he said, practically prevent the enactment of such reform bills as were passed this year. He believed the passage of the bill would be disastrous to good government. The measure was virtually killed by being recommitted to the Judiciary Committee. On Thursday the Assembly defeated the Woman Suffrage Bill, 57 to 62.

Governor Cleveland sent a message to the Assembly on Monday night, calling their attention to defects in the New York municipal reform bills, and asking that they be remedied.

Mr. Roosevelt's bill for reforming the Bureau of Elections in this city was defeated in the Assembly on Tuesday by a vote of 58 to 63. Thirty-nine Republicans, under the influence of John J. O'Brien, cast the votes which killed the bill. On the same day a bill was passed which provides that all telegraphic, telephonic, and electric-light wires and cables in New York and Brooklyn must go under the surface before November 1, 1885, and all poles must be removed from sight. Two of the city reform bills which the Governor sent back were corrected as he desired and passed by the Assembly on Tuesday night. The Arcade Railroad Bill was vetoed by the Governor.

A bill to make the Brooklyn bridge free to foot passengers was defeated by the State Senate on Friday.

The State Senate on Thursday concurred in the Assembly resolution to adjourn on May 16 at noon.

The *Alert*, the last of the Greely Relief Steamers, sailed from the Brooklyn Navy-yard on Saturday for the North.

The steamship *Titania*, of Glasgow, arrived at Quebec on Wednesday, having on board twenty-four of the crew of the wrecked steamer *State of Florida*. They brought word that the *State of Florida* had been sunk by collision with the bark *Ponema*, from Chatham, N. B. One hundred and twenty-three souls went down with the steamer, and twelve with the bark, making the total loss of life 135. Forty-four of those on the steamer were saved and twelve of those on the bark. The stories of the survivors show that the collision occurred about 10 o'clock P. M. on April 18th, in mid-ocean. The night was clear and the sea was calm. The bark crashed into the steamer amidships. A scene of great confusion ensued. Four boats were safely launched, but the majority of those saved were members of the crew. The steamer went down in twelve minutes after the collision. The boats kept well together, and on April 20th they were picked up by the *Theresa*, bound for Quebec. Twenty-four of the forty-four rescued were transferred to another bark two days later, and later thence to the *Titania*. Surgeon Steele exonerates the captain from all blame. It is said that after the collision the chief-engineer started the steamer ahead at full speed in order to keep her afloat by means of the steam pumps. This made it difficult for any one to get into the boats after they had been launched.

On Thursday morning the coasting steamer *City of Portland*, plying between Portland, Me., and St. John, N. B., struck on Grindstone Ledge, Owl's Head. She had seventy passengers on board, who, with the crew, were all rescued by another steamer. The vessel and cargo are a total loss.

A statue of Chief-Justice Marshall was unveiled in Washington on Saturday. Chief-Justice Waite delivered an address.

The body of Dr. Samuel D. Gross, the distinguished Philadelphia surgeon, was cremated, in accordance with his wishes, on Thursday at Washington, Pa.

John F. Slater died in Norwich, Conn., on Wednesday, aged about sixty-eight. He was a son of one of the pioneer cotton manufacturers of this country, and amassed great wealth. In 1882 he attracted attention by giving $1,000,000 for the education of the negroes of the South. This sum is in charge of a Board of Trustees, of which ex-President Hayes is a member, and the income of it is distributed under their direction to the deserving institutions of the South. The Rev. Atticus G. Haygood is the manager of the fund under the trustees.

Charles O'Conor, the distinguished lawyer, died at his residence in Nantucket, Mass., on Monday afternoon, from the effects of a severe cold contracted about three weeks ago. His mind was clear to the last. In 1875 he suffered a prolonged and serious illness, and was several times reported dead, but his remarkable constitution saved him. He was born in this city January 21, 1804, his parents being Irish. He had an elementary education and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1824. As early as 1829 he achieved prominence in the courts, and from that time forward he was employed in some of the most celebrated cases, notably the Jack slave case in 1835, the Lispenard will case in 1843, the Forrest divorce case in 1851, the Lemmon slave case in 1856, and the litigation connected with the Jumel estate. In 1873 he was prominent in the prosecution of the Tweed ring cases in New York city. He served in the constitutional conventions of 1846 and 1864. In 1872 he was nominated for the Presidency by the Independent Democracy and labor reformers. He declined both nominations, but received about 20,000 votes.

Cyrus H. McCormick, the inventor of the reaper, and one of the richest men in Chicago, died on Tuesday at the age of seventy-five.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Monday night Sir Michael Hicks-Beach moved again his motion of May 2, censuring the Government for its course in refusing to rescue General Gordon. In the course of his speech he charged the Government with deserting a brave soldier and Christian hero in his hour of peril. When Mr. Gladstone rose to reply he was greeted with prolonged applause. He strenuously denied that the Government had deserted General Gordon. "The demand of the honorable

gentleman," he insisted, "amounted to a war of conquest against a people struggling to be free. The war which the Mahdi is waging is a war for freedom. It is that which the honorable gentleman wishes England to put down." The real object of the motion was, Mr. Gladstone declared, to displace the Government. He read official despatches to prove General Gordon's present security and to justify the Government's course. "I have a duty," Mr. Gladstone said further, "to General Gordon and a duty to the country; both will be performed. The Government declines to enter upon a vast scheme of conquest to please a captious Opposition." Mr. Gladstone spoke for more than an hour. On Tuesday Mr. W. E. Forster, late Chief Secretary for Ireland, violently attacked the Government's Egyptian policy. The Marquis of Hartington replied. After a vigorous debate, which was closed by Sir Stafford Northcote, the motion of censure was rejected by a vote of 303 to 275. Thirty-two Parnellites voted with the minority. A number of Liberals, including W. E. Forster and Mr. Goschen, abstained from voting. The small majority is a disappointment for the Government.

Mr. Gladstone was greeted with hisses and groans at the opening of the Health Exhibition on Thursday, in token of disapprobation of his treatment of Gordon.

A private meeting of the Conservative members of the House of Commons was held on Friday in London, at which Lord Randolph Churchill intimated his decision to support the leaders of the party. He strongly advocated unity, and the general impression is that he gained a substantial victory. The Tories believe that the split in the party is ended, but the Liberals expect that it will soon reopen. It is understood that Lord Randolph has withdrawn his resignation of the position of Chairman of the Conservative Union.

The House of Commons on Thursday, by a vote of 124 to 21, passed the Cattle Disease Bill to a third reading.

Daly, Egan, and McDonnell were given a further hearing at Birmingham, England, on Saturday. They were charged with treason-felony, and were committed to jail to await trial at Warwick.

It is said that a convention of Irish-American delegates will soon be held in Paris, under the presidency of James Stephens, for the purpose of forming a new organization, which will probably be called "The Irish Liberators." The objects of the Convention will be to consider exhaustively the Irish question, and to denounce the nefarious operations of the dynamite invincible factions. The Convention will endeavor to seek a medium ground between extreme and immoral violence and constitutional agitation. Stephens has issued a circular to Irish Nationals in America stating that he has consented to place himself again at their head, because the moment has arrived when a union of all Irishmen is possible. As soon as he receives answers from America the new conference of Irish leaders will meet in Paris. Stephens declares that Ireland shall be an independent republic before he dies.

Mr. James Russell Lowell presided on Thursday over the annual meeting in honor of Wordsworth, the poet, in London. In the course of his address Mr. Lowell said Wordsworth had no sense of proportion, and no instinct of discrimination or subordination. All his thoughts, emotions, and sensations were of equal value in his own eyes. Mr. Lowell pointed out that, if Wordsworth was not a great artist in the technical sense of the word, he had the gift in some respects. He was a rare being, greatly and suddenly inspired.

Mr. Herbert Spencer says that on account of his health he will not visit Australia.

Judah P. Benjamin, the distinguished lawyer and ex-member of the Confederate Government, died in Paris on Wednesday, at the age of seventy-two. He was born in the West Indies, of Jewish parents, who in 1816 moved to North Carolina. After rising to early eminence as a lawyer in New Orleans, he entered politics, and, when only forty years of age, was elected to the United States Senate, where he gained reputation as an orator and constitutional lawyer. He withdrew from the Senate in 1861, and became Attorney-General of the Confederacy. Later he was appointed Acting Secretary of War, but he resigned in February, 1862, because he had been censured by a Congressional Committee. President Davis, however, held him in high esteem and made him Secretary of State, which position he held until the downfall of the Confederacy. He escaped to the Bahamas in an open boat, and soon after went to England, where he was admitted to the bar in 1866. His book on Sales (1868) attracted attention to him, and he soon became one of the most distinguished advocates of the English bar. He retired from practice last year and was honored with a banquet by the bench and bar of England.

The preparations for the relief expedition to Khartum are being accelerated with a new vigor. It is now decided that the expedition will start in July. The strength of the force has not yet been determined, but will probably number 8,000 men, including the Indian contingent. The Intelligence Department of the British War Office has instructed the authorities at Cairo to send survey officers to report upon the relative advantages of the routes by way of Suakim and by way of Massowah. From this it is supposed that there will be two lines of operations—that the main expedition will proceed up the Nile and the other by the Red Sea.

Messengers who have been carrying letters to Khartum reported on Saturday at Cairo that they were unable to reach that place. They state that dense masses of Arabs surround Khartum. General Gordon made an attack upon the rebels on the White Nile, between the 13th and 15th of April. The rebels were driven out of their encampments.

It is said that Zebehr Pasha has declared that he will not rest until he has killed General Gordon. The Mudir of Dongola telegraphed to Cairo on Monday that the situation there is alarming, and the inhabitants are in a state of panic.

The Porte, it is said, has replied to the Powers, expressing adherence to the Egyptian conference, provided it shall embrace the entire question. Italy is desirous of occupying a leading position in the approaching conference. All the Powers, with the exception of England and France, favor this. Indeed, Austria and Germany wish to place Italy on a perfect equality with France in the discussion of all Egyptian questions.

The Italian Government will support the demands of France in the Egyptian Conference, to the effect that the Conference shall have power to discuss fully the question of the international control of Egypt.

Several points of disagreement have arisen between the Porte and the United States. The American squadron recently arrived at Tenedos. From there Rear-Admiral Baldwin, the commander, telegraphed to General Wallace, American Minister to Turkey, that it was his intention to come to Constantinople. On account of the size of the *Quinnebaug*, which is larger than the vessels allowed by the treaties to remain stationed in the Bosphorus, a firman was necessary, and was granted. The Sultan has shown Admiral Baldwin a number of notable courtesies.

Midhat Pasha died in Constantinople on Sunday at the age of sixty-two. He early entered into official life, and first came into prominence by the effective measures with which he put down brigandage in Rumelia. For this he was made a member of the Grand Council when only thirty-five. He travelled in Europe, studying the different constitutions with a view to administrative reforms. In 1860, on his return to Turkey, he was made a pasha and Governor of several provinces. The reforms which he immediately instituted were so successful that the Government resolved to extend them throughout the Ottoman empire. He aided in framing the law of the Vilayets, which is now the basis of local administration and which was an important reform measure, as it gave to Christians certain necessary civil rights. While Grand Vizier he was deposed from office by palace intrigues, and finally in 1875 he joined in the movement by which Sultan Abdul Aziz was deposed and probably murdered. Soon after, he was made Grand Vizier, but was deposed in seven weeks and banished. In 1878 he was made Governor of Syria. An investigation into the death of Abdul Aziz was begun, but was not pursued for fear of implicating Midhat and other pashas.

Advices from China received on Sunday say that Captain Fournier, acting on behalf of the French Government, and Li Hung Chang, for China, have signed a treaty, under the provisions of which China recognizes a French protectorate over Tonquin and Anam, with the existing frontiers. The provinces of Quang-Tung, Kuang Hi, and Yunnan will be open to trade with France. No indemnity is to be paid to France. China will at once withdraw her troops from Tonquin. The treaty has been ratified at Peking.

The latest Chinese advices state that Li Hung Chang has been invested with full powers for dealing with the whole Anam question. The preliminary negotiations regarding the affairs of Tonquin are making favorable progress.

Dissensions have arisen between the Chinese and Black Flags in Tonquin, and desperate fighting has taken place.

France has refused to recognize the Iglesias Government in Peru.

Prince Jerome (Plon-Plon) in replying to the request of his partisans to explain the position of his son, Prince Victor, said: "Inasmuch as Prince Victor has already declared his respect for and submission to his father's will, it is needless to submit any further question to him. The question whether France shall be an empire or a republic is of secondary importance. The people will settle this. A republic cannot be displeasing to a descendant of the First Consul."

In the elections for Municipal Councillors now proceeding in Paris, the Revolutionists have made large and the Monarchists small gains. The Ministry has been rebuffed.

Michael Sturdza, ex-Prince of Moldavia, is dead at the age of eighty-nine. He was reigning Prince from 1834 to 1849.

During the debate on the Anti-Socialist Law in the German Reichstag on Friday, Prince Bismarck, in the course of his defence of the measure, said if the bill should be rejected the Government would discuss it with another Parliament. If another Parliament should likewise reject the bill, the Government would be exonerated from all responsibility, and could regard the further development of social democracy with a quiet conscience. The bill was passed to a second reading on Saturday by a vote of 189 to 157, and was finally passed on Monday night.

The Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt has contracted a morganatic marriage with a Russian Countess. He was the husband of the late Princess Alice of England, and, it is asserted, would have married Princess Beatrice if the British Parliament had passed the Deceased Wife's Sister Bill.

The steamer *Faraday* began to lay the shore end of the Bennett-Mackey cable, in Dover Bay, N. S., on Wednesday.

Holmes and Bracken, the two Americans arrested in Halifax about eight months ago with dynamite in their possession, were sentenced on Wednesday to six months' imprisonment.

THE WALL STREET SCANDAL.

THE affairs of Grant & Ward continue to be the chief subject of public interest, overtopping for the moment the struggle for the Presidential nomination. The enormous liabilities and the paucity of assets disclosed give a unique character to the failure, and lead to the inquiry how it was possible for General Grant and his sons to be so egregiously deceived as to the nature of the business they were doing, and the sources of the profits they were receiving. That they were deceived there seems to be no doubt. It would appear that ex-Senator Chaffee, of Colorado, an experienced man of business, and one not unfamiliar with the ways of Wall Street, was deceived to the extent of at least half a million dollars, and that other capitalists who have never been accounted fools were taken in by the promise of profits far in excess of any legitimate or honest returns in any department of business.

The principal bonanza paraded before the eyes of greedy investors consisted of profits derived or expected from Government contracts. It was pretended that General Grant had facilities for controlling such contracts which no other person could command; but what these contracts were, none of the victims, not even Mr. Chaffee himself, who had had abundant experience in public affairs, took pains to inquire. It is related that one man, who had incautiously invested $200,000 in Grant & Ward, on the strength of Government contracts, did go to Washington and endeavor to get a list of these contracts, in order to learn how much profit might be expected from them, and that he returned to New York and drew out his money in breathless haste. It is presumed that this prudent gentleman found that there were no Government contracts standing in the name of Grant & Ward, either as principals or assignees, and that the whole story was a fiction invented to entrap the unwary.

It seems not to have occurred to anybody except this gentleman to inquire what is the common rate of profit derivable from Government contracts, or what great works the Government was carrying on, involving the disbursement of large sums of money. It was well known that all Government contracts have to be let to the lowest bidder, and that competition in securing them is as active as in any other line of business. It was well known that the last River and Harbor Bill failed, and that the Star-route contracts had come to an untimely end. What other Government contracts were available to constitute a basis for the operations of Grant & Ward? The steel cruisers were known to be under the control of John Roach and other well-known ship-builders, who are not in the habit of paying more than six per cent. per annum for the use of money. The horizon of possible Government contracts may be scanned without disclosing any but the scantiest source of gain for a private firm in Wall Street, yet it is clear that these supposed profits constituted the chief attraction to gullible investors. The fact that they were undefined and mysterious was an allurement in itself: *omne ignotum pro magnifico.* Another allurement, undoubtedly, was the supposition that the Government is in the habit of paying two prices for everything it wants—that is, of being swindled on its contracts; for nobody could suppose that profits ranging from 3 to 5 per cent. a month could be made out of the Government without fraud somewhere.

The conclusion is irresistible that a large number of persons were drawn into the maelstrom by a belief held out to them that General Grant's influence was used, in some highly improper way, to the detriment of the Government and the benefit of Grant & Ward, and that they were induced to part with their money by a desire to share in these illicit gains. How these misrepresentations came to be made will probably be shown in the sequel. That Gen. Grant was as much deceived as anybody else is evident from the fact that he lost his own money in common with others. But how the Government-contract fable could have got such wide circulation and wrought such enormous mischief without his knowledge, is an unsolved problem.

The insolvent firm, consisting of General Grant, Ferdinand Ward, U. S. Grant, jr., and James D. Fish, on Thursday made an assignment of their property for the benefit of their creditors. The assignment, like everything else connected with this curious concern, is surrounded with mystery. It secures a list of preferred creditors, but without fixing the amount of their claims or describing their nature, except that they grow out of certain notes, checks, and contracts made by the firm. The holders of these claims, of course, know what they are, and some of the members of the bankrupt firm may know too, but the other creditors must be almost as much in the dark as to their position as they were before the assignment. Jesse R. Grant and Frederick D. Grant also made assignments, the former giving preferences amounting to $95,000, the latter's amounting to over $243,000. Mr. Fish, too, made an individual assignment for the benefit of his creditors to a separate assignee, providing that his estate shall be first applied to the discharge of his liability "as sole principal debtor to any person or persons, individual or firm, which is unsecured for any loans or advances, or for personal or professional services, or for personal bills incurred by him, and also to the payment and satisfaction in full of any obligation and liability to or in respect of any trust fund or estate"; second, to the payment of all his obligations to the Marine Bank; third, to the payment of any obligation or liability of the assignor as endorser or guarantor upon notes or obligations of the firm of Grant & Ward, which were discounted for him or at his request, and of which he received the proceeds, by whomsoever held other than the Marine Bank; and fourth, to the payment of any other individual obligations or liabilities not before provided for.

These preferences may all be perfectly honest, although it is, of course, impossible for active partners of a man like Ward—one of whose transactions on the eve of his insolvency was to draw for $215,000 on a bank in which he had a deposit of a few hundred dollars—to escape the suspicion naturally produced by their close connection with him; and the case will serve all the better on this account to show the necessity which exists for the abolition, through the passage of a bankrupt law, of the whole system of preferences. These are by the laws of this State made legal, because, as long as a man is not actually insolvent, he may do what he pleases with his property. He may, for instance, and does every day, secure particular creditors by pledges of property of which there is no recorded evidence; and he may go on doing this until he has no property left. This being the case, there seems at first to be no reason why he should not be entitled to prefer, in an assignment embracing his whole property, the creditors whom he might have preferred without an assignment at all. But the difference is, that few people make an assignment until they have reached a hopeless position; they resort to an assignment almost entirely for the purpose of freeing themselves from liabilities and starting afresh.

The theory that under these circumstances a debtor will sit down, make out an inventory of his assets, and then arrange his preferences so as to secure those creditors who, as a matter of justice and fair dealing, ought to be secured, postponing his friends and family and himself, could only be true in a society in which the golden rule, or what the scientific people call "altruism," was the ordinary governing motive—in which each party to a commercial transaction looked out for the other's interest as his own. As a matter of fact, what happens in the case of insolvency when the law permits preferences, is that the debtor has simply an additional weapon for his own protection in his battle with the enemy, which he ought not to have, and of this he avails himself as far as he can. The limit is fixed entirely by his own conscience or that of his lawyer.

The less conscience he has, the more disposed he is to swindle, the more certain it is that he will use the law as a cover for some kind of cheat. In most cases he carefully prepares a confederate beforehand to play the part of preferred creditor when the crash comes: the law is used most often and most successfully by the very class against whom the mercantile community ought to be most thoroughly protected. If there were no law on the subject, the question of the distribution of an insolvent's estate would be simply one of common honesty and fair dealing, to be determined by the courts, in which the careful and prudent creditors would come off best, and the imprudent ones lose by their reckless confidence. In many cases the insolvent would not be discharged, and he would have to go to jail, and there he would remain until he found some friend to take him out. To enable him to get rid of his debts by turning over all his property to his creditors is no doubt a much more sensible plan, but to permit him at the same time to distribute his property as he pleases is a mere premium on fraud, and is one of the things which tend to make any place where they are permitted a swindlers' paradise. A bankrupt law may not work perfectly in practice, but it is at least vastly better than this system; for it prevents the debtor, as far as possible, from being a judge in his own case.

THE NEW YORK INDEPENDENTS.

THE size and character of the Independent vote in this State has for some weeks past been the subject of much undisguisedly anxious discussion among the friends of Mr. Blaine. The Philadelphia *Press* and *Times* have taken the most prominent part in it. The subject is a very difficult one to handle with safety. The reason they discuss it at all is, of course, that they think that Mr. Blaine has something to fear from the New York Independents, and yet it will not do to admit this openly. It is, however, no easy matter to keep talking about a thing because you fear it, and yet not let it be known that you fear it. Then, again, they have to make it appear that the Independents are after all a small body, but have to do this in such a way as not to offend them in case they should turn out to be a large body. They are trying, in short, to imitate the sportsman who, being uncertain about what he saw among the trees, shot in such a way as to miss if it was a cow, but kill if it was a deer.

Of course this produces a great deal of rather amusing hypothesis and qualification and reserve, but it makes very interesting reading. Occasionally, in a spasm of audacity, as if they could not bear the nervous strain a minute longer, they boldly declare that the only Independents Mr. Blaine has to fear are a small party of free-traders—generally "a cab-load"—and that their true and only objection to him is that he is a protectionist. A day or two later there will be another article admitting that the Independents are not all free-traders, but are really a cab-load of cranks. Then there will be another admitting that there are more than a cab-load, but that what they dislike is not Mr. Blaine, but "the Machine," and Mr. Blaine, as everybody knows, has no machine and is the foe of all machines. Therefore, it cannot be true that the New York Independents will not have him. Still, if they will not have him, it is of no great consequence, for everybody knows they do not number over "20,000 all told between Boston and San Francisco." And so it goes on day after day.

The address of the Independents, published on Tuesday, contains a great deal of weighty matter, but there is one little passage in it which we commend to the careful attention of all persons who, for any reason, are interested in speculating what they amount to as a political force in this State. It is this:

"The undersigned emphatically disclaim any purpose of dictating the nomination to be made by the Convention or influencing its action by threats. There are those among us who, having always voted the Republican ticket, would now support any fairly nominated Republican candidate. But they know also that, in the event of an unwise nomination, a very large number of their Republican friends would not be governed by the same idea of party loyalty, and that as the change of only one Republican vote in each school district in this State would wipe out a Republican majority equal to that of 1880, and as the large Independent vote would inevitably become hostile, the overwhelming disaster of 1882 would, in such a case, be very likely to be repeated."

This is the whole matter in a nut-shell. Nobody knows how large the Independent vote of this State is. In 1882 it developed enormous strength. The lesson of the election of that year was not that it could be counted on for such a majority again, but that there is in New York a body of voters of unknown amount who cannot be looked to for strict party fidelity, and who, owing to the nearly equal strength of the faithful in both parties—so nearly equal that a change of one vote in each school district is enough to give victory to either side—can, if they exert themselves, not only defeat either party, but defeat it overwhelmingly. It may be that they only number 20,000, or that they number 200,000, but it makes no difference which. The important thing to know is that they number *enough* to give the State to whichever party they please. In warning a man not to put his fingers under a trip-hammer, it is mere waste of time to explain to him in figures the exact force of the blow which the trip-hammer delivers. It may be only 100 pounds, and it may be 20,000 pounds, but, whichever it be, his duty to his fingers is clear.

Therefore, our advice to all friends of candidates who doubt whether they can carry this State is, not to waste any more time in arithmetical calculations, but to read the warnings and advice contained in the address of the Republican Conference Committee. What it says is, that anybody connected with the Republican Machine in this State would probably not receive the Independent vote; that anybody who held shaky or wild views about currency would probably not receive it; that anybody who was likely to try to distract public attention from home affairs, and increase business uncertainty, by complications with foreign Powers, would probably not receive it; that any one whose personal character was assailable, or surrounded by "scandals," would probably not receive it. Now, these are not assaults on anybody. They are homely and useful truths. The way to turn them to account is to look round for candidates who are not open to these objections. There are in the Republican party at least twenty or thirty conspicuous men to whom no rational person would object if nominated by the party. So that there is really no difficulty in the situation, except such as the friends of one candidate make for themselves. And from this difficulty no study of the Independent vote in New York will deliver them. That vote is very like the "strong calm Angel" whom Huxley describes as playing the game of life with us from behind a curtain, and who, though he would rather we should win than lose, always exacts remorselessly the consequences of our mistakes. We cannot find out how strong it is, but woe to the politician who acts as if it had no strength at all.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN ENGLAND.

A FEW weeks ago the University of Oxford did for women what Cambridge had already done, in admitting them to the examinations for honors in history, classics, mathematics, and science, on precisely the same terms as men. The concession was made very slowly and after much agitation. Some years ago Oxford agreed to examine women and give them "certificates" of proficiency, but though the examination papers may have been as difficult as those of the men, the certificates did not carry the same weight with the public as degrees would have done. They were a second-rate thing, the value of which people had no means of estimating. There were, it appeared by the last census, 120,000 women in Great Britain and Ireland earning their living as teachers. To these a University degree is of the highest importance. It not only secures to those holding it immediate employment, but higher pay than is obtainable by others. This fact was established clearly enough by the experiment at the Newnham and Girton Colleges at Cambridge, to the students of which the University opened its lecture-rooms twelve years ago. The graduates have always enjoyed exceptional advantages in obtaining situations either as school teachers or as governesses. In fact, of late years it has been increasingly difficult for women not holding some sort of University certificate to obtain any of the well-paid places.

In 1881 Cambridge threw down all restrictions by admitting women to the Tripos or honor examinations in classics and mathematics. Oxford has been slower. The "Congregation," composed of the resident Masters of Arts, agreed to the admission some time ago, but its decision is not final. It is the "Convocation" which has the last word in the government of the University, and the Convocation is made up of all holders of the M.A. and higher degrees, wherever they reside. A very large number of these are country clergymen, of whose hostility to classical and mathematical women dreadful stories were told. But in spite of everything the women on the 29th ult. carried the day. Convocation voted by a heavy majority to let them in for honors. Now they can get as much out of the University in the way of testimonials as the men can. It is worth mention that the honor examinations in the English universities are the important thing, as a feather in the cap. The degree simply, without honors, amounts to very little as a sign of anything but residence and success in an examination which only the most stupid or idle find too much for them.

Of course, a valiant fight against the change was made by some of the older men, many of whom seem to see in it the approaching end of a world in which at best they never found much comfort or satisfaction. One of the Oxford "Dons," who has been interviewed on the subject by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, gives it as his opinion that "matrimony is at the bottom of the whole thing." When the Fellows were not allowed to marry, he says, they were content with the incomes they got from teaching men. Now they are mostly married and find it difficult to make ends meet, and as no more money than ever is to be made out of the men, it is only by letting the women in that they can increase their means. On the other hand, the women who will come to Oxford to study will do so, he is satisfied, with the view of marrying either their teach-

ers or fellow-students. So that to him the movement is simply the conversion of an ancient and honored seat of learning into a vast matrimonial bureau.

The well known Dean of Chichester, Dr. Burgon, a fighting man from his youth, comes out against it in the newspapers, somewhat in the Dr. Dix style. His main argument is that it will destroy "the unbounded deference with which Woman is now treated by Man," and, what is worse, will "unsex" her. What this means has never been clearly stated, but there is no doubt it is something very dreadful. It will, moreover, he says, corrupt the women by introducing them to "the filth of the old civilization" in the Greek and Roman classics. But, as a writer who answers him in the *Daily News* justly remarks, the vast army of ill-equipped women, the 120,000 teachers, for example, who now have to fight the battle of life as best they can, care but little for "the unbounded deference" of Man. It does not give them their bread and butter, or help them to support their mothers or sisters. In fact, whenever anybody is pressed in England to say exactly what Woman, without the advantages of wealth, or rank, or great beauty, gains by "the unbounded deference" of Man, he is seldom able to produce anything but Man's practice of opening the door for her when she leaves the room.

It is melancholy, from one point of view, to think that the example of the English universities—rich, conservative, time-honored as they are, nurseries as they have been of some of the greatest men by sea and land of the modern world, statesmen, scholars, and soldiers—should have no value whatever for our own university, Columbia College. But we may all well feel proud that she should be left now almost the sole guardian of the framework of modern society and of Woman's place in nature. As long as Columbia stands firm, the final plunge of the weaker sex into vice and irreligion, the dissolution of the family bond, and what is, perhaps, more to be dreaded than either, the degradation in their own eyes of the male undergraduates, will not take place.

STAGE ILLUSION.

Mr. Boucicault, on Thursday afternoon, gave an interesting "Conference" on the "Art of Acting," in the course of which he said many interesting things, and made many suggestions likely to be of practical value to actors; but at the same time he does not, from the published reports, appear to have attempted to answer what is to most people the most interesting question connected with the subject—in what the art of acting consists. Any one who has followed the discussion to which the recent visit of Mr. Irving gave rise, must have noticed that the various estimates formed of his rank as actor depended in the last resort mainly on the theory of the art held by the critic; and, at the same time, that the critics themselves had generally no clear idea of what their own theory was. This was certainly not because there is any lack of current theories about the drama, for the present age, if not remarkable for anything else, would still be memorable for its remarkable fertility in the production of theories about both art and literature. It is a commonplace to say that art and literature have become conscious in modern times—that is, that the painter or writer, musician or actor, does his work not merely in obedience to some internally perceived law of beauty or of harmony or of expression, but that he knows what the law is, and aims at producing effects in accordance with it.

In recent years, too, it has become more and more common for the development of art or literature to be given suddenly a new turn by a conscious critical effort. People have, in fact, fallen into a way of attracting public attention to new and startling performances by advertising them in connection with a brand-new literary or artistic theory, which, as soon as it gains a name, is sure in a critical generation to have followers merely because it is a theory. The Romanticists, the Realists, the Impressionists, the Pre-Raphaelites, the followers of Wagner, the Naturalists, the admirers of Walt Whitman, have, apart from all question of the merits of the various theories, derived immense support from the fact that they had a theory to fall back upon. To take the last instance, nine-tenths of the readers of Whitman have been repelled, just as nine-tenths of the readers of Zola have been, by what they regard as indecency. To this, however, Whitman and Zola have a reply—that in literature there is no such thing as indecency or foulness, good or evil, but that all the novelist or poet has to do is to tell what he has seen, or express whatever emotions arise within him. If he is a poet, these, however repulsive they may be, must be poetry, while, if they represent in narrative form any sort of life, however degraded, he must be a novelist. An objector who cannot overcome his disgust is therefore often reduced to silence, by the mere fact that he dislikes to set up what he is assured is mere individual squeamishness of stomach against an everlasting theory of art.

We might expect to find something of the same sort in the drama, and, unless we are much mistaken, a theory has taken hold of the stage in the last fifty years which has already nearly revolutionized it, and which bids fair to invert some of the most fundamental maxims of the dramatic art. Originally, like most theories, it represented a reaction. Realism was in France a protest against Romanticism and Classicism, and as a protest it was undoubtedly needed; but, transplanted into England, it has become one of the active principles of the modern drama, and has produced consequences of a most startling sort. Meanwhile it has been seized upon in Germany by one of the greatest theorists of the day, and pushed to a point hardly dreamed of in England.

To understand fully what Realism has done for the stage, we have only to compare, let us say, a French classical play, such as Sarah Bernhardt is accustomed to act in, with a Wagnerian opera like "Lohengrin," or "Parsifal," or "Tannhäuser." It is not unfair to compare those operas with dramas, for it must be remembered that Wagner's pet theory is that the stage should be used by the composer exactly as it would be by a dramatist. Apart from the acting, then, the chief difference between the two periods is that in such a play as "Phèdre" we have a stage in which hardly any attempt is made at visible illusion—an interior that merely suggests, not represents, a room in a palace, at which one might look for hours without seeing anything before him but a scene in a theatre. Nor does this change from act to act. It remains the same nearly, if not entirely, throughout the play, although in real life it would be impossible without frequent change of scene for the action of "Phèdre" to take place. On the other hand, in the Wagnerian opera-drama we have a stage in which ingenuity is racked to give us the closest imitation of the scene. If a room in a palace is to be given, the attempt is made to deceive us into believing that we see one before us. If the action takes place in a street, the houses must not be mere fronts, but have substance and form; if a procession occupies the stage, we are shown real chariots and live horses. In "Siegfried" this realism has been carried to the point of providing an apparently live dragon, and there is said to have been great difference of opinion in the audience as to whether the animal was a success as a "real dragon" or not.

We have taken Wagner as an illustration because he has carried his theories further than almost any one, but examples may be found nearer home. No actor who respects himself will, we believe, play "Hamlet" unless the management provide "real" earth for the grave, and in the Shaksperian revival by Irving and others extraordinary pains are taken to secure what is called historical accuracy in the costumes. In "Romeo and Juliet" we believe there has been a grave discussion as to whether in one of the scenes realism does not require *Romeo* to appear in a night-gown; and everybody remembers the great display of realistic French and English soldiery in Henry V., which the management so handsomely provides. Shakspere, who had never heard of Realism, adopted a very simple device to eke out the want of "supes," the terrible lack of a real army, by letting *Rumor* bid the audience imagine one, in some very practical and business-like lines, which contain, perhaps, the best criticism of stage-illusion in the language:

"——can this cock-pit hold
The vasty fields of France? Or may we cram
Within this wooden O the very casques
That did affright the air at Agincourt?
O, pardon! since a crooked figure may
Attest, in little place, a million;
And let us ciphers to this great accompt
On your imaginary forces work.
Suppose within the girdle of these walls
Are now confin'd two mighty monarchies,
Whose high upreared and abutting fronts
The perilous, narrow ocean parts asunder.
Piece out our imperfections with your thoughts;
Into a thousand parts divide one man,
And make imaginary puissance;
Think, when we talk of horses, that you see them
Printing their proud hoofs i' the receiving earth:
For 'tis your thoughts that now must deck our kings,
Carry them here and there, jumping o'er times;
Turning the accomplishment of many years
Into an hour-glass."

Shakspere was a manager, and he understood his audiences as well as any manager who has appeared since his time. Now, let us imagine a modern manager making this sort of appeal to the imagination of the critic. It is safe to say that the critic would turn a deaf ear to his entreaty. How absurd, he

would say, for a manager bringing out a new play like this, full of sensational battle business, to ask us to come here and imagine the soldiers and horses! If his treasury is so empty that he cannot engage a respectable force, he ought either to close his theatre or to give some piece requiring less expenditure.

The fact is that the tendency of the modern stage is to produce a wholly new theory of the dramatic art, which may be called the materialistic, as opposed to the old imaginative theory, evidently prevalent in Shakspere's time. It is that the curious feeling called stage illusion—the touch of nature that makes us kindle into sympathy, or emotion, or humor, the reality which blinds us for the moment to the fact that the whole spectacle is a puppet show—is produced by the exactness with which the scenery and costumes are presented to the eye; that illusion is a mechanical matter; that such means will accomplish for our imagination exactly what Shakespere insisted that our imagination, under the influence of the acting, ought to accomplish for them. The importance of the difference can hardly be overestimated. If the imagination is touched primarily by the scenery and the costumes, then managers and critics are perfectly right in lavishing their attention on them. If, on the contrary, what suddenly gives the air of reality to the whole scene is the ability of the actor to simulate real emotion by the voice and eye and gesture, if through this appeal to our feelings the imagination deceives the eye itself, then criticism of the dramatic art ought to be directed to a consideration of such questions as whether an actress who undertakes to simulate grief really makes us grieve with her, or whether what we are chiefly interested in is the cut and material of her dress; not whether *Shylock* is dressed exactly like an aged Jew, but whether the tones of his voice, his looks and gestures represent the ideas and emotions conveyed in the words of the part. If excellence in dramatic art depends primarily on the acting, then it does not depend on the scenery, and in this respect the French have a great advantage over us—that they still have a school from which dependence upon scenery is rigidly excluded.

RESULTS OF THE WAGNER CONCERTS.

Mr. Charles E. Locke, projector and manager of the recent Wagner concerts, and Mr. Theodore Thomas have every reason to be satisfied with the financial and artistic success of these concerts, which has been greater than any one had anticipated, and which is perhaps without precedent in this country when it is borne in mind that the highest artistic standard alone was considered in every detail. The very best local and foreign talent that could have been secured for this special purpose was employed, and, notwithstanding the great disadvantages resulting from the absence of scenery and action, and the unfavorable acoustic properties of the hall, it must be said that never before has such a good opportunity been given American audiences to understand the real significance of Wagner's art-work. However much a concert performance of his dramatic music may offend against Wagner's principles, it is far better to hear such superb interpretations of his works as were given at the Metropolitan concerts than to endure the parodies of "Lohengrin" and "Walküre" that have been inflicted on us by Italian and special opera companies. Most of the selections given had been heard before, but the love duos from "Tristan" and "Siegfried," the "Story of *Siegfried's* Life," and the scene between *Siegfried* and the Rhine maidens from the third act of "Götterdämmerung," *Kundry's* Solicitations from "Parsifal," and *Brünnhilde's* Supplication from "Die Walküre" were fully equivalent to novelties. Each one of the concerts bore witness to Mr. Thomas's skill in managing large forces and in programme making, as, for instance, at the first concert, where the story of *Siegfried* and *Brünnhilde* was told without interruption by connecting the third act of "Die Walküre" with the third of "Siegfried"; or at the fifth concert, where "Lohengrin" and "Parsifal" were brought together as being closely related in subject, but widely different in style, thus illustrating (in an imperfect manner, necessarily) the development of Wagner's genius. To those familiar with all the music dramas of Wagner the most interesting selections were those from "Tristan," "Siegfried," and "Götterdämmerung," while the majority of the audience doubtless preferred the excerpts from "Lohengrin," "Tannhäuser," "Meistersinger," "Holländer," and "Walküre." The least interesting of the concerts was that given on Friday, which, however, attracted the largest audience, owing to the immense popularity of "Lohengrin" and the addition of Mme. Nilsson to the Wagner singers.

At the first five concerts, extracts from all of Wagner's operas and dramas were given except from "Rienzi" and "Rheingold." The last concert, on Saturday afternoon, was wholly devoted to "Rheingold" and "Die Walküre," so that, in the whole series, "Rienzi" alone was neglected. Saturday's concert was perhaps the greatest popular success of all, for the Walhalla and Rhine daughters' music, and the impassioned strains of "Die Walküre" are among the favorite pieces in our concert halls. Never since the Bayreuth festival in 1876 have we heard the trio of the Rhine daughters sung with such admirable purity and splendid effect as on this occasion by Miss Emma Juch, Mrs. A. Hartdegen, and Miss Emily Winant. Mr. Toedt was not equal to his task in so large a hall, and "*Loge's* Tidings," therefore, did not make the customary impression, while the "Rainbow Scene" and the "Maidens' Lament" provoked storms of applause, as did all the "Walküre" selections, at the close of which Mr. Thomas and the Vienna singers were repeatedly called out and greeted with applause, cheers, and waving of handkerchiefs.

In reviewing these concerts there are three points that deserve special attention. The first is the intelligent and refined quality of the audiences, and the evident determination on all sides to *learn to enjoy*, in those cases where such enjoyment did not lie on the surface but required special attention and study. Some years ago, no doubt, a majority of the audience would have left the house before the conclusion of the long "Parsifal" selections, which may well have been somewhat tedious on account of the absence of scenery and the unfavorable acoustics. But Friday's audience remained to the end, doubtless from a conviction that at a second hearing light would be thrown on much that at first seemed obscure. They had read the enthusiastic letters of Bayreuth pilgrims, and were bound, if possible, to share in their pleasure. This marks a great advance in culture over the disposition formerly shown to decry everything as chaotic and unintelligible which did not please at first hearing.

Less gratifying is the second lesson taught by the festival—the conclusion that the Metropolitan Opera-house is unfit for concert purposes. Here was an orchestra of 150 musicians, a chorus of 600 or 700, three Wagner specialists who have voices of extraordinary power and volume, and music of greater sonority and richness than has ever been written by any other composer; and yet the result was less favorable than it would have been in any other hall in this city with half of these forces. These concerts are the first and probably the last that will ever be given in this house, unless it is remodelled; and the Philharmonic Society would simply commit suicide by moving to the Metropolitan. Except in passages where the brass is freely employed, the music at these concerts appeale l to the intellect much more than to the feelings, whereas, under proper conditions, it is the feelings preëminently that Wagner's music appeals to, as was shown at the concert given in Brooklyn, which stirred the audience to a pitch of enthusiasm never before witnessed in that city.

But by far the most important result of the Wagner concerts is that it has revealed to thousands the existence of a new vocal art, which differs from the older style as dramatic differs from lyric poetry. It cannot be denied that the three Vienna singers, who have no superiors in this new style, have their imperfections, like all other vocalists. Herr Winkelmann's lower notes are not as sonorous as his higher ones. Frau Materna has an occasional tremolo, and Herr Scaria has a tendency to sing out of tune, although we have heard him thirty times in opera at Vienna and Bayreuth when he never once sang a false note. Such anomalies find their explanation in the fact that these dramatic singers are ill at ease in the concert hall. Wagner taught them that action and pantomime are quite as important as their song, but here they were obliged to repress constantly all instinctive tendency to act and make gestures, and this gave a conscious air to routine work which can be done better unconsciously. But these faults were by no means constant. In more than three-fourths of the work done by these singers the technical portion was not open to such criticism, whereas everything they did was worthy of the highest admiration for the unprecedented distinctness of enunciation, passionate fervor, and intelligent phrasing.

It is important to bear in mind that for some of their utterances which did not seem sweet and beautiful the vocalists were not to blame. Wagner matches sweet sentiments only with sweet sounds, and harsh sentiments with harsh sounds. Such dramatic realism of course is not in place in the concert hall, where the beautiful should predominate, whereas in the drama the beautiful must often yield to the grand, terrible, and awe-inspiring, to angry and dissonant passions. The part of the wicked *Alberich*, for instance, in Saturday's concert must have sorely puzzled many of the hearers. Mr. Remmertz did not sing it particularly well, but even if he had, it would not have pleased those who think that all vocal music should be beautiful. In the drama we are all sufficiently educated to resist the tendency to thrash the "villain" of the play, and we applaud him if he acts his wicked part well; but in the music-drama this point is not so clearly understood as yet. The following extract from Wagner's review of the Bayreuth Festival ('Gesammelte Schriften,' vol. x., p. 153) will make it clear, and may appropriately close this article:

"To the present day I am astonished that the performance of Karl Hill as *Alberich* was far from being appreciated at its full and eminent value. This experience confirmed my view of the ordinary judgment of our public, in so far as it always depends more on ethical than on artistic impressions. The fact that Hill so

completely performed the task which I urgently pressed on him, namely, to avoid every accent of kindly feeling (otherwise so natural to him), and to show only eagerness, greed, hatred, anger, even then when as a scarcely visible spectre he must only whisper—the fact, I say, that this remarkably gifted artist herein gave a characteristic performance of preëminent mastery, such as has never before been seen in the province of the drama, was overlooked, on account of the unpleasant impression which an evil spirit, for instance, makes on the hearers when some one tells a fairy story."

THE LATE MINISTERIAL CRISIS IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, April 22, 1884.

EVENTS just now move so rapidly in Egypt, that before these lines appear in print it is probable the acute crises of the past fortnight will be scarcely remembered. Nevertheless, they are so illustrative of the permanent obstacles to good government here, that they are worth while examining with some precision in order to understand the solutions which the future may have in store.

In a previous letter I have had to draw attention to the radical opposition of the two theories of Egyptian government of which, till within a few days ago, Sir Benson Maxwell and Mr. Clifford Lloyd were the representative champions. These two theories may be styled, for the moment, the judicial and the administrative. According to the judicial theory, the new quasi-French Codes, the French Procedure, and the judicial staff, with Sir Benson Maxwell himself at its head as Procureur-Général, were to supersede all the ancient administrative and judicial authorities, and to subordinate to themselves all the most modern administrative authority represented by the centralized gendarmerie and police under the Minister of the Interior, or, rather, his "Under Secretary," Mr. Clifford Lloyd. The "administrative" theory of Egyptian government reverses this relationship so far as all the lower departments of judicial machinery are concerned. The first stages of the investigation of crime are to be taken away from the *juge d'instruction*, and either restored to the mudir or retained in the hands of the centralized police, who are English inspectors. The mudirs are to be revitalized and invested with a considerable amount of independent magisterial power, always under the strict supervision of the Minister of the Interior, but with only a remote responsibility to courts of justice. If legal help is needed, that help is supplied, as required, by the Procureur-Général; but the mudirs, the police, or the Ministry of the Interior are to dispose of it, control it, or dispense with it, as one or other or all of them jointly think best, the Procureur-Général and the courts of justice having nothing to say in the matter.

There seemed, for a very brief interval, at one time a prospect that Sir Benson Maxwell and Mr. Clifford Lloyd would have made up their difference, and a scheme was, indeed, on the tapis, which was accepted by both of them, by which the *juge d'instruction* was abolished and the mudir had a legal assessor assigned him by the Procureur-Général, the two sitting as magistrates having coördinate jurisdiction. But this was a concession extorted reluctantly from Sir Benson Maxwell, and nothing could have turned it into a working scheme but a sincere and earnest desire on the part of Nubar Pasha, the head of the Government, to help the two English officials in their arduous task of coöperation, and not to play one of them off against the other.

All at once, when these and other similar problems of great intrinsic difficulty, quite independently of all personal considerations, are still pending, and when Mr. Clifford Lloyd is away at Alexandria, organizing the new municipality there, Nubar threatens resignation on the ground of the impossibility of his further coöperating with Mr. Clifford Lloyd. How far the desire for resignation was real, or feigned as a ruse to force the hand of England, or in order to render the tenure of his post by Mr. Clifford Lloyd an impossibility, is matter of dispute and is of little importance elsewhere. Anyway, Mr. Clifford Lloyd instantly returned from Alexandria, and things continued in a state of extreme tension for some days. Nubar's position inclines, for the moment, to Sir Benson Maxwell's side, so far as the opposition to Mr. Clifford Lloyd's intense system of centralization round the Ministry of the Interior is concerned. But Nubar also is opposed to the annihilation of the ancient mudir as a local magnate, and thinks the work of reform in this direction has gone dangerously far. Indeed, there is a sense in which all three parties concerned are agreed that the mudiriate, reduced to impotency by the joint operation of Lord Dufferin's constitutional, judicial, and constabulary reforms, must, to some extent, be rehabilitated. But Nubar flinches from the bold, imperious process dictated by Mr. Clifford Lloyd, by which half the mudirs are to be new men and to be subjected to the sharp control of the Ministry of the Interior and English inspectors of police. Nor, though for the moment Nubar is willing to pit Sir Benson Maxwell against Mr. Clifford Lloyd, and is, by training and disposition, a favorer of French law and procedure, is he at heart very friendly to the severe system of legal responsibility to which Sir Benson Maxwell would subject the mudir as well as every other authority in Egypt. Nubar is said to be taking his stand on a ground in which he has Sir Benson Maxwell with him—that is, the decentralization of the police, with a view to placing them again under the local control of the mudir, and removing the administration of its prisons from the Ministry of the Interior to the Ministry of Justice.

On the face of them, Nubar's projects, which just now are undoubtedly in the ascendant, are vehemently reactionary. The worst sources of corruption and oppression in Egypt have been time out of mind the local despots, and hitherto almost the only beneficial form of English influence has been directed to weakening or destroying them. It may be that, through some personal shortcomings, Sir Benson Maxwell has trusted too much to legal checks, Mr. Clifford Lloyd to precipitate and arbitrary arrangements, Lord Dufferin to an English-managed constabulary and a written constitution. It is natural that the aggregate operation of all these efforts in the cause of decent government should have generated a stern and persistent opposition on the part of the hereditary governing class in Egypt. This class is not Egyptian but Turkish, in the broad sense of the word—that is, coming from provinces of the Ottoman Empire other than Egypt. Nubar himself is Armenian and Christian, and some of the strongest elements of the class are Albanian. It is not so much the men at the top who are injuriously affected and outraged by the superseding of all the time-honored authorities (because they have intelligence enough to be able to coöperate with Europeans, and, if loyal and trustworthy, are too valuable intermediaries to be dispensed with by any European Power in command of the country), but the dispossessed or discredited mudirs themselves, as well as the younger aspirants to office of the "Effendi" class, sons and relatives of Ministers and ex-Ministers, and the whole hierarchy of routine officials having little to hope for from the predominance of an European Power. Their whole *avenir* is cut off. A centralized and economically managed administration is injurious to their chances of employment, while the policy which England, at all events, would pursue of raising up a purely national party, hereditarily attached to the soil, and having no allegiance elsewhere, must tend to their gradual displacement. This party has among its members numerous persons who have passed some years, for educational purposes, in France. They have a good colloquial knowledge of the French language, and, so far as they know anything of the Western world, it is the French world they alone know and care for. Hence this whole class go far to swell the disaffection against the English, and, at such a crisis as the present, form important allies to any recalcitrant Egyptian Minister in his battle with English reformers.

The latest important news from England is that she is addressing a communication to the Powers which are parties to the Law of Liquidation, and making a series of recommendations of which the abolition of the present Egyptian army is one. Too much importance, however, cannot be attached to this announcement, for simultaneously Sir William Harcourt has been enforcing, in a speech delivered during the Easter recess, the inconveniences which would follow from an extension of English responsibilities in Egypt. Furthermore, the last undulation of the political wave here has been in favor of Egyptian autonomy and against English interference. It is said that the compromise on which Nubar Pasha and Mr. Clifford Lloyd both retain their seats is that Mr. Clifford Lloyd is henceforth to confine his activity to such tasks as properly belong to an Egyptian Under-Secretary of State. If it is true, as it must be feared, that Nubar is bent upon undoing all that Mr. Clifford Lloyd has done in the reform of the Egyptian prisons, and is further devising how to subject afresh a localized police to the mudirs, it is simply undoing the only clear and unmistakable benefits which the English Government has conferred on the country. It seems impossible to get Mr. Gladstone to understand that, while it is quite possible to administer Egypt in the sole interests of the inhabitants of the country, and by the use, mainly, of native instrumentality, it is not possible to do this without first overpowering all Turkish influences and counteracting Turkish modes of rule. England can do this—or France could and would.

A.

JOHN DE WITT.

PARIS, April 25, 1884.

M. ANTONIN LEFÈVRE-PONTALIS has just published two volumes on John de Witt, the Grand Pensionary of Holland. This work is his first historical effort. He was elected in 1871 Deputy of the Constituant Assembly, and was among the members of what was then called the Left Centre. For a long time he followed the leadership of M. Thiers and became a Republican—a Conservative Republican—with many other Orleanists, for he had begun life as an Orleanist. Having lost his seat in the new Republican Assembly which replaced MacMahon by M. Grévy, he returned slowly to the monarchical party, and, since the death of the Comte de Chambord, has become an advocate of constitutional monarchy. For many years he had collected documents on John de Witt, and we have now before us the result of his long work. He has used the documents preserved in the archives of the Hague, the public and private correspondence of the Grand Pensionary, the family papers preserved by Mrs. Hoog and her son, who are the last direct heirs of John de Witt, the archives of Paris, the archives of Chantilly, where he

found the correspondence of Condé during the preparation of the war of 1692.

The work of M. Lefèvre-Pontalis begins with a picture of the Republic of the United Netherlands, the chief traits of which are taken from the great work of Motley. The seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, once united against the tyranny of Spain, had not been consolidated into one single state. The Duke of Parma, by his diplomacy and by his arms, had succeeded in severing from the Union Artois and Hainaut; he had, in fact, given existence to a Belgium separated from Holland. For many years Spain, and the Provinces united under the leadership of Orange, disputed with each other the possession of Brabant. By the treaty of Münster, Spain was obliged to recognize the independence of the United Provinces: the little Republic had brought the great Empire to terms.

In this new state an internal struggle had begun between the republican and the monarchical principle. The Princes of Orange considered themselves, and were considered by the people, the representatives and the natural defenders of the new liberties. The Stadtholders were not kings, but they had the character of kings, in so far as they were not ordinary magistrates and their interests were entirely merged in the national interests. Motley has told us the history of the first struggles of the Stadtholders against the States of Holland. William the Second attempted a real *coup d'état*, and among the deputies whom he arrested we find the name of De Witt. He failed, however, in his designs, and his early death gave the power to his enemies during the long minority of his son. A reaction against the monarchical principle hidden in the function of the Stadtholder began; the great Assembly of 1651 gave to the Republic a new Constitution, organized the States-General, the municipal councils, and fixed the Hague as the seat of the States-General, as well as of the States of Holland. John de Witt was the son of the De Witt who had been thrown into prison by William the Second. He entered public life at a very early age, was chosen Pensionary of Dordrecht, and sent to the Constituant Assembly of 1651, and was among those who succeeded in reducing to obedience the towns which attempted to rise against the States General in favor of the young Prince of Orange. He showed so much energy in Zealand that he was rewarded with the title of Pensionary of Holland; at the age of eighteen he received the nickname of "the Wisdom of Holland."

His task, in the high post, was a difficult one, as he found the United Provinces engaged in a dangerous war with England, and the new Constitution was obnoxious to the powerful Orange party. Elected for five years only, but always eligible again, the Grand Pensionary of Holland was the President as well as the Minister of the States. He directed all the debates, and all the interior affairs of the province were under his jurisdiction. He was almost the sole inspirer and director of foreign affairs; he conducted all the negotiations and wrote all the correspondence with the Ministers. This diplomatic correspondence fills forty volumes (it has only been partly published, up to the year 1669). John de Witt always had about him two pocket books, which are preserved in the archives of the Hague. One was the collection of the resolutions of the States of Holland and of the States-General which established the principal attributions of the public powers; the other showed him the state of the finances. He was methodical in the extreme, and worked with constant diligence. An Ambassador once asked him how he could do so much, though he spent the afternoon in the visits which his function imposed on him. He answered that he ate and drank with moderation; that he went to bed early, without thinking any more of his affairs; that he rose early and worked at once, never doing but one thing at a time, and having for his maxim, "Age quod agis." Somebody once wondered how he could sleep so well amid so many preoccupations. "From my youth," said he, "I have been so fortunate that, the moment my feet enter my bed, all care abandons my mind." His wife, Wendela Bicker, who belonged to one of the first families of Amsterdam, was the type of the submissive and domestic housekeeper; she was familiarly called "the good sheep." At the age of twenty-eight John de Witt had inspired several important statesmen with great admiration; he had his lieutenants, completely devoted to him and following his directions almost blindly. He owed his influence to his integrity, to his austerity, and to his firmness.

The Orange party became very turbulent during the unfortunate war which the States had to carry on by sea against England; and Cromwell was not anxious for peace, as he feared the reëstablishment of the House of Orange, which was related by family ties to the descendants of Charles I. He did not consent to it till he felt assured that the son of William II. would not inherit the civil and military dignities of his ancestors. The States were obliged to recognize the maritime supremacy of England, to consent to the limitation of their naval forces in British waters, and to accept many other humiliating conditions. The treaty of Westminster has sometimes been criticised from an English point of view, but only by those who wished to make of the United Netherlands a mere dependence of England; it was really very humiliating for Holland, and De Witt's only excuse in proposing it was the absolute necessity of peace. The Orange party attacked the treaty bitterly. By the act of exclusion of Orange, Holland had made herself dependent on a foreign Power. The States of Holland had also usurped, diplomatically, powers which, by the terms of the Constitution, only belonged to the States-General. De Witt had bought peace somewhat too dearly; he worked hard to make that peace advantageous to his country. The history of his administration is given in the most minute details by M. Lefèvre-Pontalis. I content myself with saying that after a few years the United Provinces again regained wealth and influence in Europe.

Meanwhile, the Prince of Orange was growing. During the dangerous war with England his party had been very unruly, but De Witt succeeded in persuading his country that a restoration of the nephew of Charles II. would be a great danger for the state. After the restoration of Charles II. he was obliged to change his language. Fortunately for him, the Orange party had no longer any direction. The young son of William II. had no powerful protectors; but the province of Zealand was faithful to him, and he had secret or avowed friends in the Calvinistic clergy of all the States. The ministers of the Hague openly preached on ingratitude, and imputed all the misfortunes of the country to its oblivion of the past services of the House of Orange. It was felt by all that when the young Prince should come of age a restoration would be possible. Wherever he went he was received with popular demonstrations. Without having any power, he had already a court; though he was only sixteen years old, his friends claimed for him the post of Captain-General, or general of the cavalry. The Prince looked upon the States of Holland as usurpers of his natural authority. In vain did De Witt separate him from those who lived with him and nursed his ambition; Orange concealed his anger, and learned the art of dissimulation. He affected much deference for De Witt, who had made himself his tutor and companion, and gave himself out as his patron.

When Louis XIV. invaded the Spanish Netherlands, it became evident that the States-General were themselves in danger of coming into conflict with France, and it became necessary to make preparations for it. De Witt was very anxious that the young Prince should not unite the powers of Stadtholder to those of Captain-General and of Admiral; he wished to make these great offices incompatible. The States of Holland went even further, and abolished completely the dignity of Stadtholder. Their decision was embodied in an act which bears the name of Perpetual Edict; this act seemed to give to the republican principle a complete triumph. "Morte la bête, mort le venin," says a French proverb. The States imagined that the suppression of an office would destroy forever the sentiments of the people. While the Edict was being discussed, a deputy was cutting the binding of a book with a knife. "What are you doing?" asked John de Witt, who stood by him. "I am trying what steel can do to parchment."

De Witt tempered, so to speak, the Perpetual Edict by a formal promise to reserve for Orange the command of the troops of the republic. He represented to the young Prince that, as there was not in the States a single deputy who did not look upon him as the future commander of the armies of the States, so there was not one who did not detest the memory of the enterprise of his father. The Perpetual Edict was voted between the treaty of Breda, which was imposed on England after an audacious and successful expedition, and the Triple Alliance, which had practically made the States General the arbiters between France and Spain. The republic, which a few years before was in such distress, seemed now in the ascendant, and in the eyes of all foreign Powers John de Witt was its real representative.

This Dutch republic was in reality the first experiment on the Continent of Europe of parliamentary government, and the famous hall of the Hague, which is still preserved with pious care, was the cradle of liberty; but the days of parliamentary government were not yet arrived. It was hardly possible when the limits of the European states were not fixed, when their national existence had hardly begun, to expect that the powers of the States should be kept in an equilibrium which can only be preserved by the most elaborate constitutions, by the wisdom of the people, and by the concurrence of parties, which on some points must always unite, though they may divide on all others. The House of Orange had remained in the imagination of the people as a personification of a dearly-bought independence, and all the combinations of the States General could not undo what history itself had done. The struggle between Orange and De Witt was really a struggle between government by force and government by persuasion, and force had not finished its work in the Low Countries. The person, the character, the virtues of John de Witt cannot but inspire much sympathy; but if we look at events from a philosophical point of view, we may well ask ourselves who best understood the situation of Holland—De Witt or the Prince of Orange? Who did most to secure its independence? Who judged best who were its natural allies and its natural enemies? M. Lefèvre-Pontalis has an open and philosophical mind and, though he has a natural preference for the civic hero of his choice, he does full justice to the Prince who was soon to play such an important part in the history of the world.

Correspondence.

WHAT THE DEMOCRATS HAVE DONE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your facetious way, which your subscribers have all learned to admire, you have spoken several times lately of Democratic incapacity and Democratic ardor for civil-service reform. Permit me to call attention to a few facts on the serious side of these subjects. Without going back to ancient history or recalling how Harrison and Taylor, Lincoln and Grant followed the bad example of Andrew Jackson, let us speak of modern times.

The Federal Civil-Service Bill was introduced by Mr. Pendleton. A majority of Democrats in both houses voted for it. It is now a law binding on every citizen, and not a Democrat in either House of any note can be named who would vote for its repeal. Perhaps the same thing can be said of the Republicans. But the point is that the bill was supported by men of character and ability in both political parties, and that is the guarantee for its permanence. It is strictly analogous to an agreement on the part of a belligerent to abstain from the pillaging or sacking of captured cities, or any other enormity which was practised long ago, but which modern civilization revolts at. If either party to the contest resorted or proposed to resort to the plunder of office as a reward for successful party services, it is certain, in the nature of things, that the other would. The civil-service reformers who claim for the Republican party the sole credit of reform and seek to make it a party question, are really injuring the merit system.

Take another illustration. After many years of partial exile from power in the State of New York, in 1883 the Governor and both branches of the Legislature were Democratic. This Legislature made the most pronounced civil-service reformer among its adherents (Mr. Chapin) Speaker. Without alteration, the Civil-Service Bill recommended by the New York Association, was passed, and the Governor, instead of delaying, as he might, to sign the bill until it would be too late to appoint commissioners, signed it the moment it was received, immediately sent in his nominations to the Senate, and it thereby took effect a year sooner than otherwise it would.

Mark the contrast in 1884. The amended bill recommended by the New York Association was lost in the Republican Assembly, and it required the most vigorous efforts to bring about its reconsideration. Then the spectacle was witnessed of John J. O'Brien on the floor of the Assembly urging that the Police Department be exempted from the operation of the bill, and threatening that if this were not done the bill would be defeated. Moved by these threats, some friends of the bill voted for the amendment O'Brien asked, and the Police Department was accordingly exempted, leaving to the two Republican Commissioners that half of the vast patronage of the department which the bill proposed would have taken from them as well as their Democratic associates. The bill went to the Senate, and there a prominent Republican introduced and carried through another amendment exempting soldiers and sailors altogether from the operation of the bill. It was only by herculean efforts that this proposition was stricken out, and the bill restored to its original form. It does not follow that the Republican party as a party is opposed to civil-service reform, but it does follow that many Republican politicians detest it, because it takes away their stock in trade. No doubt, Democratic politicians of the same stripe are equally opposed, no more and no less; but the fact remains that when, for the first time in many years, the whole Government of New York passed into Democratic hands we had the first State Civil-Service Reform Bill. The same year similar measures failed to receive the support of Republican Legislatures in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts.

You speak of Democratic incapacity. Let us again turn to facts. This same Democratic Legislature of 1883 was by universal agreement the most honest and able Legislature that we have had for years. No man who has watched the contest over the railroad bills this winter can deny that there has been more corruption in the present Legislature than has been witnessed since the days of Tweed and his Republican associates. The same Democratic Legislature of 1883 put the building of the new Capitol on a business basis. That structure had dragged along for many years, with its patronage in the hands of one of those commissions which have been the usual result of Republican government since 1857. Democrats abolished the commission and put the management of the building in the hands of one person, to be appointed by the Governor. Immediately an architect of skill and experience was selected, who carried this work on at less expense and with greater speed than has been the case since the first stone was laid.

Another instance. Up to the time of Governor Tilden's administration the prisons of the State had been a source of expense—a nest of patronage and corruption. Their government had been in the hands of officers nominally elected by the people—really selected by a political caucus. Governor Tilden was one of the first public men who had the courage to avow his conviction that it was a detriment and not a benefit to the public that so many executive officers should be elected by the people. Governor Tilden advocated the passage of the constitutional amendment which gave the appointment of a State Prison Inspector to the Governor. Upon its adoption a Democratic Governor selected from among the men in the State who had had experience in the management of public prisons a man who managed them with honesty and efficiency. They ceased to be an expense to the State; their discipline was improved and their whole morale elevated. Then came a change of politics, and a Republican Governor displaced the Democratic Superintendent and appointed a man devoid of experience in prison discipline, but familiar with the management of the party machine.

The Roosevelt bills of this winter simply undo what Republican Legislatures have done, and restore the government of the city to nearly the position in which it was before Albany legislators commenced to pass laws by which the patronage of the city government would be secured, in part at least, for members of their own party.

Again, one object of political parties is to intrust the management of political affairs to men of ability and integrity. There have been many such men in the Republican party in this State since its organization. Who of them all since Governor Seward resigned his seat in the Senate has been sent there by his party? Who can name a single statesman among all the Republican Senators from New York since 1861? How do Blaine and Keifer compare with Carlisle, or even Randall?

Can anything worse be said of a party than that its whole scheme of taxation is shaped to promote the pecuniary profit of a few individuals at the expense of many? Is not this true of the existing tariff? Have not you and the *Times* said the same repeatedly? You complain that the Democrats have done nothing. They have not, it is true, done much, because they have not had the administration, but whatever has been done they have done. It was they who repealed the infamous Moiety Law. When the merchants of New York could get no help from the Republican Senators, they found in Bayard a defender and an advocate. It was they who put hides and quinine on the free list. It was the Democrats in the Senate who sent down to a Republican House, after the report of the Tariff Commission, a tariff bill which may fairly be considered as a Democratic measure. It was mangled and mutilated by the Republicans in Conference Committee and resulted in the present tariff. The Republican system of taxation simply carries out Mr. Boutwell's small shopkeeper policy of taxing the people enormously to hasten the extinguishment of the national debt, forgetting that our whole national banking system is based on the national debt, and that no man has yet ever suggested a substitute for it. Yet no man can possibly think of going back to the banking chaos that existed before the war. Thus our financial system has been rushing towards Niagara, and the Republican managers have carried every pound of steam that the boiler would hold, and spread every inch of canvas to accelerate its speed.

To sum up, is there one man in Congress except Edmunds whom the independent Republicans could cordially support? On the other side we may justly say that in Bayard, in Pendleton, in Carlisle, and in Morrison, we have statesmen of experience, of integrity, of broad views, and far-sighted policy, of any of whom the country might well be proud.

We have been hampered by enemies in our own party who have combined with Republicans to hinder every good work we have undertaken! This is my last charge for the present against the Republican party: that their leaders have always been ready to combine with the most corrupt elements in the Democratic party, and oppose, for the mere sake of temporary success, the most beneficial measures. Such a coalition in the "brown-stone district" of New York so far forgot all sense of decency and morality as to elect in 1877 to the Senate of the State of New York a professed gambler, who had made his living by the violation of law, and whose only quarrel with his own party was that it would not give him the power and influence that he thought his due.

The question I desire to put now to every Republican who believes in tariff reform is this: How can you honestly support a party which this year in New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and in all its national platforms since 1864, has taken ground in favor of a high protective tariff, which has formulated and crystallized these platforms into legislation, and which cannot point to one single measure of tariff reform which it has carried out? Nominate if you will an independent candidate, but do not any longer demoralize the public conscience by talking one way on the platform and in the editorial, and voting the other way at the polls.

DEMOCRAT.

NEW YORK, May 12, 1884.

THE KEY-NOTE OF TARIFF REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The failure of the Morrison bill destroys, it may be supposed, all hope of reduction in the tariff this year, and the only chance, small as it is, of diminishing the surplus revenue seems to lie in the worst of all possible methods, the removal of the excise upon whiskey and tobacco. The failure of that bill also leaves the whole work to be done *de novo;* the labors of the Tariff Commission and of this winter leaving absolutely no result unless in arousing a certain amount of popular indignation and de-

mand that something shall be done. Nor is anything determined as to who shall do it. As your Southern correspondent has well pointed out, neither the Democrats nor the Republicans are identified with any positive action, and you yourself admit that "there are both Democratic protectionists and free-traders and Republican protectionists and free-traders." Nor is there, again, any sign as to how the Presidential election is to affect this question. Undoubtedly the financial is the most important problem now before the country. Yet how does this element enter into the discussion of the personal candidacy of either Blaine or Arthur or Edmunds or Tilden? In fact, nearly all the discussion that I have seen turns upon the private history of these men. There is certainly some reason for this, inasmuch as, to all appearances, none of them can have much more influence in the settlement of the question than any other of the fifty millions of the citizens of the United States.

Still further, there seems to be no definite objective point in view. A free-trade league is all very well, but nobody can expect that we shall have anything like full free trade for many years to come. A moderate "horizontal" reduction in the tariff is very likely to result in an increase rather than a decrease of revenue, while any reduction which would materially decrease the revenue would be very likely, by a large increase of imports, to affect the specie reserve upon which our whole system of banking and currency is based. In fact, our protective tariff has been a large element in building up this system, and the sudden withdrawal of the barrier would involve grave danger of bringing on a financial crash and widespread ruin. If the tariff has also built up artificially a great many manufacturing and mining industries, the decent regard for vested interests which ought to characterize a civilized government demands that they should be let down gradually. Once more a "horizontal" tariff reduction recalls the old fable of the bundle of sticks which could not be broken when tied together, though they might all be if taken separately.

The inference from all this is, that the tariff should be taken up in detail, those duties being first eliminated which neutralize each other, and other items being taken up in succession, and thus a definite and continuous policy maintained for a series of years. This can never be done by shifting and irresponsible committees of Congress, made up of local and frequently new representatives, taking up the subject afresh every year. It requires public, responsible, individual, and national leadership. The Secretary of the Treasury is the only man in the United States who can carry through a reasonable, consistent, and successful reform in the tariff. The history of such a reform in Great Britain conducted by Sir Robert Peel and Mr. Gladstone, and extending over a quarter of a century, is open to any one who cares to study it. The first effective step to such a reform in this country is the admission of the Secretary of the Treasury, charged with the conduct of the national finances, and the representative of the nation against local and private interests, to the floor of Congress and a share in public debate. The French say, *Qui veut la fin veut les moyens;* but it seems as if, in this country, we could never think of anything but results, without any regard to the means of attaining to them. G. B.

Boston, May 12, 1884.

INTEREST AND CIRCULATING CURRENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 374 (No. 983) you say, speaking of the gold export:

"It has had little effect upon the rates for money as yet—proof sufficient that the loss of it is not harmful to any legitimate interest. It will continue, undoubtedly, until the amount of loanable funds is reduced to the actual requirements of business. Nobody need be alarmed about it until there is a marked rise in the rate of interest, and when this happens it will stop."

Now, if the language quoted does not imply the truth of the popular notion that the rate of interest depends upon the abundance or scarcity of currency in circulation, I do not understand it. And this is not the first time I have seen language in your columns on this point which I could not reconcile with what I have learned from the standard books on political economy. Three or four years ago I called your attention to the matter in a brief communication, and your reply was the least satisfactory thing that I have ever seen in your columns. With your kind permission I will state the question as briefly as possible and ask you to try again.

The popular belief, then, is that the rate of interest depends mainly upon the volume of currency in circulation. Inflation makes low interest, and contraction (whether by exporting gold or otherwise) makes high interest.

In the recent tremendous contest with greenbackism, this doctrine seemed, at least here in the West, to be the leading argument on that side. It was repeated in the press and on the stump, with endless iteration, that contraction would place borrowers at the mercy of the money-lenders (who were consigned to eternal perdition), and would enable lenders to exact whatever rates they pleased for loans. Inflation, on the other hand, would give us low interest; plenty of "money" would make it "cheap," just as plenty of hogs makes cheap pork. I need not call your attention to the old fallacy lurking in the ambiguous phrase "cheap money."

Now, all this I was taught years ago by standard writers on political economy to regard as totally fallacious. They reject utterly the notion that the rate of interest depends upon the amount of "money" in circulation, whether by "money" is meant whatever goes by that name or the precious metals exclusively. According to their teaching, if I read them rightly, contraction would not cause high interest, nor would inflation cause low interest. The tendency of inflation would, on the contrary, be rather to raise the rate of interest by impairing security. Lenders would be compelled to reimburse themselves for the robbery they would suffer by the degradation of the standard of value, by charging higher interest. The exportation of gold would have no more effect on the rate of interest than the exportation of wheat, or pork, or cotton. And if the gold goes to buy things we need more than it, the amount of loanable funds is not reduced, it is rather increased by the exportation of gold. For "loanable funds" are not money. "Loanable funds" means, I suppose, capital seeking investment; and it is, if you will pardon me, the capital fallacy of political economy to confound capital with money. The bulk of capital everywhere is wealth in some other form than money. Buildings, machinery, engines, tools, horses, cattle, food, ships, railroads and their equipment—all these and many other things are capital, and it is for the use of these, and not of money, that interest is paid.

In the operations of lending, money really cuts but an insignificant figure. It forms only a small part of the "loanable funds" at any time seeking investment. In the language and imaginations of merchants, brokers, bankers, and business men generally it is everything. They are perpetually talking of the "money market," the "value of money," etc. But as a matter of fact, what is loaned is usually not money at all, but capital in some other form; and for the use of this, and not of money, interest is paid. Abundance of "loanable funds," or capital seeking investment, tends, of course, to reduce the rate of interest, and vice versa; but abundance of money is not an abundance of "loanable funds," for "loanable funds" is a much wider term than "money." Money is a part of the "loanable funds" in the market; so are shovels; and it seems just as reasonable to expect high interest from the exportation of shovels as from the exportation of gold. If gold is "loanable funds," so are shovels, and cotton, and steam engines, and cattle, and wheat, and ploughs, and reapers; and all these are as necessary in their places as money is in its place. Yet we never hear high interest predicted from a scarcity of steam engines or reapers.

Why is it that men who are perfectly rational on every other subject, lose their mental balance as soon as they begin to talk about "money"? The way men's imaginations are filled and dominated, their thinking vitiated, and their reasoning turned topsy-turvy by this mighty and marvellous word "money," is to my mind a wonderful psychological phenomenon.

I have stated at some length what I regard as scientific doctrine on this point, because I have never seen the subject discussed at any length in the *Nation*, and because, in my opinion, the popular fallacy does infinite harm. H.

St. Louis, Mo., May 8, 1884.

[The incongruity to which "H." refers is examined and explained by Professor Sidgwick in his work on 'Political Economy,' published last year. His conclusion is that the rate of interest is immediately enhanced by the exportation of gold, but that the effect is transitory. In other words, the rate of interest is governed in the long run by the demand and supply of loanable capital in whatever shape it exists; but the first effect of gold exportation is to raise it somewhat above it natural rate. This explanation is in accord with observed facts. It is also in accord with the paragraph which "H." quotes from our columns. Of course no analogy can be drawn from the quantity of irredeemable paper currency afloat, since the increase of such paper adds nothing to the capital of a country. The increase or decrease of gold is an increase or decrease of capital, and its peculiar character as a medium of exchange instantly available for any purpose—*i. e.*, instantly marketable—gives it a higher, or at all events earlier, potency as affecting the rate of interest than any other commodity possesses, since other commodities require to be sold and brought into actual use before they become available for loans.—Ed. Nation.]

THE SALE OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Many young men who serve Congressmen as secretaries," you say in the *Nation* of April 10, "are said to be recompensed for their services wholly or chiefly by the gift of documents." This statement, so seriously made, has created much amusement here, for all the current documents which a Senator or Representative might bestow on a clerk would not bridge a week's board bill, so small a selling value have these books. They are really valuable only as "remembrances" to constituents—and Congressmen see to it that their allowances are well

distributed. I have not been able to discover an instance of a private secretary selling documents. Anglim, the well-known dealer in second-hand books here, informs me that Senators never, and members rarely ever, dispose of the Government publications; and then only to exchange them for other public documents of more interest to their constituents. Congressmen from the city will trade agricultural for tariff reports; members of the present Congress, who have no allowance of the early volumes of the Official Records of the Rebellion (which were all appropriated by the Forty-Seventh Congress), will sometimes exchange a lot of minor publications at Anglim's for a set of this important work to present to some constituent; the Medical and Surgical Records are obtained in like manner. I have been told, and by employees who should know, that a Congressman occasionally, failing of reëlection, will, in pique perhaps, put in the hands of a dealer all books remaining to him, rather than have any remain to his successor.

But there is a wide difference in this practice between House and Senate, and as a Senator's secretary I must protest against the wholesale charge you make. Senators, in for six years and representing the State at large, have uses enough for their books beyond paying secretaries with them. And perhaps it has slipped your notice that all Senators now have secretaries at six dollars a day, whether chairmen of committees or not.

CLEMENT CHASE.

UNITED STATES SENATE,
WASHINGTON, D. C., May 6, 1884.

CLUB LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the article on "Club Law," in your issue of April 10, you do not mention the American case of Evans *vs.* The Philadelphia Club (50 Pa. St., 107), decided by the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in 1865. The question raised was whether a member who, in an altercation within the walls of the club, struck a fellow-member, could be expelled. The Supreme Court said he could not, because the power to disfranchise members for such offences had not been expressly given to the club by its charter. A member had an ownership in the property of the club, of which he could not be deprived except by express authority of law. In the absence of a provision in the charter, it was a general rule that members could be expelled only on conviction in a court of justice of an infamous offence, or for committing some act against the society which tended to its destruction or injury. The offence complained of, though disorderly, was directed more against the fellow-member than against the society, and was not alleged to have been habitual. The Court said also:

"That the power of disfranchisement which does destroy the member's franchise must in general be conferred by statute."

"That the power to make by-laws is incidental to corporations, and generally expressly conferred by statute; but by-laws which vest in a majority the power of expulson for minor offences are in so far void, and courts of justice will not sustain expulsions under them."

It is very rarely that courts allow a man to be expelled from such societies except for gross misconduct. An instance of an expulsion sustained by the courts is to be found in Commonwealth *vs.* Philanthropic Society (5 Binney, 486). The expelled member had presented to the society a physician's bill which he had altered from four dollars to forty.—Truly yours,

S. G. F.

PHILADELPHIA, April 28, 1884.

[The Evans case related to a Pennsylvania corporation, and was decided by an evenly divided court, and consequently can hardly be regarded as of high authority in questions relating to unincorporated clubs outside of Pennsylvania. Besides this it goes too far. A club in which the right of assault and battery among the members is protected by law, would be an oddity anywhere.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

WE learn from the Boston *Advertiser* that a memorial of the life of the late George Fuller has been determined on, and that Mr. Howells has engaged to write it. It will be copiously illustrated from the artist's own works, and will be limited to 300 copies. The profits that may accrue are to go to Mrs. Fuller.

The *New Amsterdam Gazette* of this city, a monthly journal exclusively devoted to things Dutch, calls attention to the movement making in Holland to present a testimonial to Prof. Nicholas Beets on the double occasion of his attaining his seventieth birthday and relinquishing (by law) his chair in the University of Utrecht. The venerable poet, it will be remembered, was among the honored guests at the recent tercentenary celebration of the founding of the University of Edinburgh. The Consul-General of the Netherlands, at 47 Broad Street, will receive the contributions of American admirers of Beets who wish to join in doing him honor.

'Property and Progress' is the title of a work by Mr. W. H. Mallock in reply to Henry George, which will be published by the Messrs. Putnam.

Roberts Bros., Boston, have in press a California story by Miss Maud Howe, entitled 'The San Rosario Ranch'; an historical Japanese romance, 'The Usurper,' by Judith Gautier, the daughter of Théophile, translated into English by Miss Abby L. Alger, daughter of the Rev. W. R. Alger—a double inheritance of literary talent; and 'The Boston Cook Book' (a title not so alluring as the universality of "Boston brown-bread" might warrant one to infer), by Mrs. D. A. Lincoln.

S. W. Green's Son announces the immediate publication of 'Amateur Photography,' by D. J. Tapley. The book will be profusely illustrated.

Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston, will publish in July 'A Method of English Composition,' by Prof. T. Whiting Bancroft, of Brown University; and, in December, a 'Grammar of the Middle High German Language,' with a reader and a glossary, by G. Theodore Dippold, Ph. D.

Funk & Wagnalls will be the American publishers of Dr. Robert Young's 'Concordance to the Greek New Testament,' including the 8,000 changes in the Revised Version.

Le Français, after a struggle for existence in which it has never lowered its standard of excellence, at last succumbs to the fate of its predecessors. With the June number, according to the philosophic announcement of its editor,

> "— Encore une feuille qui file,
> Qui file, file, et disparaît."

We were wrong in guessing that Dr. Coues penned the humorous description of Potomac rail-shooting in the 'Avifauna Columbiana'—it was his associate, Dr. Prentiss; and in predicting a temporary lull in the former's activity on account of his approaching voyage to Europe. On the contrary, he expects before leaving to receive from the press of Estes & Lauriat, Boston, copies of the second edition of his 'Key to North American Birds,' revised to date and entirely rewritten, and incorporating for the first time the author's 'Field Ornithology,' published ten years ago. The new 'Key' will contain 900 pages, against 361 of the old, and 562 cuts, against 238. The whole work will form a complete incentive and guide to the pursuit of the science, theoretically and practically.

The International Library Conference has been fixed for September 3-6, at Toronto.

Archibald Forbes's 'Chinese Gordon' is now procurable in still a third imprint, that of Harper & Bros., who have added it to the Franklin Square Library.

The fourth edition of the 'Globe Pronouncing Gazetteer of the World' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) has been wholly renewed with the aid of the leading censuses which have been taken since the edition of 1879. The work, of English make, is a compact duodecimo, neatly printed, and furnished at the end with convenient maps by Bartholomew, of Edinburgh. The articles are extremely brief, but carefully prepared. In addition to the pronunciation, the derivation of names is indicated in many cases. Completeness is not aimed at. Thus Beaufort, Cohoes, Duluth, Seattle (to take American examples in which the pronunciation might seem perplexing), are not entered; and we have observed some other omissions, as of Cape May, which are less easily accounted for. There is a slip in bounding Massachusetts on the South by *Long* Island; and Cohoes Falls (mentioned incidentally under Mohawk River) is printed *Cahoes*. But on the whole the work is meritorious as well as handy.

The editor of the 'Satchel Guide to Europe' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has for its thirteenth edition only stereotyped phrases by way of introduction. We shall be more particular, for it is evident on a cursory examination that the guide has been made fitter for the satchel by paring down the margins; that about two pages have been dropped without loss from the appendix; and that three folding maps of Central Europe, Switzerland, and Paris have been added to the volume. All these are substantial improvements.

The death of Chevalier Wikoff has prompted the publishers of his 'Reminiscences of an Idler' to bring out a new edition of that work (Fords, Howard & Hulbert). In the four years since its first appearance it will be found to have acquired a fresh interest in consequence of the publication of the memoirs of Lord Lytton, whose wife was one of the numerous women in confidential relations with the obliging Chevalier. Many of her letters to him are given in the concluding chapters.

Alice Carey's series of stories, filling two volumes, called 'Clovernook; or, Recollections of Our Neighborhood in the West,' just reprinted by A. C. Armstrong & Son, seem to us no longer tolerable reading except as landmarks of the taste of another age. That age is symbolized either by *Graham's Magazine* or *Godey's Lady's Book*. Some phases of early Western life are no doubt recorded here with fidelity, but the writer's art was unequal to the task of making them interesting as studies. The critics, she acknowledged, found her tales too sombre in tone, and such they will be found to-day. One feels, moreover, that she was too much the victim of her environment to view it objectively, and too little humorous to paint the sordid rural life to which she was accustomed otherwise than in depressing colors.

Mr. Edward L. Anderson's 'Modern Horsemanship,' though published in Edinburgh (David Douglas), is the work of an American, who adopts the general opinion of a high French authority when he says that "every one who wishes to *excel* in horsemanship should study Baucher's work as the fountain-head of all that is best in the art." Mr. Anderson has taken a step in advance, for while cordially endorsing the value of the

methods recommended by the standard authorities which he freely uses in writing his book, he presents a new method of teaching riding and training by means of twenty eight pictures, or figures, taken from the life by instantaneous photography. These pictures, together with six diagrams, are of great value, and cannot fail to encourage a new departure from the usual course of instruction. The work is divided into two parts: first, riding; second, training. Each part seems to be carefully and conscientiously treated. Some of the author's excellent suggestions deserve the thoughtful attention of army officers as applicable to our cavalry. For the rest, Mr. Anderson is an advocate of the "close-seat" (which is a characteristic of American cavalry), and of nearly all the essentials of good horsemanship, both in theory and practice, as taught and daily employed in the American cavalry service.

The nice paper, the beautiful print, the convenient size, the accurate scholarship, and many other enticing characteristics of the "Clarendon Press Series" of text-books have often been mentioned in these columns. The last specimen we have received is 'Aristophanes: The Frogs,' with Introduction and Notes by W. W. Merry, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Lincoln College, Oxford. In some respects this is the best edition of a Greek play which has been published in the course of the series. In noticing some of the previous volumes of the series, among others Mr. Jerram's edition of the 'Helena' of Euripides, and also in reviewing some American editions, we censured the practice of referring to some other work for an explanation of a difficult passage, and more especially the practice of referring to parallel passages, without quoting the words. In a review of Professor Seymour's 'Selected Odes of Pindar,' we stated somewhat fully our objections to this kind of commentary, and mentioned among the excellencies of that work the scrupulousness with which were quoted the exact words of such passages as were thought likely to be advantageous to the student to compare. Whether or no our remarks have come to the notice of Mr. Merry, we of course cannot say, but certain it is that he has in a very marked manner avoided the fault. The number of illustrative and parallel passages cited is very large, but, so far as we have noticed, they are in all cases quoted with sufficient fulness to enable the student to make the comparison without starting on a hunt for some other perhaps inaccessible volume. There are some other defects of English editions of the classics for the use of students from which Mr. Merry's work is free, but we have not space to enter into details. The index of proper names and words and phrases explained in the notes is more than ordinarily full. This edition of 'The Frogs' is appropriately bound in green.

In a handsome octavo of 650 pp. (Macmillan & Co.), Mr. Alfred Daniell, M.A., Lecturer on Physics in the School of Medicine, Edinburgh, has attempted to furnish 'A Text-book of the Principles of Physics.' In his preface Mr. Daniell says his "aim has been to produce a work useful at once to the student of medicine, the student of science, and the general reader." In so far as regards the author's attempt to give no undue prominence to the physiological aspects of the science of physics is concerned, it must be regarded as entirely successful. Thus, of the sixty-five pages devoted to "sound," only six treat of "The Human Ear," and a considerable portion even of these could hardly with propriety be omitted from any treatise on acoustics which made any pretensions to completeness. To those who have never studied any of the more elementary treatises on physics, we do not think this work would prove satisfactory. As a summary of the principles of physics it is very complete, but the attempt to embrace so much within the limits of a single volume has rendered necessary a degree of condensation which makes it often read like an abridgment of a larger work or a syllabus of a course of lectures. But the work seems admirably adapted to the needs of a more mature class of students under the guidance of a competent professor. The numerous problems inserted in the course of it are generally well chosen and will prove of great advantage to those who have the patience and resolution to work them out. A bibliography is appended containing the titles, not only of the most important recent works on the various branches of physics, but also of many in course of publication and of several "in press." The index to the book is very full, and though we have consulted it many times, we have never failed to find what we were looking for.

Frederick Keppel sends us a delightful etching by Peter Moran, "A Summer Afternoon"—cattle in a river scene, etched in an excellent style and with a picturesque subject. It is free from the delusions of artificial printing, and owes a by no means common brilliancy to honest use of the line, being in this respect an example to our increasingly numerous body of young etchers. A fault which is almost universal, however, among the etchers of the day is the violation of the law of reflection, here shown chiefly in the images of the cattle in the foreground, which are, for water so broken, far too distinct. In rippled water, all the lines tending to horizontal are in proportion to this tendency lost as form, while the vertical lines are conversely distinct. If the landscape painters would take the pains to study the reflections in water as carefully as they do the objects reflected, they would find that, as Da Vinci says, speaking of reflections, "Man sees the object from one side, nature from the other." The little herdsman in this etching is lost in light and shade, and insignificant in stature. Mr. Moran would advantageously make a "second state" of his plate by putting him out or giving him a better innings. He is either too much or too little.

We note the appearance of the first number (for May) of the *American Meteorological Journal*, published monthly by W. H. Burr & Co., Detroit, Michigan, and edited by Prof. M. W. Harrington. It is spirited and clear of purpose beyond the average of first numbers, and promises to attract the most able collaboration in the country, while not neglecting foreign phases of the science. Here will be found some curious particulars of the new branch of underwriting at the West—against cyclones and wind storms. Editorial reference is made at p. 3 to a popular belief, in the States adjoining the upper lakes, "that high water in wells is propagated from the lakes southward, though slowly and at irregular intervals."

Bulletin Astronomique is the name of a new French periodical devoted to astronomy and published under the auspices of the Observatory of Paris. The appearance of the first two numbers augurs well for its success. It is designed primarily for French astronomers, and consequently will doubtless be somewhat provincial in its character, but not to such an extent as to preclude foreigners from being interested in its contents. It will contain papers on theoretical astronomy, and one of its most interesting features is the review of the contents of the principal astronomical periodicals, English, German, and American. It will undoubtedly contain the most interesting part of the astronomical section of the *Comptes Rendus*, and thus render much valuable material more accessible. It is edited by M. Tisserand, with the assistance of MM. Callandreau, Bigourdan, and Radau, all of the Observatory of Paris. Private enterprise, by the way, has recently fitted the National Observatory with a large and powerful instrument of a novel construction; the larger observatories have laid out elaborate courses for instruction in the science; and the establishment of this journal is to be considered as an index of a new awakening.

M. Janssen, Director of the Astro-Physical Observatory at Meudon, near Paris, has recently presented to the Washburn Observatory at Madison, Wis., a large photograph of the sun on glass, taken at his observatory. This gift is noteworthy, not only from the fact that M. Janssen has been more successful than any other person in researches in solar photography, but also because this picture, with one exception, is the only specimen of M. Janssen's handiwork in this country.

Professor Brachelli, Chief of the Statistical Department of the Austrian Ministry of Commerce, has nearly completed the fourth revised edition of his highly important publication, 'Die Staaten Europa's,' a comprehensive work of comparative statistics, of which the first edition appeared in 1853—when the author was only nineteen years of age—and the third in 1876. Though forming but a single volume, it treats exhaustively, in ten chapters, of areas and populations, agricultural and mining production, commerce and communication, education, ecclesiastical affairs, government, administration, the army, the navy, and finances. It is hardly necessary to add that the revised statistics of this work are based on the very latest and most trustworthy data. The place of publication, like that of the former editions, is Brünn. Of Brachelli's 'Statistical Sketch of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy' the ninth edition appeared in 1883.

The fifth and seventh volumes of Professor Bartoli's valuable 'Storia della Litteratura Italiana' have been lately put forth. The life of Dante is the subject of the first of them, and an effort is made by the author to separate the facts of Dante's career from the conjectures that have grown up about it; the poet's intellectual life is to be considered in the sixth volume, not yet published. Petrarch's life is the subject of the seventh volume, the features of his life and work being viewed in chronological order, under the captions Character; Mysticism; Petrarch and the Papacy; Colas di Rienzi; Petrarch, Italy, and the Empire; Petrarch, the Princes and Signori of Italy; Petrarch and the Renaissance; Petrarch and Laura; The Friends and Followers of Petrarch. The Dante study, it is thought, will excite some opposition among students, the ideas expressed being in some instances destructive of prevalent opinions.

—George Redway (London) has lately reprinted, under the editorship of Mr. Richard Herne Shepherd, Poe's first book—'Tamerlane and Other Poems. By a Bostonian. Boston, Calvin F. S. Thomas, 1827'—of which no copy is known to exist in this country. The edition, which is limited to one hundred numbers, is very prettily printed on Whatman paper and bound in thick vellum boards, so that it is by no means a reproduction of the original Boston issue, which was distinguished by its mean appearance. The text, however, has been carefully edited on the basis of the British Museum copy, and a list of emendations is given under the head of "Errata in Original Edition," in which the editor has been almost humorously just in acknowledging his obligations to Mr. Ingram, who once printed some of these poems in a magazine article. There is no reason to doubt the trustworthiness of Mr. Shepherd's version, notwithstanding Mr. Ingram's irascible criticism of it, both before and after its publication; and

lovers of Poe in this country will be very glad to own, in so convenient and beautiful a form the boyish verses which, although some of them much revised, were included in his last edition, have been hitherto inaccessible to the public. Students of poetic art, too, will find much of interest in the crude product of Poe's genius, for no poet was ever developed more by art than was he. If Mr. Shepherd is encouraged to add to this volume, as he half promises to do, reprints of Poe's 1829 and 1831 editions, of each of which not more than half-a-dozen copies survive in America, the series, taken in connection with the 1845 edition, would furnish a very interesting illustration of the growth of a poet's mind, and prove by the successive corrections how much surer was Poe's artistic sense than his original inspiration.

—Dr. George Hand-Smith, an American resident in London, has just opened there an exhibition of "endoliths," which, if the inventor's claims for them prove well founded, are probably destined to mark the beginning of a new epoch in decorative art. These endoliths are paintings *in* marble, depending—to use his own words—upon "the development, within the substance and below the surface of marble, of painting or designs in monochrome or color, whereby the art of painting is combined with the durability of sculpture." Dr. Hand-Smith states that, after long experiments, he has succeeded in discovering the principles of the movement of molecules or atoms of color within marble, ivory, or other dense substances, and in so controlling this movement as to induce designs in every variety of color to penetrate unchanged to the depth desired, and finally to become imperishably combined with the stone. The actual penetration is proved by the fact that the designs may be made upon the rough marble, and this afterward ground down and either polished or left with a dead surface. Even cross-sections of marble so treated may be cut off, and one or more duplicates thus produced. Most of the pictures in marble in the exhibition have been "driven in" to the depth of about three-eighths of an inch, and several of those in ivory have penetrated so completely that it is impossible to tell upon which side they were originally painted. So far as the discoverer cares to make the details of his process intelligible to outsiders, it seems to depend upon some affinity between oxides employed in the colors and the carbonate of lime of the marble, the two combining under the influence of what he calls the "differentiation of heat" within his apparatus. The explanation is not very clear, but the fact remains that he exhibits paintings of all kinds, portraits, decorative designs, inscriptions, and simple coloring, indisputably below the surface of marble of all kinds and ivory, and that these cannot be affected by anything applied to the surface, and can only be destroyed by grinding away the material itself. The discovery is attracting a good deal of attention from prominent English artists, several of whom have promised to execute paintings on marble for Dr. Hand-Smith to render permanent by his process. The exhibition contains a bust of Carlyle by Mr. J. E. Boehm, R.A., which has received a tint of cream-color, to remove the coldness of pure white marble, and in which the high-lights have been chiselled white again by the sculptor. There is also a beautiful and effective section of his designs for the great dome of St. Paul's by Mr. E. J. Poynter, R.A., which furnishes an admirable illustration of the possibilities of the new method, with which we understand Mr. Poynter is so pleased that he intends to make considerable use of it in the work upon which he is engaged. Besides its value in the production of absolutely permanent paintings and decorations, Dr. Hand-Smith's process opens up a wide field of possibilities in polychromic architecture. It has also, of course, great value from a commercial point of view, but the discoverer intends to take no steps in this direction until its position and worth as an adjunct to the fine arts have been fully determined.

—The American Oriental Society held its annual meeting on the 7th inst. in Boston. Professor Whitney, of Yale, spoke of the life of Dr. S. Wells Williams, the President of the Society, calling to mind his eminent services as a pioneer in opening a knowledge of China and the Chinese language to the Western world, and also his great usefulness to our country in the conduct of its diplomatic relations with China, and especially his agency in introducing the "toleration clause" into the treaty of 1858. Professor Joseph H. Thayer paid fitting tribute to the memory of Dr. Ezra Abbot, who was the Recording Secretary of the Society for about thirty years. A paper upon the Northern barbarians in ancient China, by President Martin, of Peking, was read to the Society. Professor Lyon, of Harvard, gave an account of recent Assyriological publications, and Doctor Lehmann, of Baltimore, spoke upon certain phonetic changes in ancient Babylonian. Professor Isaac H. Hall discussed the Cypriote inscriptions, and also a roll in Philadelphia which came from the late Shapira. It was claimed by Shapira and believed in Philadelphia that the roll was a thousand years old; but Doctor Hall reduced the claim to two or three hundred years. Professor Lanman, of Harvard, read a paper on a passage in the Rigveda, and gave an account of a society in Calcutta for the printing and gratuitous distribution of the Sanskrit classics. Professor Avery, of Bowdoin, gave the results of a detailed investigation of the unaugmented verb-forms in the Vedas. Professor Whitney read a paper on the study of Sanskrit *versus* that of the Hindu grammarians. In this he showed the prime importance of studying the actual phenomena of the language, and not the Hindu statements respecting what the language ought to be: these statements are indeed worthy of being tested by the facts of actual usage, just as the Hindu astronomical works might be tested by the known facts of the science of astronomy of to-day; but they are in themselves of very subordinate importance when compared with the results of our own observations made in accordance with modern scientific methods. The election of officers occurred at this meeting. Professor Whitney was chosen President in place of the late Doctor Williams, and Professor Lanman was made Corresponding Secretary in place of Professor Whitney. For over twenty-seven years the duties of Corresponding Secretary have been performed by Mr. Whitney with the utmost fidelity and zeal. He has given freely to the Society his time, learning, and literary labor. His contributions to volumes vi.-xii. of the *Journal* amount to more than those of all others combined, and include the great work on Hindu astronomy, the Taittiriya and Atharvan Prati-çakhyas, the index to the Atharva-veda, and various important papers on Indian astronomy and chronology, and on phonetics. To him more than to any one else is due the high position which the Society now enjoys among Oriental scholars throughout the world.

—Prof. Heinrich Leberecht Fleischer, of the University of Leipzig, whom the unanimous opinion of learned Germany acknowledges as the highest authority in the field of Arabic scholarship, received an ovation on the 4th of March, the sixtieth anniversary of the day on which the institution whose Professor of Oriental Languages he has been for nearly fifty years, bestowed on him the title of Doctor. The King of Saxony raised him to the dignity of Privy Councillor. The little town on the Elbe where he was born in 1801; the gymnasium at Bautzen, which he entered in 1814; the German Oriental Society, of which he was one of the founders; the Saxon Academy of Sciences, of which he is one of the secretaries; the Orientalists of the Finnish University at Helsingfors; and the University of Edinburgh showered congratulations upon him—the last-named institution sending him a diploma as LL.D. Among the disciples who appeared before him was a young Turk, the hearer of his lectures on the Koran. Professor Fleischer numbers among his former disciples some of the most eminent Orientalists of Germany, and books of distinguished philologists containing additions from his pen are frequent. Thus, for instance, his supplemental notes to Levy's 'Neuhebräisches und Chaldäisches Wörterbuch über die Talmudim und Midraschim' form a large portion of that extensive work. Among books dedicated to him we may mention Franz Delitzsch's 'Jüdisch-Arabische Poesien aus Vormuhammedanischer Zeit,' published as "a contribution to the celebration of his jubilee" in 1874, and 'Die Sprache der Kossäer,' by Friedrich Delitzsch (1884). Both father and son are Fleischer's colleagues at the University of Leipzig, and both express in their dedications a boundless reverence for him as their teacher. "Accipe quod tuum est," says the famous Hebraist (born in 1813). "Over the vast domain of Arabic philology," says the equally famous Assyriologist (born in 1850), "one man reigns an autocrat, of whom I pride myself on being a pupil." And the autocrat of that domain, of which "Persian and Turkish are dependencies," continues to be active as teacher and learner in the eighty-fourth year of his life.

— M. Maspero has come back from his last official Nile trip, Miss Amelia B. Edwards reports in the *Academy* of April 26, "rich in new acquisitions for the Boolak Museum, and richer still is the yet untold wealth of one of the most extraordinary discoveries ever made on Egyptian soil." Close to Ekhmim (the ancient Chemmis or Panopolis), on the right bank of the Nile, about 130 miles below Thebes, he has discovered an entire necropolis, untouched by tomb-breakers, ancient or modern. It appears to belong to the Greek period, though a Pharaonic substratum of interments may yet be disclosed. The sepulchres seem to be family vaults or catacombs, not isolated tombs, as elsewhere. M. Maspero had five of the vaults opened, and in these he found about 120 perfectly preserved mummies, as he writes to Miss Edwards, and in the course of a few hours he recognized the existence of about a hundred other vaults, all inviolate ("une centaine d'autres puits encore vierges"). Supposing that the still unexamined portions of the necropolis have also been preserved intact, he calculates that the whole must contain five or six thousand mummies. Even if only a comparatively small number of them should prove to be of value, as specimens or for the objects buried with them, the enthusiastic Honorary Secretary of the Egyptian Exploration Fund expects the unearthed necropolis to yield "more treasures in the way of papyri, amulets, and jewels than have ever before been discovered." Remembering that in tombs of this period papyri containing fragments of Sappho, Anacreon, and other ancient poets have been found, she even indulges the hope of "the discovery of some of the lost works of the cyclic and other Greek poets." This, of course, is an "interesting possibility," but hardly more than that. In other fields of excavation, too, interesting discoveries have

been made. In the burial-fields of Sakkarah and Dashur, an inviolate tomb of Pepi I., of the sixth dynasty, was found in the beginning of April, containing three sarcophagi, and, among the funerary objects, seven little model boats. A fine golden necklace or collar, with clasps formed of hawks' heads, is among the trophies. At the same time excavations are being vigorously carried on also in Lower Egypt, in "the field of Zoan," or San, under the direction of Mr. W. Flinders Petrie, on behalf of the Egyptian Exploration Fund. A late number of the London *Times* has a long account of the way that explorer has begun his work, to which great expectations are attached, but no find of importance has as yet been reported.

THE FLOWER OF QUAKERISM.

James and Lucretia Mott. Life and Letters. Edited by their granddaughter, Anna Davis Hallowell. With portraits. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

It goes hard with some women to sink their maiden name on marrying. Lucretia Coffin had neither sentiment nor scruple in this particular. Her husband's surname was at least as euphonious as her own, whose signification, moreover, could have been little relished by one so conspicuously tenacious of life as she. On the other hand, while she, more than the heir of the Motts, gave lustre to the name of her adoption, this double biography shows that the reformatory tradition and example came rather from his side of the house than from hers. His paternal grandfather and great-grandmother were early emancipators of their own slaves, while his maternal grandfather and namesake strictly abstained from the use of slave-labor products. There was greater cultivation, thoughtfulness, and gift of literary expression in the immediate ancestors of James Mott than in those of his wife, strongly marked as was the character of the Coffins and the Folgers (involving relationship with Benjamin Franklin). James Mott himself appears in a very favorable light in these pages, especially where he speaks for himself. His letters are full of good sense, and his style is emphatically the man—simple, frank, weighty. In 1815 the subject of slavery was already a concern to him; in 1826 he became an agent for Lundy's *Genius of Universal Emancipation*, at the same time associating himself with Friends who wished to procure free-labor products; in 1830 or 1831 his conscience compelled him to give up a flourishing business in cotton; in 1833 he and his wife shared in the formation of the American Anti-Slavery Society. On another side, we find him, as early as 1820, criticising sharply the distinction made in the power of the men's and women's meetings for discipline in his Society, derived, as he supposed, "from an opinion prevalent with the 'people of the world,' that a woman should not be suffered to speak in the church." When division arose in the Society, he was ready sooner than his wife to join the Hicksite wing.

Once this step having been taken, Lucretia Mott resolutely refused to go further: she would not, in an epoch of come-outism, among Friends as among other denominations, cast off the Society in which she had been reared, nor would she be cast out of it. Her "going out in the mixture," as her philanthropic collaboration with abolition and other reformers was called, brought much persecution upon her from her Hicksite brethren in the Southern trade, and they would gladly have forced her withdrawal from the Select Meeting of Ministers and Elders; "but this would have constituted her an 'offender,' and have rendered her liable to be 'dealt with' and deposed as an acknowledged minister. She was careful to give her opponents no legitimate cause of action against her, for she greatly desired to remain not only in the Society, but as an 'approved minister' in it." It is very probable that she clung to her ministry from considerations quite distinct from those which made separation from the Society repugnant to her, as, the force of old associations, the thinking it handsomer (in Emerson's phraseology) to remain in the establishment better than the establishment, etc. She must have been conscious of certain natural limitations which would have made her less conspicuous and less useful outside the Society; of certain advantages within for gratifying two very strong propensities—the love of travel and of social intercourse. As a preacher she was far superior to the average of her denomination, yet her speech was desultory, and, apart from her winning personality, would hardly have made her eminent in any purely intellectual competition. She had an acute but not an original mind, nor an orderly one. "She thinks and reads much," said an admiring friend, "but does both without system." In Dublin, Richard Webb, himself a Quaker (and by and by a come-outer), noticed that at the Royal Exchange, in 1840, "her remarks were discursive: the anti-slavery enterprise, moral reform, temperance, and the promotion of peace, were all touched upon, not forgetting another of her favorite themes, the exaltation of the moral and social condition of women." This was perfectly characteristic, Mrs. Mott's speeches consisting of a round of "testimonies" bound together only by their relation in a common morality, and by the beauty of her spirit shining through her delivery of them. Her Quaker garb protected what was after all a Quaker deficiency from criticism, just as it saved her from violence when speaking against oppression in the border slave States, as she sometimes ventured to do; and just as it procured her invitations to speak before religious bodies which would have been scandalized by a similar performance from a woman not a follower of George Fox or Elias Hicks.

It is incredible now to what length religious bigotry went in pursuing James and Lucretia Mott as schismatics. Their journey to England to attend the World's Anti-Slavery Convention in 1840—which was called and largely controlled by Friends—was anticipated by their Orthodox enemies on this side, who denounced them as pseudo Friends, and procured for them all sorts of indignities, with public and private disownment, among their narrow-minded English co-religionaries. Even the painter Haydon, to whom, as a delegate to the Convention, she sat for her portrait, "found her out to have infidel notions, and resolved at once, narrow-minded or not, not to give her the prominent place I first intended," reserving that "for a beautiful believer in the divinity of Christ." Elsewhere Mrs Stanton tells how "on several occasions, when we all met at social gatherings in London, Elizabeth Fry studiously avoided being in the same apartment with Mrs. Mott," and once, when driven to close quarters, prayed at her very pointedly. But there is nothing in Mrs. Hallowell's narrative that surpasses the refusal of a sectarian Quaker physician in Indiana to relieve Mrs. Mott, his own guest, of a severe attack of neuralgia, alleging, "Lucretia, I am so deeply afflicted by thy rebellious spirit that I do not feel that I can prescribe for thee."

Mrs. Mott "got even" with Mrs. Fry at an anti-slavery meeting in London from which, as from the World's Convention, female delegates were excluded, so far as to be what John Woolman would have called "shut up in the ministry," although seats of honor were provided for them on the platform. "Elizabeth Fry," wrote Mrs. Mott in her journal, "afterwards apologized for her conspicuous seat. I told her it was just the seat she ought to occupy in a *Prison* meeting, and there was no objection to it in this one, only as showing the inconsistency of our opponents." We could wish more of such repartees had been remembered, for Mrs. Mott was fairly prolific in them, and her "asides" on public occasions had often all the pungency of wit and the force of argument. They were not always equally happy. Thus, her "*husband* and wife," said in an undertone when Mayor Fox, of Philadelphia, had pronounced a certain couple "man and wife," which induced that worthy magistrate afterward to abandon the traditional formula, was founded upon a superficial knowledge of the history of the obnoxious words. They seemed to her to imply that "the wife was a mere appendage, as she was probably regarded when that formula first came into use"; whereas the conjunction is as innocent of oppression as Mignon's idea of that heavenly mansion where

> "Sie fragen nicht nach Mann und Weib"

was innocent of impurity. But all her life Mrs. Mott was a precisian in language, partly, we may surmise, from having once been a school-teacher, and partly from the hereditary caution of her sect.

The prevailing bent of her mind was theological, as her letters in this volume testify abundantly. She dearly loved to read books, like the life of Blanco White, relating the struggles of creed-bound minds toward the freedom which she enjoyed. She found 'Essays and Reviews' "more interesting than any of your novels," hailed the appearance of Buckle and of Colenso, and eagerly absorbed John Stuart Mill's autobiography, 'Literature and Dogma,' the 'Light of Asia.' There may be thought an excess of letters presenting this dominant phase of Mrs. Mott's intellect, on the part at least of those who can say as she does of Colenso: "The introduction interested us much, but not the examination, having passed through that period years ago." But it should be remembered that letter-writing was not her forte, and that she was never less happy or unrestrained than when writing even to her nearest relatives. Her proper study was mankind seen face to face. For this not only her ministerial and philanthropic journeys, but her boundless hospitality at home, gave her abundant opportunities. The humorous side of these experiences is barely hinted at in this book. On p. 420 we read:

"On Sixth-day last, that windy, cold day, I brought down some of my winter clothes to mend, saying to Maria that it was Heaven to be by ourselves to do as we pleased. We had not been seated long before she said, 'Look, mother, here comes company, with a carpet-bag.' I had only time to escape, with my arms full of quilted petticoat, etc., when ——— and ——— were ushered in. We were in for it till the following Second-day, and it was a very pleasant visit *if we hadn't so much pleasure!*"

Readers of Mrs. Child's Letters will recall Whittier's comical account of his "losing" unwelcome guests on the street. A similar experience (except that Whittier could "never lose a *her*") is related on p. 353:

"Our Yearly Meeting company began to come on Sixth-day: a forlorn Friend from ———, whose mind had been slightly affected. She preaches occasionally. . . . Now she wanted to find ———, who was her 'first-cousin once't removed,' and she would 'like to put up there, but she must have a pilot.' I was going up to ——— ———'s some time that day, so, nothing loth, I made *that* time suit, and taking one of her bandboxes myself, while she carried the other, we trudged forth, she with thick yellow moccasins on and two shawls. We reached Franklin St. after a while, and, dropping her at the door of her friend's house, I turned quickly down the first street."

We pass over much that might be quoted both from and concerning this venerated woman, and

come to the closing scene, when, in her wandering, "she thought she was attending her own funeral, and addressing those present." As the sentences came from her lips they were written down:

"If you resolve to follow the Lamb wherever you may be led, you will find all the ways pleasant and the paths peace."

"I feel no concern for those of my own fold, I believe they are well grounded."

"If an official ministers, let him know his place."

"Now thee lead, Maria, and the rest will follow. First, all of my own fold will go. Now follow as truth may open the way."

"Decorous, orderly, and in simplicity."

These last words were repeated many times, and in passing judgment upon this book as a literary production they occur to us as the most fitting with which to describe it. Mrs. Hallowell's editing is eminently sober, modest, discreet, successful in generalization, happy in descriptions, and full of insight into the mainsprings of her grandparents' characters. In her best vein is the chapter on the life at "Roadside," written, we may be sure, *con amore*, and to the graphic truthfulness of which all can testify who have ever visited that abode of good will to man. Add an irreproachable style, and an index. The result is an important contribution to the history of the Society of Friends, and of the leading reforms of the century, with which the names of James and Lucretia Mott are forever inseparably connected. Those, on the other hand, who, like a certain French school of economists, find in the records of family life the most fruitful suggestions for the amelioration of social evils, will be charmed with this relation of a Quaker household from which affection and reverence were never wanting, and in which public interests and activities were reconciled, in the most exemplary manner, with an exacting standard of domestic obligations.

GRIMM'S ESSAYS.

Fünfzehn Essays. Von Herman Grimm. Berlin. New York: B. Westermann & Co.

THE essay on Emerson, the first of this most interesting series, was written shortly after the death of our great thinker, and its appreciative tone and high estimation of Emerson's writings and influence cannot fail to win the sympathy of American readers. "Emerson desired that to his countrymen should remain the advantage of an unbiassed criticism of the Past, untrammelled by the transfer of European historical burthens." Whether he was inspired by a feeling prevailing around him, or whether his teachings have become the mainspring of American literary culture, is a question Grimm cannot determine. Emerson's essays tend to make man independent in thought and action; they invite him to self-examination, to seek his true vocation in life and to follow it. To the idealist he shows the results of practical labor; to the realist the beauty and usefulness of intellectual culture, and these lessons have borne rich fruit in various soils. Carlyle's admiration of Emerson is well known. Tyndall's words have been quoted frequently: "If any one can be said to have given the impulse to my mind, it is Emerson: whatever I have done, the world owes to him." Among his own people his influence is paramount. Our critic is struck with the clearness and simplicity with which New England professors and students develop their theme, going to the point at once without superfluous allocutions. He also finds much to praise in the function of the daily press in bringing together "those who have something to tell and those who wish to hear what is told." This remark relates to the accounts in the daily papers at the time of the death of Longfellow and Emerson, and the mass of interesting detail they gave concerning both.

Grimm became acquainted in early youth with Emerson's writings, and describes the impression they made on him of deep understanding, of sympathetic contemplation of the world and just appreciation of past and present—an inward power no other shares with him. Nature seemed to have revealed her secrets to him, and there was no question one might not have asked him, feeling sure he must know all things. His thoughts, running in short oracular sentences, were like the verses of some never ending poem, the plan of which he would one day unfold. All this and much more Grimm tells us. In his own words: "As the wind by night, passing through a wood or over a meadow, brings us the breath of trees and grasses and flowers we cannot see, Emerson envelops us with a feeling of things brought very near to us. This feeling of my own I now hear expressed on all sides, as if all had felt thus from the beginning." It is needless to follow our author through the account of Emerson's life, or to comment on the sketch of his works incorporated in this article.

"Fiorenza: Remarks on Certain Poems of Dante and Michael Angelo," goes far to persuade us that Dante and Michael Angelo, in several poems till now supposed to have been written to fair and cruel ladies, addressed the personification of their native city. Some critics have seen Philosophy or some unknown lady in Dante's Canz. ix., beginning—

"Così nel mio parlar voglio esser aspro."

Others, because the beloved is apostrophized as being of stone, have thought of Donna Pietra degli Scrovegni, a Paduan lady, to whom another poem is addressed. There is no doubt that the reproaches so liberally bestowed were merited by the poet's ungrateful Florence. In the case of Michael Angelo, Grimm argues the point step by step so cleverly, bringing in fresh indications in evidence of his theory, that we cannot refuse to be convinced. The German rendering of several of Dante's sonnets and of the above-cited canzone are very well done. They are transcribed by Grimm with great poetic freedom, and therefore do not lose the beauty and freshness generally wanting in translations. This article is full of interesting historical and biographical detail, and deserves to be carefully read and considered.

The essay on Raphael's "School of Athens" in the Vatican follows. It is not light reading, nor have we space to examine our author's exhaustive criticisms of previous writers on the same subject, of which there are not a few. The great point of discussion is whether the central figures of the composition represent Plato and Aristotle, or Plato and Paul the Apostle. Considerable diversity of opinion exists, also, as to the identity of the groups to the right and left of the foreground. No documents of the time bear any record of this painting, or make any mention of its existence. In the succeeding essay, on the early life and works of Raphael, we are reminded how few reliable documents exist concerning his personal life. It is only within the last fifty years that, through the investigations of the priest Pungileoni in the archives of Urbino, we know the real dates of his birth, his father's death, etc. Pungileoni published his account, 'Elogio Storico di Raffaelle Santi d'Urbino,' in 1829, besides another, of Giovanni Santi, his father, some years previous to this. From these it appeared how very inexact Vasari's life is, and how much more like a romance than serious biography. Seven letters written by Raphael's hand remain to us, with 300 paintings, and more than 600 drawings. These alone suffice to reconstruct the history of his work. We cannot, for want of space, dwell at any length on this study. It may interest our readers to learn that the small picture lately purchased for a high price and sent to St. Petersburg, known as the Madonna Staffa, is considered by Grimm to be Raphael's earliest work.

The treatise on the origin of the popular story of Doctor Faustus is one of the most interesting essays of this collection. The material got together for this was originally intended for a book on the subject, but as the author has little hope of finding time for such a work he gives us a résumé of his vast stock of lore. The international popularity of the old book of 'Faustus' he ascribes chiefly to the fact that, although it treated of spiritual, clerical, and supernatural matters, it kept clear of any leaning towards the Protestant or the Catholic faith, so that the clergy of neither religion saw fit to take umbrage at its contents. The Strassburg puppet-show piece from which Goethe got the principal facts of his great creation, is generally traced back to the "Faustus" of Marlowe. The English writer had used a translation of the old book of 'Dr. Faustus' brought to England in the year of its publication, 1587, by strolling actors. The author, or rather compiler, of this book is unknown, but it is not difficult to recognize the original narrative as distinct from the innumerable disconnected adventures tacked on to it from various sources. Dr. Johannes Faust of the story is neither Catholic nor Protestant, nor has he any connection with the Reformation, while his prototype, Dr. George Faustus, is mentioned by Luther and Melanchthon, and was a well-known character in his day. Trithemius, Abbot of Sponheim, considered him a swindler, yet he seems to have been received by Franz von Sickingen and clerical persons of Spires and Erfurt. He was a learned man, proficient in Greek and mathematics, and boasted that he could repeat the whole of Plato and Aristotle from memory. George Faustus also dabbled in the black arts, styling himself "Magister Georgius Sabellicus, Faustus junior, fons necromanticorum, magus secundus, chiromanticus, agromanticus, pyromanticus, in hydra arte secundus." Trithemius first knew him under this title in Gelnhausen in 1506. It must be remembered that all learned men of the day were looked upon as sorcerers, and Trithemius himself had to clear himself of this charge, although he never denied his faith in evil spirits, in prophecy and prophetic dreams; and this faith he held in common with Luther, Melanchthon, and many others.

Trithemius, in his chronicle of Sponheim, tells us also of Dr. Johannes Faustus, who appeared at the court of the French King in 1501, and called himself "philosophus philosophorum," and also "Mercurius," messenger of the gods. He was supposed to be Italian, although Knüttlingen in Wurtemberg is mentioned as his birthplace. Our notice is called to the circumstance, in the old story of 'Faustus,' that the raven who lends a feather from his wing to sign the contract with the Evil One, is also named Mercurius. Düntzer, who has written on this subject, believes that as Georgius Faustus calls himself "Faustus secundus," we must take "Faustus" for a surname. Sabellicus indicates his origin. Goethe accepted this, as he calls him "The necromancer from Norcia the Sabine." "Magus secundus" refers to Simon Magus, known to fame as "Magus primus"; "in arte hydra secundus," to Pythagoras, who, according to St. Augustine, was learned in hydromancy.

The compiler of the old story of 'Faustus' was utterly unable to give any artistic form to the

mass of material he had before him. Marlowe, in his tragedy, was the first to select and give shape to part of this accumulation of episodes. The scene in which Faust, after revelling with the students, conjures up Helena of Troy at their request, who passes across the stage to the sound of soft music, must have been eminently dramatic. Faust after this remains alone with Mephistopheles (whose name derives from μη το φως φιλων, being of the class of spirits *qui lucem oderint*). An old man then appears, who entreats Faustus to give up magic and to appeal to God's mercy. Faustus, moved by his earnest exhortation, promises to repent, upon which the old man disappears and Mephistopheles counteracts his influence, changing to evil Faustus's good resolutions. The effective conclusion is Marlowe's own. We translate Grimm's account of this episode according to the old book:

"It is told how, Faustus bragging of his powers of magic, the students beg to be shown Helena. He promises, on condition that none shall rise from his seat, or speak a word, or seek to touch her. He then leaves the room and reenters followed by Helena, whose charms are described. The students bid fair to break the contract of immobility, under the provocation of her coquetry. Faust leads her away. On his return, the students, being allowed to speak, surround him, begging that he will make her return the next day and that they may bring a painter with them. Then suddenly appears the old man, whose discourse brings Faust to repentance. Then ensues the scorn of Mephistopheles, the renewed sorrow of Faust, and, in conclusion, the resigned expectation of the end. In this scene, so full of meaning, almost every word leads up to a climax needed for dramatic representation. Marlowe here does not come up to his original."

We now come to still another Faustus, mentioned in the letters of Erasmus—Faustus Andreolinus, an Italian studying in Paris through the bounty of some rich patron. This man was deeply inimical to the monks, and no doubt they retaliated by giving him the reputation of having a compact with the Evil One, who is supposed to have carried him away at the last. Dryasdust erudition and sensually realistic elegies are all that remain to us of his writings, but he seems to have been held in esteem and friendship by Erasmus, who kept up a correspondence with him while the latter was in England in 1499. He even invited him to follow him there in a letter which we quote:

"If thou knewest how pleasantly one lived in England thou wouldst fly hither through the air even in spite of thy gout, which thou wouldst elude Dædalus fashion. What shall I begin to describe? The maidens here are charming, beautiful, amiable, pleasing, far better than the Muses with whom thou holdest converse. It is the custom here to greet with a kiss on entering a house, and on taking leave. Whenever one meets an acquaintance, before any other forms, two kisses. The air is full of kissing. If thou hadst once tasted of those soft appetizing wares, thou wouldst not wish to close thy life anywhere but here."

We conclude from this letter and Faustus's own poems that he was known for a man of pleasure. Trithemius is supposed to have told how Faustus exorcised the Virgin Mary, who appeared at his call before the Emperor Maximilian. No doubt this was the foundation for the appearance of Helena. As the student life of Paris is also changed into the Wittenberg University, even Erasmus may have changed into Wagner. Erasmus's letters were generally known at the time of the appearance of the Faustus story, and used for the teaching of Latin, so that no doubt they were familiar to its compiler.

The great question which Grimm seeks to solve is, whether any drama of the kind existed in Germany which the compiler of the Faustus story had before him, or if he himself first intended to dramatize the tale which gradually took the more digressive form of a romance. Notwithstanding the most careful researches, no play on this subject has as yet been found. Grimm, however, still maintains on internal evidence that the old German puppet play of "Faustus," which Goethe used for his 'Faust,' cannot derive either from Marlowe or from the old book of 'Faustus,' but from some earlier work now beyond our reach. Goethe himself made use of all the elements belonging to the different characters bearing the same name used for the old story. To those he added the spiritual development of his day, besides his own experiences of sixty years.

Other essays of varying interest treat of Michel Angelo's Medicean tombs in San Lorenzo, of two engravings of Friedrich Weber after Titian's "Divine Love" and Holbein's portrait of Erasmus, Bettina von Arnim, the brothers Grimm, Rauch's Centenary, Anselm Feuerbach, and two Dürer engravings.

A Confederate Soldier in Egypt. By W. W. Loring, Late Colonel in the U. S. Army, Major-General in the Confederate Service, and Fereek Pasha and General in the Army of the Khedive of Egypt. Illustrated. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1884.

THE title of this book is sufficiently appropriate. We are offered neither a history nor a regular description of the Nile land, nor a narrative of travels therein, but the notes of a soldier (who served under the Khedive Ismail) on the late past and the present of that ever interesting country, with some fugitive glances at its remoter periods and equally fugitive remarks on its future. The book is the production of a man of action and adventure, not of a scholar or diligent inquirer. It embodies very little antiquarian lore, and little research of any kind, but much that is based on personal observation—views shaped by experience and individual predilection and antipathy, and presented with vivacity and terseness. It is light, superficial, and slightly sensational, but apparently the true reflection of a wide-awake man's impressions, sentiments, and prejudices, and eminently readable. It contains pleasant descriptions, some piquant details—part of them of questionable authenticity—and interesting illustrations. As the sole source of information on Egypt under Ismail and his son, Tewfik, it would be exceedingly misleading from its great partiality for the deposed Viceroy, whose bounties the author enjoyed for about ten years, and now more or less consciously repays with ample interest, and from the hostile bias with which all English interference in Egyptian affairs is judged; but as an addition to the growing literature on contemporary Egypt and her almost unspeakable woes, it will be found instructive and enjoyable even by the well read, in spite of its obvious exaggerations and glaring unfairness in advancing political views. A large portion of the volume is devoted to Abyssinia, in one of the unfortunate Egyptian campaigns against which the author had a leading part. The book, for its own success, appears at the right time, for the terrible condition into which England's diplomacy and warlike interventions, and her recent nondescript policy of aimless doing, undoing, and not doing, have plunged Egypt and its dependencies, seems not only to justify the most passionate invectives against "perfidious Albion," but grandly to vindicate Ismail and Arabi, whom our author glorifies.

According to General Loring, not only was Ismail a great benefactor of his country, but "the just and upright motives which prompted him were patent to all intelligent observers." His great aim was the education of the people, the elevation of the fellahin. He instituted schools for the instruction of the masses, and—what no Oriental had ever done—schools for the education of females, but even this he did, not from a desire to shine and appear great before Western Europe, the dispenser of power and wealth, but from the high conviction "that if you educate the women of a country you elevate the men." He never failed to mete out severe punishment for acts of oppression which became known to him. His numberless material improvements—agricultural and industrial works, railroads, telegraphs, canals, harbors, constructions for irrigation—"stand, with many other acts of beneficent policy, as monuments of his goodness and wisdom." He was not only entirely free from bigotry and intolerance, but always evinced "the instincts of a liberal-minded gentleman." And "if there were no other public act to show the bent of his mind, his course in abolishing slavery would be sufficient." (Our ex-Confederate General speaks of slavery, and especially of the slave-traffic, in terms that would satisfy the most zealous disciples of Wilberforce or Garrison.) Ismail aimed at higher things. Never losing sight "of one absorbing thought—the education of the people," he believed that education "would result in the amelioration of their religion"; and, "with Egypt as a nucleus, he knew it was an easy matter" to extend his great reforms, and with them his benign worldly power, "over the entire Arab race." What a pity, then, that unfortunate lavish propensities made this "great reformer and benefactor" a victim of heartless bondholders, for whose sake England discarded all considerations of justice, humanity, and sound policy, broke plighted faith and old treaties, covered Alexandria with ruins, and deluged Egypt with the blood of its sons and defenders. The war was wantonly provoked by the Controllers, under the pretext of protecting Tewfik, the ally of the bondholders, against the mutinous soldiery, but in reality in order to prevent the Notables from interfering, through fair legislation, "with the pay of the 1,325 foreign officers forced upon the country." Arabi Pasha, who owed his influence to his integrity and patriotism, accepted the challenge, but "carried on war as best he could according to the usages of civilized nations, at least as far as can be learned from any evidence that has been published." He did all he could to prevent the massacre of Christians, and was guiltless of the burning of Alexandria.

Military Italy. By Charles Martel. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

LIKE every other Continental state, during the last dozen years Italy has entirely remodelled her military system after the German pattern. Universal liability to service, short terms of service, and large reserves—these are the general principles on which modern European armies are all organized. They were adopted by the Italians in 1871, and sufficient time has now elapsed to form a judgment whether these principles have been applied with such adaptation to the national character and local conditions as to produce a really efficient system, or whether the letter of them has been blindly copied without regard to its spirit. Mr. Martel is, we think, the first writer who has treated the subject with any degree of thoroughness. His opinion is, that while "it cannot be pretended that the military system of Italy bears comparison with that of its great model, . . . yet, in spite of a few faults and failings, it must with justice be affirmed that the wise activity displayed in the sphere of military reforms has on the whole resulted in a very real success."

With a population of 29,000,000 people, Italy has annually about 275,000 youths who attain their twentieth year, and become liable to military service for the next nineteen years. Of these about 75,000 are rejected for physical defects, leaving the available number 200,000, of whom about 76,000 are drafted into the active army, and the rest go into the Territorial Militia, where they receive no military training, and are merely liable to call. Those who go into the active army pass three years with the colors, are then placed on furlough for five years, subject to immediate call on mobilization; then they pass four years in the Mobile Militia, which is called out for only a few weeks' drill in each year; after this their military service is practically over, although, for the remaining seven years of the nineteen, their names are carried on the rolls of the Territorial Militia. The whole military force is thus made up of the

Active army	704,207
Mobile Militia	330,767
Territorial Militia	893,998
	1,928,972

But of this vast total, only 216,596 are maintained under arms; so that the permanent force of Italy is much less than that of the other great states—that of Germany, for example, being about 400,000, and of Russia over 600,000. It is probable that Italy could put into the field an army of between 600,000 and 700,000 effectives, leaving the Mobile Militia to guard the fortresses and preserve order at home. The Territorial Militia is little better than a paper force, only a small part of it having had any training whatever, and there being no arms for it. In 1879 there were but 440,000 of the adopted small arm (Vetterli) on hand, and only 220,000 of an inferior converted breech-loader for the militia. The capacity of the four small-arms factories is 60,000 a year, but there are no reserve arms as yet.

The army as organized is deficient in cavalry, the peace effective being only 22,000, against 44,000 in Austria and 60,000 in France. It has another serious defect in the very small number of intrenching tools carried with it, and still another in the lack of proper means for supplying ammunition. Though the soldier carries eighty-eight rounds on his person, yet there is no reserve of ammunition nearer than the division wagon train, which is usually a long way off at the time when ammunition is needed. In both of these particulars—intrenching tools and supply of ammunition—the Italians do not seem to have studied the lessons of the last Turkish war as closely as their military rivals.

In devising their system of recruiting and mobilization, the Italians were obliged by political considerations to make a wide divergence from the German model in one very important particular. As is well known, the German army corps are localized in various districts, and all the men of that corps come from that district, and the men of a single regiment from a certain small portion of the district. When the order is given for mobilization the reserves on furlough have but a short distance to travel in order to join their colors. In Italy it was deemed unwise to form whole regiments or divisions from one locality; it was necessary rather to consolidate the union recently achieved, and for this purpose it was determined to form each company from the natives of different parts of the kingdom. For this purpose five great recruiting zones were marked off, separated from each other by lines running nearly east and west; these zones are as nearly as possible equal in population, and they contribute equally to every company in the army. "The rivalry of races is therefore sufficiently guarded against; the various portions of the contingents, of by no means equal worth as regards soldier service, lose to a great extent their individuality, while unity and cohesion of regiments are finally and satisfactorily assured. The disadvantages of the plan have regard solely to mobilization." It was certainly a bold experiment, perhaps necessary on political grounds, but actual experience can alone tell whether it was wise. To have men travelling in every direction for long distances in order to find their regiments during the hurry of mobilization, would seem to be a plan specially devised to invite confusion and disaster.

We have pointed out some of the defects in the Italian system which show plainly that it is far from being equal to its model. Yet the author is probably correct in saying that "public opinion altogether underestimates the fighting forces of the country," and he cites the recent alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy to prove the growing power of military Italy, because without military power Italy would never have been invited to join such an alliance. It is doubtless true that Italy is still inferior in strength to Germany, Russia, France, and Austria; moreover, the Italians have no traditions of success, for "since the battle of Legnano, in the twelfth century, their military annals register not one single-handed victory won as a nation." Yet it is probably also true that no nation in Europe is making such rapid advance in military and naval strength as Italy. What success will attend her efforts, can only be determined in dread conflict when it comes. Meantime an opinion as to the probable result can be formed from the excellent and exhaustive discussion of the present condition of affairs which is given in this book.

L'Éloquence de la Chaire et de la Tribune Françaises. Edited by Paul Bouët, B.A. Vol. I. French Sacred Oratory. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

THIS neat little volume contains extracts from the funeral orations and sermons of Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Fléchier, and Mascaron—that is, of the five great lights of sacred oratory in the seventeenth century. Since that wonderful age—called, not without reason, *le grand siècle*—when French genius seemed to have reached its acme, science has progressed steadily; the arts have held their own, or, as in the case of music, attained further development; poetry and the literature of fiction have been revolutionized; but sacred oratory has never been equalled. The works of the celebrated divines, from which M. Bouët has so judiciously selected his excerpts, have remained models of eloquence to be imitated by their successors in the Catholic pulpit; nay, more, to be studied and recited on some occasion of moment. "Quand je veux les émouvoir, je leur prêche du Massillon," a good old curé said once, naïvely. For the student who seeks to master the language in all its perfection—and for such this little volume is intended—it possesses another interest: it offers him the best models of French prose that have ever been written. The short biographical notices which precede the extracts, and the valuable notes at the end, add much to the interest of the book. Vol. ii. will contain extracts from the political speeches of the great orators, from Mirabeau to Gambetta.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Axon, W. E. A. Cheshire Gleanings. Manchester, Eng.: Tubbs, Brook & Chrystal.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 121-130. Leipzig. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Browne, G. H. Notes on Shakspere's Versification. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Burgess, Prof. J. W. The American University. When Shall it Be? Where Shall it Be? What Shall it Be? Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 15 cents.
Busch, M. Our Chancellor: Sketches for a Historical Picture. 2 vols. in one. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Criswell, R. W. Grandfather Lick-Shingle. John W. Lovell Co.
Colburn, Warren. Intellectual Arithmetic upon the Inductive Method. Revised and enlarged. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 35 cents.
Daryl, Philippe. Public Life in England. George Routledge & Sons. $1.
Délière, F. J. The Franco-American Cookery Book. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.
Fiske, S. Off Hand Portraits of Prominent New Yorkers. G. R. Lockwood & Son.
Hawthorne, J. Archibald Malmaison. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Loring, Gen. W. W. A Confederate Soldier in Egypt. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Richey, Professor. The Nicene Creed and the Filioque. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Robinson, F. W. The Man She Cared for. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Shedd, Prof. W. G. T. The Complete Works of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. In seven volumes. Harper & Brothers.
Stanton, T. The Woman Question in Europe. A Series of Original Essays. With an Introduction by Frances Power Cobbe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Townsend, G. A. The Entailed Hat; or Patty Cannon's Times. A Romance. Harper & Brothers.
Watson, P. B. Marcus Aurelius. Harper & Brothers.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 22, 1884.

The Week.

SENATOR CULLOM'S bill to prohibit speculation by bank officers makes it unlawful for the president, cashier, or teller of a national bank "to deal, trade, or otherwise engage in speculation in stocks, bonds, or other securities, or in grain, provisions, produce, or oil, on margins, on his own individual account, or for his own personal profit, either directly or indirectly, or to have any partnership or other financial interest in the operations of any private banking or brokerage firm or business." Violations of the act are punishable by imprisonment for not less than one and not more than five years, or by a fine of not more than $10,000. An act of this kind, it seems to us, ought by its terms to enforce itself as far as possible. To effect this it would be necessary to make stock operations disqualify a man for a bank presidency. If a bank president could be made to resign the moment it became known that he was speculating in stocks, the stockholders and depositors would be far safer than if they had to await his prosecution by the District Attorney. We appear to be entering on a brand-new period in finance, in which the people on whose integrity the whole fabric of credit rests are to be just those against whose rascality we are most likely to need protection, and in which legislation with regard to banks is to be based on the idea that all positions of trust naturally lead to crime. Under these circumstances it seems to us that there ought to be a summary way of bringing a bank president to book, and making him disclose under oath just what he is actually doing; why he goes "on the Street" so much, and why he does not stay in his bank and attend to its affairs. If he can give no satisfactory explanation nor prove an alibi, let him be disqualified from being a bank president for life.

As a matter of fact, if the stories published with regard to the recent bank mismanagement are correct, the trouble has been mainly fraud and crime, though the fraud and crime have been led up to by stock speculation. In one case the bank president is said to have been in the habit of drawing the amount of his losses in Wall Street at the end of the day from the bank, and having it entered on the books against a fictitious loan to a non-existent person, based on an alleged deposit of imaginary securities, kept in an empty vault of which he carried the key. Such a transaction as this is not countenanced by the law even as it stands now, and renders a man liable to the forfeiture of all his property and to incarceration in the penitentiary besides. Probably with a cumulative sentence such as is now sometimes given, he could be put there for life. Still, we are in favor of having the law complete, and if Senator Cullom will amend his bill so as to enable any depositor or creditor (not the directors only, because they might be in collusion with the criminal) to examine the President before a judge or commissioner as to how he spends his time, and to have the office vacated *ipso facto* if he is found to be continually hanging over a ticker, we shall then be able to give the new system a fair trial.

Mr. Seney's misfortunes as a bank president suggest the question whether it be well, after all, for a man to give away large sums in charity, unless he is going to retire from business. It is undoubtedly a finer thing than leaving them by will, but legacies have the advantage of always coming from a man who has left "the Street" for good, and whom neither stocks nor bonds, puts nor calls, privileges, margins, securities, nor loans can trouble any more. The beneficiaries are thus spared the pain of seeing their benefactor struggling with and often overwhelmed by difficulties from which his donations, if he could get them back again, would save him. We think, therefore, that anybody who really means to make gifts, *inter vivos*, on a great scale, ought to put his affairs in deathbed order, and thus be able to view panics with the serene if not pleasurable indifference of the poet's man who, from the top of a cliff, chuckles over the laboring of ships in a heavy sea.

The return of confidence caused by the reopening of the Metropolitan Bank on Thursday was checked rather rudely in the afternoon by the failure of Fisk & Hatch. They were overthrown in 1873, and, though since then very successful, seem never to have completely regained their old position. They have ever since had things to sell, and, except a brief period in 1879–80, the position of people with things for sale has not been a favorable one. The great fortunes of the last ten years have been mostly made by the bears, and anybody who was made, either by circumstances or temperament, a bull has had a hard time. The reason assigned by the firm for their failure—"the long-continued decline in the market prices of securities, even the very best, accompanied by a general weakening of confidence in financial matters"—has made the fortune of a good many men in Wall Street within the last three years; but they have not been men who had bonds to place, or railroads to construct, or industrial or financial enterprises to push.

The German depositors in the Newark Savings Bank have taken the sensible course of threatening in a general way that unless their accounts are made good, inquiries will be set on foot calculated to lead to a solution of the question whether any one connected with the bank has committed a criminal breach of trust. This course is both prudent and business-like, for it is eminently adapted to induce every one connected with the bank to ask himself the two great questions which few of us, however ready we may be to answer them in another world, like to be asked in this, Am I liable? Am I guilty? Directors of institutions forced to answer both of them in the affirmative, or left in doubt as to what the proper answer is, are usually under a strong inducement to use all their means to save their creditors from loss.

The *Tribune* calls the Rev. James M. Pullman to account, in some remarks, for the most part very just, for having in his sermon last Sunday attributed to General Grant a criminal knowledge of his partner Ward's doings. It further says that he has made himself "amenable to the law." The practice of personal denunciation from the pulpit cannot be too severely condemned, and undoubtedly a libel delivered from the pulpit ought to be punished as sternly as a libel delivered in any other place. But the misfortune of the position into which General Grant allowed himself to get is, that it enables people to libel him with impunity. The law would not presume that he knew how Ward was making the profits which he shared, but it would be very hard to convince a jury that any one who said he knew ought to be punished for it. In cases of this kind, choosing to remain ignorant about something he is profiting by often tells against a man as much as actual and proved knowledge. If the affair will bring home to the minds of those who have filled high places, that they owe it to the people who have honored and trusted them to keep out of dubious company and suspicious situations, it will do great good.

Ferdinand Ward's testimony on Monday must inevitably increase the suspicion that he was not the only person interested in his "contracts" who was aware that the entire business of the firm was a swindle. He says that "of course there never were any profits to divide"; that supplies of money were furnished by Messrs. Fish, Tappan, Warner, and Work; that all these men received their "profits" regularly, and that one of the two books containing the record of contract operations was kept in Mr. Fish's office and the other in his own. A great deal of the firm's "business" was transacted on notes endorsed by Fish, Tappan, Warner, and Work, and while these men seem to have been wise enough to draw out their "profits" as fast as they accrued, other investors, whose opportunities for gaining inside information were not so great, were induced to leave theirs in for fresh investment. These latter persons are likely to be deeply interested in these revelations, and we trust that they will press Messrs. Fish, Tappan, Warner, and Work as closely as possible, in order to gain as much additional information as they possess. Ward is doing his best to shield every one connected with him in his swindling, but he said on Monday that several of his former more or less direct associates were grieved by some things which he had admitted, and he would like opportunity to qualify them. This was promised him, but we trust the aggrieved persons will have a chance given them to take the stand and speak for themselves.

The truth about the real-estate market appears to be that it is in a healthier condition

than it has been for some years, and in an essentially different condition from that in which the panic of 1873 found it. Then the prices of real estate, and especially "lots," were, just like those of railroad stocks, enormously inflated, and the panic led to a violent contraction, followed by a cessation of all schemes of improvement. Several years of depression ensued, and about 1879 or 1880 there began to be a distinct revival, which put rents and prices up, and was followed by a "movement" in lots, and the speculative building operations on which the value of lots depends. The present crisis can only have an indirect effect on this movement, by increasing the timidity of capital. It will be likely to retard all speculative enterprises, and no one who has followed the course of the market for the last ten years can believe that this of itself will do any lasting damage.

The bill lowering the duty on works of art from 30 to 10 per cent. was defeated on Monday. This was due in part to the action of some of the free-traders, who will agree to no special reduction when they cannot have a general one, but mainly to the Western and Southern feeling that pictures are a rich man's luxury, and that it would be dangerous on the eve of a Presidential campaign to lower the duty on them. About the educating influence of works of art, either on artists or the general public, and about the national importance of a knowledge of art, or a love ot art, these men know and care nothing. There is a certain excuse for their prejudice, stupid as it seems, in the fact that picture-buying is in this country, perhaps more than in most others, one of the first signs of a great increase of fortune. The European millionaire runs into land and field-sports as soon as he gets his money. Ours are very apt to buy pictures the first thing, which is a fortunate thing for the country, but it undoubtedly gives color to the suspicion of the agricultural mind that they are imported as furniture.

The Democrats of the House Appropriations Committee have proved unequal to the heroic course of striking civil-service reform dead at a single blow by refusing the appropriation for the Commission. After contemplating the sum of $18,700 asked for by the Commission for many weeks, longing to kill it but not daring to take the responsibility, they agreed on Monday to report it to the House, merely cutting it down to $17,300. As the great cheese-parer of the House, Mr. Holman, was himself a member of the Committee, and consented (with great reluctance) to favor the appropriation, there will probably be no further objection when the bill comes before the House. This will be so craven a submission to the reform clamor of the time that large numbers of the rank and file of the party in the West, notably in Ohio, are likely to have their faith in the perpetuity of Democratic institutions badly shaken.

The amendment to the civil-service law, making its regulations compulsory upon the mayors of all cities in this State having a population of 20,000 or over, has passed both branches of the Legislature, and will undoubtedly receive the Governor's approval. All the attempts which were made to have exemptions incorporated were defeated, and the law now includes within its jurisdiction all branches of the municipal service. This is the most remarkable reform victory of the session, and the one which will have the most enduring and far-reaching influence for good. The municipal service in every large city in the State must henceforth be conducted without regard to political influences. Appointments must be made after open, competitive examinations, and the only test will be the fitness and capacity of the applicant for performing the duties of the position which he seeks. All promotions from lower to higher grades must be made on the basis of merit and competition alone. No person in the service will be under obligation to contribute to any political fund, or to render any political service, and no person can be removed or otherwise prejudiced for refusing to do so. All persons are forbidden to levy political assessments upon employees of a city, or to solicit or receive, either directly or indirectly, from any such employee any assessment, subscription, promise, or pledge for any political purpose whatever; and any person found guilty of violating this provision will be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and subject to a fine of not less than $50 and not exceeding $1,000, or to imprisonment for not exceeding six months, or to both fine and imprisonment at the discretion of the Court.

An excellent bill is now before the Governor for his signature, and will doubtless receive it, which makes the sale or circulation in any manner of an obscene "magazine, pamphlet, or newspaper," a misdemeanor. Better still, the second and third sections make guilty of the same offence any one who

"sells, lends, gives away, or shows, or has in his possession with intent to sell or give away, or to show, or advertises, or otherwise offers for loan, gift, sale or distribution to any minor child, any book, pamphlet, magazine, newspaper, or other printed paper, devoted to the publication or principally made up of criminal news, police reports or accounts of criminal deeds; or exhibits upon any street or highway, or in any other place within the view, or which may be within the view, of any minor child, any book, magazine, pamphlet, newspaper, writing paper, picture, drawing, photograph, or other article or articles coming within the descriptions of articles mentioned in the first and second subdivisions of this section, or any of them."

This ought to remove at once from the news-stands and streets generally the *Police Gazette* and a number of other publications of a similar character, if the District Attorney and the police do their duty. They will be expected to do it, and their failure to do so will be easily observable.

Judge Sedgwick has rendered a decision in the Newman church quarrel which gives some advantages to both sides. He makes permanent the injunction granted some weeks ago against the trustees, but with some modifications. The general effect of his decision is to recognize Dr. Newman as the acting but not the permanent pastor of the church, and without any right to take part as an officer at any meeting of the church, or of the deacons, or of the society—that is to say, it puts him in the position of a Methodist minister hired temporarily to do duty in a Congregational pulpit. It ties the trustees up, too, to the management of the property, and forbids their interference with the government of the church, and denies their right to refuse the use of the church building for meetings to the Ranney party, or to decide on the qualification of voters at church meetings. In short, from a spiritual point of view the decision is against the Newmanites; from the financial point of view it is in their favor. Under it Dr. Newman can hold on to the church, but it distinctly intimates that he ought not to do so, not being a Congregational minister. The Newmanites, however, like all Stalwarts, are essentially *de facto* men, and are rather amused by *de jure* views of the situation.

There is something very pathetic as well as tragic about the suicide of Judge Reid, of Mount Sterling, Kentucky, who was assaulted on account of a decision of his court, by a lawyer named Corneilson. The lawyer came to him in his chambers, and beat him brutally; the Judge, who was taken unawares, offering no defence. It appears that the social code in Kentucky requires that when even a judge is assaulted on account of his official acts, he shall not appeal to the law to punish his assailant. If he was unable to defend himself at the time of the assault, he is bound to arm himself, and go in search of his assailant, and murder him as soon as he finds him—exactly as if he were a breech-clouted New Guinea savage. Judge Reid happened at the time of the assault to be a candidate for election to the Court of Appeals. He was also a professing Christian man and an elder in the Presbyterian church. In short, besides being the citizen of a State calling itself civilized, he held official positions and made public professions which imposed on him a peculiarly solemn obligation to abstain from violence. According to the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, however, he found in his canvass that his refusal to commit murder was so injurious to him, and brought on him so many slights and imputations, that the strain became greater than he could bear. His nerves broke down and he committed suicide the other day.

The trouble with Kentucky, as with all barbarous communities, is not simply that the people rate physical courage as the highest of the virtues, but that they suspect everybody of not possessing it who is unwilling to prove it by some deed of violence. In civilized States, however, the virtue exists not only in as high a degree as among savages, if not higher, but its diffusion through the community is taken for granted, and nobody is called on for displays of it for the satisfaction of his neighbors. There is in such States never any lack of brave men for any public service, however dangerous, whether of war or peace. In fact, no community can be great in which physical courage is not a common trait of the men. But no civilized community nowadays would think of asking a judge or man of any

other peaceful calling to prove the possession of it by a murder or other deed of violence, any more than it would think of asking him to prove his powers of memory by retailing indecent stories, or the strength of his brain by a drinking bout. The tenacity with which traditions of savagery hold their own in States like Kentucky, in spite of the church, the press, and the railroads, is a curious subject, which it would take Herbert Spencer to investigate. In the days of Daniel Boone the popular admiration of the manslayer was comprehensible; but the Boone stage has long passed away, and yet men are still expected to prove their fitness for a seat in the highest court of the State by their readiness to engage in murderous affrays.

Bogan Cash, the hopeful son of old "Colonel" Cash, was killed last week in resisting arrest for the murder of the Cheraw City Marshal. He had for a month been hiding in a swamp, and defying the Sheriff. It is fortunate that he did not surrender himself, for he would almost certainly have been acquitted on trial, plain as his guilt was, and doubtless before long would have married and perpetuated the Cash breed, besides killing several other persons. The Cash type would have been extinct before now at the South, as its members generally die early and violent deaths, if they could be killed unmarried. But they are very apt to leave sons behind, who are brought up on traditions of violence, bloodshed, and whiskey, and begin murdering as soon as they reach the age of puberty, if not sooner. The death of a Cash without heirs is, therefore, a great thing for the State. Old Cash is still at large, perhaps one of the best specimens extant of what has been aptly called the "ante-bellum blackguard," and he may do some mischief by way of avenging his son's death; but he cannot last long at best. As we have more than once said already, it is not the existence of such men as Cash in South Carolina which is strange, but the importance attached to them by decent people. Mr. Shannon, a lawyer in good standing at the bar, and a man past middle life, actually felt it necessary to fight a duel with Cash for words spoken in court, simply because the drunken old ruffian went about calling him names.

Mr. Frelinghuysen has sent in a statement to the Senate on the subject of extradition which shows how much a new treaty with England is needed. As the matter now stands, a man in London may commit manslaughter, or counterfeit money, may embezzle, steal, commit perjury, burglary, or rape, kidnap children, or scuttle a ship, or commit all these crimes together, and then run off to New York, and go scot free. An American criminal has just the same harbor of refuge in London. When we reflect that New York is the pleasantest place in the world for an English criminal, on account of some peculiarities in our domestic administration of justice, it is easy to see what an antique and inadequate affair the old Ashburton treaty is, so far as regards extradition.

Rumors of a desire on the part of Spain to sell Cuba to the United States have been renewed; but probably nothing will be done with the property till after the election. The surplus would enable us to purchase the island, though why we should pay any considerable sum for it it is hard to see. Cuba, as an American State, would immensely increase our political difficulties, as it would come in as a free State, and so, like all the States in which there is a large negro population, would have to be conceded to the Democrats. This prevents it from being an attractive purchase to Republicans, and the Democrats have other uses for the surplus. The island is invaluable to Spain, too, as it furnishes one of the regular means of enriching themselves to its officials. What we want of Cuba is an opportunity for unrestricted trade, not the island itself; and a more inconvenient and troublesome addition to the numerous "problems" which our Government presents than the acquisition of the island would make could hardly be conceived.

The majority in the House of Lords, it is now pretty well ascertained, is determined to throw out Mr. Gladstone's County Franchise Bill, and he has said in an interview that, in that event, he will probably dissolve Parliament, and appeal to the country by a general election. He will perhaps be all the readier to adopt this course because of the loss of strength which the Ministry has undoubtedly suffered in Parliament owing to the events in the Sudan. He intimates that he has a complete answer to the attacks made on him on Gordon's account, but it can hardly be made now, while Gordon is still in danger and difficulty, as it will probably consist in the publication of the full official correspondence with him. That this correspondence will show that General Gordon has not been in any way betrayed or badly treated, those who know anything of it are very confident. In the fall it will probably be possible to lay the whole case before the public. Moreover, there is much reason for believing that it is in London and not in the country that the Ministry has become unpopular, and that it will be found, when the test is applied, that little or nothing is known in the provinces of the bitter shame and humiliation over the events in the Sudan which the people report themselves as feeling in the London clubs and at the dinner-tables.

The most remarkable phenomenon in English politics just now is the open separation of Lord Randolph Churchill from the other leaders of his party, as the founder of something which he calls "democratic Toryism." There has been much talk for several weeks past of his differences with Lord Salisbury, and they reached the public eye in a very palpable form recently by the publication of one of his letters to Lord Salisbury. Of his contempt for Sir Stafford Northcote he has long made no secret in the House of Commons. He has not, however, openly separated himself from his party in Parliament on any important question till Tuesday, when he opposed an amendment to the new Franchise Bill moved by a Conservative, Mr. Brodrick, excluding Ireland from the benefits of the extension, and voted with the Government. Lord George Hamilton, who is supposed to be one of the coming Tory leaders, denounced this sort of democratic Toryism, and Sir Stafford Northcote and many others of his party left the House and refrained from voting. That such a thing as a Tory democracy can be started in England or anywhere else, as a political organization, is, of course, absurd. There is nothing that Lord Randolph Churchill can offer the English democracy which they cannot get in a much more agreeable shape from the Liberals. Democratic Toryism means democratic oligarchy, which is a contradiction in terms. There may be imperialism based on democracy, but hardly aristocracy. As a divider and paralyzer of the Tories, however, Lord Randolph Churchill is doing excellent work for Mr. Gladstone in his present troubles.

A little discussion has been going on in England about the "Art of Fiction," apropos of a lecture on the subject by Mr. Walter Besant. He took the ground that fiction is an art, and can only be taught to persons who have the gift for it. He might have added that they will generally learn it for themselves, and if they do not, will rarely, if ever, get themselves taught by anybody else. In France they have literary "ghosts" whose business it is to produce fiction which goes on to the market under some well-known name, and the elder Dumas established a very well-disciplined school of fiction, in which the scholars were taught the art of writing Dumas's novels. We see no reason why the great English novelists should not have done the same thing; but they did not, perhaps because of the extraordinary delusion which seems to pervade the whole literary class in the Anglo-Saxon world, that the possession of literary gifts implies an inspiration which it would be base to employ in a glorious art like fiction, except in original authorship. This accounts for the great overproduction of authors from which the fiction market is now suffering.

Peace has been made between Chili and Bolivia, the terms being the surrender of a good deal of valuable nitrate lands and the Bolivian seacoast. Iglesias has secured a recognition from the United States and Brazil, Germany, and Salvador, and it is expected that other governments will take the same course. There was at first a hitch in the proceedings, arising from the refusal of Iglesias to have anything to do with foreign Ministers, unless they first formally recognized him, and this, it is said, led to the suggestion that Iglesias should first apologize to every foreign nation for this refusal, and that they should then proceed to recognize him—a simple way out of the difficulty. According to a Lima letter, Mr. Phelps, our representative, is charged with attending to Chinese interests in Peru, and seems to be stimulating emigration from China to Peru, no doubt for the purpose of reinforcing the measures passed by Congress to prevent the Mongolian from coming to the United States. The Peruvians and all the rest of the world may as well understand that our Chinese policy is going to be thorough.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 14, to TUESDAY, May 20, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE long-continued financial depression, and the more recent failures, resulted on Wednesday in a crisis in this city such as has not been known since the great panic of 1873. As soon as the Stock Exchange was opened the announcement of failures began with that of Nelson Robinson & Co.; then followed in quick succession Goffe & Randall, O. M. Bogart & Co., and J. C. Williams. The Bogart failure was the most important of these, and created a sensation, which was intensified when the announcement was made that the well-known firm of Hatch & Foote had been compelled to close its doors. This was followed by the astounding announcement that the Metropolitan National Bank had suspended. George I. Seney, well known for his gifts to educational and benevolent institutions to the extent of a million and a half, is President of this bank. His two sons and son-in-law are members of the firm of Nelson Robinson & Co. Mr. Seney had advanced them large loans, and was also interested largely in Southern railroad stocks, which have depreciated greatly. It was not only impossible for him any longer to sustain the firm of Nelson Robinson & Co., but to continue the business of his bank. Therefore, it temporarily suspended. The capital stock of the Metropolitan is three million dollars, and at its last report its surplus fund was almost a million and a half. The immediate cause of the suspension was the demand from the Clearing-house for half a million dollars.

Later in the day the failures were announced of Donnell, Lawson & Simpson and Hotchkiss & Burnham, brokers. About 1 o'clock in the afternoon the Atlantic State Bank, of Brooklyn, correspondent of the Metropolitan, closed its doors.

There was a run on the Second National Bank throughout the day, but all calls were immediately met. Early in the day the Bank Examiner testified to its soundness, and this helped to allay the excitement.

Secretary Folger chanced to be in the city, and immediately telegraphed orders to Washington to take up the bonds of the 127th call upon presentation. The bonds are not due until June 20. The Secretary promised that such steps should be taken as would relieve the panicky situation.

The most important action of the day in relieving the situation was a resolution passed unanimously by the Clearing-house in the afternoon, by which the banks in the association united to support each other. The plan was for a committee of the association to receive from banks in the association bills receivable and other securities, to be approved by the Committee, and to issue for them certificates of deposit not in excess of 75 per cent. of the securities deposited, except U. S. bonds; these certificates were to be received and paid in settlement of Clearing-house balances. The result of this action was to keep large blocks of securities from being forced on the market and sacrificed.

Within five minutes after the meeting of the Stock Exchange, on Thursday morning, the failure was announced of A. W. Dimock & Co. Mr. Dimock is the President of the Bankers' and Merchants' Telegraph Company, the stock of which soon fell to 45, a decline of 74 points. No other failures followed, and the announcement was made that the Metropolitan Bank would resume at noon, a special committee of the Clearing-house having recommended that association to advance the amount required to effect the resumption. This report was made after a careful examination of its condition. President Seney resigned, and Henry L. Jacques was elected his successor, which had much to do in restoring confidence. Confidence began to return, and prices of stocks advanced. The news from other cities was encouraging, except that two failures were reported from Boston, and a bank failure from Quincy, Ill. The hopeful feeling was rudely shocked at 2:45 P. M., when it was announced in the Stock Exchange that Fisk & Hatch were forced to suspend. The firm had been the heaviest dealers in Government bonds on the Street. Mr. A. S. Hatch was recently elected President of the Stock Exchange by a unanimous vote. The immediate result was a decline in prices of from 1 to 5 per cent. On the Street it was rumored that the chief cause of the failure was the pressure for money, and the impossibility of realizing upon $4,000,000 worth of Chesapeake and Ohio stock, in which securities the firm was largely interested. They had a great many call loans and call deposits, and the sudden pressure upon them for payment, from all quarters, made it impossible for them to secure enough ready money to continue business.

The failure of Fisk & Hatch dragged down the Newark Savings Institution, and it failed to open its doors on Friday. Five years ago the bank failed and was placed in the hands of the Chancellor. He permitted the old managers to continue business and it seemed to be prosperous again. The President told the Chancellor on Thursday evening that Fisk & Hatch had more than $1,000,000 of the bank's money, but that the Government bonds which should stand for it had been replaced by comparatively valueless securities. The Chancellor immediately ordered the bank closed. It is not believed that the depositors will be paid in full.

On Friday morning the fluctuations of the stock market were alarming, but the only failure announced was that of F. C. Hardy & Sons, whose liabilities are placed at about $300,000, with assets almost equal. By 1 o'clock the market was firm again, and the fear of a panic was dispelled. Confidence seemed to be restored on Saturday, and no new failures were reported.

There was one failure on Monday in this city, that of W. B. Scott & Co. It was caused by the great depreciation in the value of securities. The firm hope to resume in a few days. The market was not strong, but there was no flurry. The suspension of three banks in smaller cities was announced as follows: Planters' and Mechanics', at Petersburg, Va.; City Exchange, at Laporte, Ind.; and Erie County Savings Bank, at Erie, Pa.

Mr. C. C. Baldwin resigned the Presidency of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad on Monday, and Mr. J. S. Rogers was elected to succeed him. The Board of Directors published the following official statement: "Mr. Baldwin reported to the Board that certain funds of the company had been invested in the purchase of stock of the company, which, when sold, produced a loss of $206,000. The Board having declined to recognize the transaction, the amount has been made good by Mr. Baldwin." There are various alarming rumors of a further deficiency of two millions, but they are not credited

On Tuesday the stock market opened weak, and disappointed those who hoped for a steady improvement, by declining throughout the day. No failures were reported.

A resolution to investigate the causes of failure of New York banks was under consideration by the Senate Committee on Finance on Tuesday. By a unanimous vote of the Committee, the Comptroller of the Currency was requested to appear before the Committee on May 27th, prepared to convey to them such facts relating to the subject as he may have gathered. Upon his showing, the Committee will decide whether there is ground to warrant further action at present.

A report of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, presented on Wednesday, shows in regard to the prohibition against the importation of salted meats into Germany and France that the discrimination is not a tariff law, but an absolute prohibition of a specific American product as an American product, and the prohibition is declared to be based upon a sanitary regulation, and enforced for sanitary reasons. The same may be said in respect to the discriminations practised in Great Britain against American cattle. If these discriminations are causeless or arise from groundless fears of danger to the public health, the United States has reason for complaint, and, after using every means to remove the prohibition, they may with perfect propriety resort to discrimination. The Committee does not find it necessary to suggest any further legislation than it has already proposed.

The Consular and Diplomatic Appropriation Bill, which came before the House of Representatives on Wednesday, appropriates $978,170 as against $1,296,555 for the current year. On Friday the House passed through the Committee of the Whole the Diplomatic, Army, and District Appropriation Bills, recommending them all for passage substantially as they came from the Appropriations Committee. The Committee resisted every attempt to increase the appropriations for the consular service, and it will remain for the Senate to insist on needed changes.

In the House of Representatives on Monday the bill to reduce the duty on works of art, the product of American and foreign artists, from 30 to 10 per cent. ad valorem, was defeated by a vote of 52 to 179. The House also, by a vote of yeas 127, nays 113 (not two-thirds), defeated a motion to suspend the rules and fix a day for the consideration of the Bankruptcy Law. The opposition came principally from Southern and Western members.

The National Convention of Wool-Growers of the United States on Tuesday adopted an address to those engaged in that industry throughout the country, urging upon them the necessity of united action to secure a restoration of the tariff of 1867 on wool and woollen goods.

Mr. Roosevelt on Thursday sent to the Assembly the report of the Special Committee that has been investigating the Police Department of New York city. They found that a fatal defect in the system is that the Commission is four-headed; that the Police Commissioners connive at the lottery and policy business in this city; that the Excise laws are openly violated, and that hush money is paid for the privilege. They recommend, in conclusion, that all departments be made single-headed, and that appointees of the Mayor go out of office with him.

The State Senate on Wednesday agreed to the conference report on the Civil-Service Bill, and it went to the Governor.

Both houses of the State Legislature passed the Park Commission Bill for this city on Thursday, making the Commission three-headed, each Commissioner to have $5,000 a year, and all to be appointed by the next Mayor. The additional appropriation of $250,000 for the new Capitol was defeated. A conference report allowing this city to subscribe $50,000 for the pedestal of the Bartholdi statue was agreed to. The Senate concurred in the Assembly amendments to the Adirondack Bill providing for a single Commissioner at a salary of $4,000. The bill fails of its object because the Governor had not time to make a nomination for Commissioner and have it confirmed by the Senate. Friday was the last day of the session. In executive session the Senate rejected several important nominations by the Governor on a strict party vote. The Assembly passed a bill forbidding imprisonment for debt for a period exceeding two years. At 12 o'clock both branches were adjourned *sine die* with speeches by their presiding officers.

The National Convention of Anti Monopolists met at Chicago on Wednesday, only 200

delegates being present, and nominated General Butler for the Presidency. Delegates from New York, Maryland, and the District of Columbia protested against the nomination of a candidate before the other conventions, withdrew, and adopted another platform.

The New Jersey Democratic Convention on Wednesday declared for protection to industries and the "old ticket" of Tilden and Hendricks. Delegates-at-large were elected in accord with these sentiments. Virginia Democrats on the same day demanded the immediate repeal of the internal-revenue taxes, and a revenue tariff "adjusted to encourage productive interests at home."

At the Methodist General Conference in Philadelphia on Thursday four bishops were elected, as follows: The Rev. Dr. W. X. Ninde, of the Detroit Conference, President of the Garrett Biblical Institute; the Rev. Dr. J. M. Walden, of the Western Book Concern, Cincinnati; the Rev. Dr. Willard F. Mallalieu, and Dr. C. H. Fowler.

The Presbyterian General Assembly (North) began its annual session at Saratoga on Thursday, with a large attendance of delegates.

Bogan Cash, one of the South Carolina desperadoes, and the murderer of Town Marshal Richards, was shot and killed on Thursday morning near Cheraw, S. C., by a Sheriff's posse, while resisting arrest. He wounded one of the officers.

E. B. Wheeler, of Copiah County, Miss., was acquitted on Wednesday of the murder of Sheriff Matthews. This was one of the Copiah political outrages.

Charles O'Conor was buried on Friday beside his father in the old Cathedral on Mott Street, in this city, after impressive services in the Fifth Avenue Cathedral.

FOREIGN.

The comments of the London press on the debate on the vote of censure were, as a whole, unfavorable to Mr. Gladstone. The *Times* said that the majority in favor of the Government did not represent the predominant and universal conviction of the country. The *Telegraph* said that for the first time Mr. Gladstone's oratory fell dead upon the House and the public. The *Daily News* said that Lord Randolph Churchill assumed more the tone of a leader than Sir Stafford Northcote.

There was an exciting debate on Tuesday in the House of Commons Committee of the Whole, on the Franchise Bill. Lord Randolph Churchill in a speech strongly disagreed with the amendment of Mr. Brodrick, Conservative, to exclude Ireland from the operations of the bill. This announcement was greeted with cheers by the Liberals. Lord Randolph said that although he objected to the bill strongly on account of some of its provisions, he thought the position taken by the Government was statesmanlike. He had no fear of the result of enfranchising the Irish agricultural laborer, and expressed the hope that the Conservatives would not alienate the good opinion of the Irish by supporting Mr. Brodrick's amendment. Lord George Hamilton, Conservative, asked Lord Randolph Churchill what he was really driving at. If, he said, this was a statement of democratic Toryism of the future, then he declined to follow under such leadership. He contended that the bill was introduced to suit the exigencies of the Liberals. Its application to Ireland would result in reopening the floodgates of agitation. Mr. Brodrick's amendment was rejected by a vote of 332 to 137. Lord Randolph Churchill and several other Conservatives and all the Parnellites voted for the Government. Sir Stafford Northcote and many of his followers left before the division. Lord George Hamilton's attack on Lord Randolph Churchill caused considerable excitement, and it is believed that the latter is still at variance with the Conservative leaders.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday the motion for a second reading of the Channel Tunnel Bill was rejected by a vote of 222 to 84.

In the House of Commons on Monday night Mr. Joseph Chamberlain spoke for more than three hours in support of the Merchant Shipping Bill. Its passage is regarded as improbable.

Queen Victoria is negotiating for the purchase of the Villa Nevada, at Cannes, in which Prince Leopold died. Her intention is to convert it into a convent and chapel in memory of the Prince.

The American lacrosse team played their first match in England on Monday at Rock Ferry with the Cheshire team, and defeated them by a score of four goals to one.

Lawrence Barrett will sail from London for America on May 30. His engagement at the Lyceum Theatre has been disappointing, and he feels that he has been slighted by the theatrical profession in London.

A part of General di Cesnola's collection of Cyprian antiquities was sold at auction in London on Monday, and went at very low prices

The British steamship *Illyrian*, from Liverpool for Boston, went ashore on the southern coast of Ireland on Thursday night, and is a complete wreck. All on board were saved.

The British Government has sent orders to Cairo that efforts be made to communicate with General Gordon by other routes than Berber. Secret emissaries will be sent by way of Kassala, also by caravan routes from Dongola and Merawe to Khartum. Refugees from Korosko and Berber, who have arrived at Cairo, report that General Gordon was well, and that the sorties he had made had been successful.

Preparations for the Khartum relief expedition include equipments for 12,000 men, forty steam launches, 400 shallow-draught boats, and several thousand camels. It is doubtful whether the expedition will be ready to start before the end of August.

The Sudan rebellion is rapidly approaching Dongola. Mudir Pasha, who is at Dongola, has been informed that no reinforcements will be sent him, and that if he cannot cope with the enemy he must withdraw.

Osman Digna made a recent attack upon the friendly tribes near Tamanieb, killed twenty-one, took forty women prisoners, and captured many cattle. Of the rebels only five were killed. The tribes attacked can muster 6,000 men, and are determined to revenge the death of their comrades and recover their women.

Two hundred rebels bombarded Suakim on Monday for one hour. Two inhabitants were wounded, and the rebels succeeded in stealing 1,000 sheep. The British troops landed at the town and the rebels were forced to retire. The rebels have captured the Government magazine at Abu-Hamed. They are advancing upon Korosko, and general alarm has been created. El Mahdi's emissaries continue to advance and are welcomed everywhere. Admiral Hewett was at Adowa on April 26. King John of Abyssinia proposes to visit him soon.

Vague rumors are current in French political circles that Prince Bismarck influenced China to conclude a treaty of peace favorable to France, believing that the chances of European disarmament would thereby be increased.

The French Government has decided to introduce a bill in the Chamber of Deputies providing for the taxation of imported cereals and cattle. Prime Minister Ferry announced to the Chamber on Tuesday that the treaty of Tien-Tsin would have to be slightly modified in order to be acceptable to Chinese susceptibilities. Admiral Peyron, Minister of Marine, introduced a bill providing for a credit of 38,500,000 francs on account of the war in Tonquin, and a credit of 5,000,000 francs on account of the Madagascar expedition.

France has agreed not to interfere with the African International Association on the Congo in consideration of the promise of the Association, in case it shall wish to withdraw from its present undertaking, to cede its possessions to France. The London *Times* attacks the Association and its objects as a private speculation. It says: "Free trade may be replaced any moment by a French protective tariff. America has been led into a false position (in acknowledging the Association). The Association has agreed to sell what it does not possess. The bargain is utterly hollow and illusory. The Association's so-called possessions relapse into unappropriated territory. The subject calls for the serious attention of the Foreign Office."

M. Louis Pasteur, the eminent French chemist, announces the discovery of an antidote for hydrophobia, by several inoculations.

The scheme for a canal from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea, converting the Iberian Peninsula into an island, has been revived. A contract has been signed between the founders of the scheme and the contractors for the Suez Canal for a canal capable of taking the largest vessels through.

The Spanish Cortes was opened on Tuesday. King Alfonso delivered a liberal speech from the throne. That portion of the new commercial convention with America which requires legislative sanction will be promptly laid before the Cortes.

The majority of the Czarevitch was celebrated on Sunday in St. Petersburg by various court and state ceremonies, and a popular fête in the Field of Mars. The streets were thronged by enthusiastic masses. At the palace Prince William of Germany, in the name of his father, the Emperor, conferred upon the Czarevitch the decoration of the Order of the Black Eagle. At the Palace Church the Czarevitch took the oath of allegiance to the Czar and loyalty to the fatherland, and swore to maintain the legal order of succession. Returning to the palace, he took the oath of military allegiance. Salutes were fired, and the city was decorated with flags.

All the employees of the Baku Railway in Russia have been arrested on the charge of being implicated with Nihilists.

A convention of 500 delegates of the National Liberal party was held in Berlin on Sunday. Resolutions were unanimously passed to support unswervingly the Emperor and the Empire, asserting the necessity of the Anti-Socialist Law, and pledging the party to support the Government in social and political reforms, especially in passing the Accidents Insurance Bill during the present session.

Sentence was passed on Monday at Leipsic upon Hentsch and Krazewski, who have been convicted of treason. The former was condemned to nine years' penal servitude, the latter to three years and six months' imprisonment in the fortress.

Emperor William has accepted the resignation of Prince Bismarck from the Presidency of the Prussian Cabinet, and has appointed as his successor Herr von Boetticher, the Prussian Minister of State and Imperial Minister of the Interior.

It is authoritatively announced that the morganatic marriage of the Grand Duke Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt with Mme. Kolamine has been legally dissolved.

Mr. Sam Ward died at Pegli, Italy, on Monday, in his seventy-first year. He was born in this city of a wealthy family, and led a somewhat wandering life. At Washington he made a reputation as lobbyist and good-liver. He was the friend of literary men, statesmen, and artists, and was the author of a volume of poems. Julia Ward Howe is his sister, and F. Marion Crawford, the novelist, his nephew.

A mass meeting was held in Montreal on Monday to protest against the pauper emigrants who are sent there by the London Samaritan Association from the disreputable parts of the metropolis.

PANICS AND PANICS.

If anybody who never witnessed a panic before supposed that what he saw on Wednesday week in Wall Street was a repetition or renewal of the panics of 1857 or 1873, he was greatly mistaken. Those were veritable commercial crises of the first order. The scenes of Wednesday were very exciting and very alarming to the ordinary investor, but they were not in any way indications that we were entering on such a period of disaster as followed the failure of the Ohio Life and Trust Company in 1857, or that of Jay Cooke & Co. in 1873. The history of commercial crises shows that although they vary in many particulars, they are uniformly alike in one most important particular. They always, to all but the very far-sighted or the pessimistic, come like thunderclaps out of a clear sky. The first note of danger is always heard in what seems to be a period of great prosperity, marked by high prices, large profits, great industrial activity, advancing wages, greatly extended credits, eager demand for money, and great mutual confidence. These have been the signs and forerunners of all the great financial convulsions.

It is needless to say that every one of them has been wanting in the crisis we are now witnessing. Low prices, small profits if any, reduced and declining wages, and the narrowest possible amount of credit, have been for some time past the rule all over the country. The fuel of a general and real crisis which was accumulated in the summer of 1881, has been slowly burning out. Perhaps it has not all been consumed yet, but the residuum must be very small. The liquidation, which in a real crisis has to be done in a week, which in 1857 and 1873 was done in a week, has in this instance been distributed over three years. The markets of the country are no longer overstocked. Although the agencies of production may be in excess of the demand for many varieties of goods, the pressure of the supply ceased some time ago to reveal itself in the further decline of prices. The work of readjustment has been going on steadily and safely for nearly three years. While something remains to be done in this regard, it is not of such magnitude or importance as to give ground for uneasiness. Unless the world is entering upon an entirely new stage of experience, in which commercial revulsions come in periods of lethargy, dulness, languor, low prices, and limited credit, we must conclude that last week's panic was a local phenomenon of a temporary character, affecting stock speculators mainly, and having no power to project itself into the currents of general trade.

It is easy to understand how the disasters of the Marine Bank and of Grant & Ward, coming at the end of protracted shrinkage on the Stock Exchange, threw upon certain speculators already weakened a burden more than they could bear. A decline of five or ten points will always hurt a great many people and will generally break somebody. If it happens to bring down a bank president or cashier who has been using funds which he had no right to use, the consequences are far more disastrous and widespread than those of an ordinary failure of equal magnitude, because confidence in banking is thus unsettled. The particular bank affected may remain perfectly sound and solvent despite the misbehavior of its officers; yet the disclosure will produce effects on the imagination of depositors and investors a thousandfold worse than the facts justify. Some people will draw out their money from banks of unquestioned solvency, and others will sell the best securities at panic prices merely because some other person, of whom perhaps they never heard before, has betrayed his trust. Such is the constitution of the human mind, and it is idle to chide it or quarrel with it.

All that can be done is to point out that bank officers are, with rare exceptions, honest and trustworthy; that the banks of New York were never in a stronger position than now, and this by reason of the weeding out of bad customers and bad collaterals, which has been going on so long; that the circumstances of the present trouble are not of a general character, deep-seated in the vital parts of traffic and industry, but confined to the immediate domain of Wall Street and to the speculating part of that, which is really after all only a small part of its general business.

The situation to-day contains abundant evidence of the soundness of this view. The alarm about the banks has been stopped by the action of the Clearing-house, which, following the precedent of 1873, gives to every bank found to bein sound condition the guarantee of all the others against the attacks of panic. Probably few, if any, of the brokers who were brought into trouble by the failure of customers to "respond," or by the refusal of banks to certify checks in advance of deposits, have escaped the general alarm. Those who are safe and sound to-day will doubtless be able now to go on their way, and it will probably be a quieter and more comfortable way than it has been for some weeks past. The worst feature in the crisis has been the appearance of the Secretary of the Treasury on the scene in the character of a special Providence, offering to allay the anxiety by anticipating payment of a large amount of bonds. No Government is fit for functions of this sort, and our Government less than most others. They are never exercised without leaving behind a certain amount of demoralization. The business world ought in times of distress as well as prosperity to be left to live by law, and not by any man's pity or discretion. One thing, however, the Government, through Congress, ought to do, and that is absolutely forbid, under heavy penalties, the borrowing of money from banks by their own officers. The practice leads not only to gross abuse, but, as we see, to great disaster. Everybody's credit who borrows from a bank ought to be judged by eyes less friendly and prejudiced than his own or those of his associates.

THE GRANT & WARD MORAL.

There are probably very few people who will not agree in the main with the remarks made by Mr. Beecher on Friday, on the Grant & Ward failure, in so far as they are a statement of facts. He is reported to have said at his prayer meeting:

"When a man has earned such a reputation as General Grant has for absolute simplicity, absolute truthfulness, straightforwardness and honesty, he is safe. General Grant has made mistakes; he has done things that I wish he had not done — possibly he wished he hadn't done them; but when General Grant and his sons go into a large concern of which they knew nothing, any more than I do, and that concern plays the mischief with him and his boys, the whole nation rises up to say, 'He is not to blame.' If Jim Fisk was here and had gone under, do you suppose there would have been a man in the whole nation but would have said, 'He is a rogue'? But General Grant has earned character and reputation, and the whole nation says, 'He was not to blame; simple, dear old fellow, he knew nothing of the wrong.' [Applause.] And just about this time the national Legislature is honoring itself by restoring him to the rank and pay of a general. It is a noble thing for the country to do. I thank God for it."

There is a very great and widespread sympathy with General Grant. People are prepared to forgive almost everything to a man to whom the country is indebted as much as it is to him, to put the best possible construction on his acts, and to do anything in reason to protect him against the consequences either of his misfortunes or mistakes. Moreover, we believe there is general acquiescence in the opinion that he was deceived as much as anybody by Ward, and believed as implicitly as anybody in Ward's stories of "profits," without knowing where they came from. But, nevertheless, it is going too far to say that "the whole nation rises up and says he is not to blame." We do not believe that the whole nation, or one-quarter of it, does anything of the kind. If this, or anything like it, were the popular judgment, there would soon be an end among us to all sense of business responsibility. What the bulk of the nation says is, that he is to blame, but that his great services, and the fact that he was himself duped, make his error seem slight, and make it easy to pardon and forget it. It will not do to press those who sympathize with him too hard. They ought not to be asked, because they love and admire him and are willing to help him, to suspend the ordinary rules of business morality for his benefit. Some little room must be left, even in dealing with his troubles, for the play of the old-fashioned commercial conscience. No country can afford to raise any individual above the moral law, any more than above the law of the land.

The great defect in General Grant's civil career has been the readiness with which he has allowed his name and friendship and association to cover unworthy persons, and protect them from the consequences of their misdeeds. "Stalwartism" has, in fact, always been simply a combination for the evasion of the law, or the abuse of the public money or patronage, under the cover of his prestige and authority. The facility with which such persons imposed on him, or "poisoned his mind," as it used to be called, was one great cause of the overthrow of the Republican party during his second term, and was the chief and fatal objection to his getting a third term. The Washington scandals of that period are beginning to fade from people's memory, and we have no disposition to recall them; but they were very serious, and they almost all arose out of the facility

with which men with criminal designs "poisoned the mind" of the President against all officers of the Government who suspected them or were likely to bring them to justice. General Grant came out of these things personally unscathed, but it seems to us he must have heard enough about them to know on which side he needed to be on his guard, and what were the defects in his character or mental equipment which grieved or alarmed his friends, and put his good name in peril. The Grant & Ward firm was in all respects an old-fashioned Stalwart enterprise. It was, indeed, as we said the other day, the very "efflorescence of Stalwartism." The machinery was all the same as of yore. A pair of rascals, of whom General Grant evidently knew nothing, and about whom he seems to have taken no pains to inform himself, got hold of him as a figure-head for a concern which was intended evidently from the first to swindle the public, and did swindle it extensively—how extensively will probably never be known, because many of the victims will be ashamed to appear. The operations they were carrying on might, for all he knew, have been those of a bunco shop or a faro bank, and he allowed them to place enormous "profits" to his credit without any inquiry as to their source. As a matter of fact, these profits were described to outsiders as emanating from Government contracts, which they were led to suppose were obtained through his influence. Surely the nation will never rise up and say that there was nothing blameworthy in this ignorance, or indifference, on the part of one who had had such long and varied experience of men and affairs as General Grant. Surely even he owes it to his fellow-citizens, who have loved and honored him so much, to make sure that his name is not used to aid fraudulent attacks on their property, especially when there is any chance of his profiting by the operation himself.

There is more importance in the matter than appears on the surface, because nearly all the trouble in our financial institutions to-day arises out of the failure of persons who allow their names to be used to bring money into concerns, to see that, when in, it is honestly managed. General Grant is meeting with a great deal of sympathy, and there is general acquiescence in the steps taken to relieve him from pecuniary anxiety, but it seems to us that he can hardly be acquitted of *all* responsibility for Ward's operations, without weakening those rules of business morality which are, after all, far more than statutes, the best defence of the community against great and carefully-prepared frauds. Mr. Thomas G. Shearman, the great Brooklyn moralist, who observed at the prayer meeting that General Grant was only a special partner in the Grant & Ward firm, and therefore not to be expected to have an intimate knowledge of its affairs, was in error. He was a general partner, and is liable now for all the debts of the concern.

THE FOLLY OF BOOMS.

THE doubts which many voters must have felt as to the expediency of the business men's meeting on Tuesday night, to push the claims of President Arthur to the Republican nomination, were, we think, fully justified by the letter of Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, which appeared in all the papers of that morning. Mr. MacVeagh, although a member of the famous "class of 1853," seems to have no bowels. His letter is exceedingly acrid in tone, but it is not its acridity which makes it either damaging or severe; it is the facts of Mr. Arthur's political career which it marshals in an orderly, and to the members of his boom most mournful, procession. Now, skilful and prudent boomers would have avoided any demonstration which would have been likely to bring these facts out, or furnish his enemies with an occasion for commenting on them. For it must be borne in mind that Mr. Arthur's sole recommendation for reëlection is that he has given the country during the last three years a very respectable and on the whole efficient administration, which will contrast very favorably with those of his predecessors since the war. On this he must rely for the nomination, and on nothing else can he possibly rely. This fact is constantly before the public eye, and doubtless suggests to great numbers of people, in a quiet way, that four years more of it would not be a bad thing. But it is not a thing which, in Mr. Arthur's case, it will do to advertise. It must be left to tell its own tale and produce its own impression without note or comment. As soon as measures are taken to work it up into a great "claim," people's attention is turned to Mr. Arthur's political antecedents. They begin to ask whether this respectable administration is what it was natural to expect from his political training, and from his political philosophy, or is merely the fruit of a tardy repentance forced by a change in the times on a man bred in, and, through all his best years wedded to, far different methods. The answer to this question must, of course, be very injurious to his boom. One does not need to read Mr. MacVeagh's cruel letter to see this. The reasons why Mr. Arthur ought not to have been nominated for the Vice-Presidency, not to speak of the Presidency, abound in the history of New York politics during the last twelve years. Everybody can recall them. His friends ought not to do anything likely to bring them up.

The truth is, there are very few men who have been active in politics who can bear an early boom. The Blaine men have found this out to their sorrow already, although the *Tribune* piously thinks that Mr. MacVeagh's letter "deserves to be read with extreme sobriety and thoughtfulness by every Republican who thinks of sharing in to-night's performance," as "these are the things we shall have to meet in the campaign." It does not like, however, having the Mulligan letters read with "sobriety and thoughtfulness," although there is no doubt they, too, are among the things we shall have to meet in the campaign if Mr. Blaine is nominated. This is quite natural. Both Mr. Blaine and Mr. Arthur are men whose political antecedents will not bear overhauling, and their friends, respectively, are of course very much disturbed when they see anybody perusing these biographies with a serious air. The way to avoid this was to keep the candidate quiet and in the background till near the meeting of the Convention. Mr. Blaine, for instance, ought to have been confined till now in his study in Maine, working at the "history," and no extracts from it should have appeared in any of the newspapers. It would have been better still if he had gone to Europe, and there hobnobbed with Freeman, and Mommsen, and Treitschke, and other distinguished historians, and then have been suddenly brought into view, just before the meeting of the Convention, when people would have no time to read about him, and when all charges would have the air of suddenly-started campaign stories. His boom, in short, has been ruined by over-zeal.

The same fate seems to have undertaken Mr. Arthur's boom. Johnny O'Brien has been too much in Albany, and, little as he accomplished there, accomplished too much for the President's good. He ought not to have been allowed to defeat the Bureau of Elections Bill. Mike Cregan and Al Daggett, too, have been giving too much tongue; and, in fact, all "the boys" have been too much before the public. The business men ought to have known that New York was the last place in the world to hold a meeting to discuss Mr. Chester A. Arthur. It ought to have been held in Buffalo, or Syracuse, or Utica, if it was to be held at all. Here in the very field of his fame it is the easiest thing in the world to bring to mind that he was the creator of the Republican Machine, which has since 1870 been the curse of the State and nation, and that the Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys are all of his training. He had no warmer or shriller supporter when he was doing this than the New York *Times*, but even the *Times* no longer stands by him. He has to-day no more virulent opponent—a fact which of itself shows how little backing he has in the place of all places where he ought to expect most. We believe he would make a good President if reëlected, but the people are not willing to put any man in that office on a simple promise of good behavior. In the popular imagination, it still stands forth—and may it long stand—as something which ought to be the reward of long identification with things which in some way contribute to the national greatness.

GREAT LAWYERS.

THE Marshall ceremonies, and the deaths of Charles O'Conor and Judah P. Benjamin, have all drawn attention to the present condition of the legal profession and the changes that have come over it in the last generation. These may be summed up roughly as consisting in the change from an appointed to an elective judiciary; the break-down of all restrictions on admission to the bar; the multiplication of judges and lawyers, and the enormous increase in the great body of statutes and decided cases. But what has influenced the development of the law more perhaps than any internal change, has been the growth of corporations and the use of their machinery for private speculation on a gigantic scale, accompanied as it has been by a decline in

the attractions of the law as the direct avenue to a public career. The law in the time of Marshall and Story was a learned profession, and a branch of the public service, and such is still the theory with regard to it, though the practice has drifted at many points into a different channel.

The adoption of a written Constitution in this country, introducing an ultimate appeal to the courts in all important political questions, bid fair to make the American bar even greater than had been that from which it sprang, and in Marshall it gave to the world one of its most famous judges—a judge whose opinions have for a hundred years helped not only to render the Government stable and secure, but to promote directly the general welfare and happiness and security, against the encroachments of wealth and arbitrary power. If it be true, that the danger of democratic government is that it tends to the oppression of the individual and of minorities, and sacrifices to the temporary interests of majorities the eternal interest of right and justice, such judges as Marshall, who never allow themselves to lose sight of the great ends for which law exists, are the most priceless possession a democracy can have. The capacity of the political machinery provided by any Government to attract men of the force and character and independence of Marshall to the bench of its highest court, must be regarded as an important test of its excellence.

That the Federal bench is not as attractive to lawyers of his stamp as it was, and that it is difficult to get lawyers of distinction to take judgeships, or to keep them on the bench, is evidently not due to any change in machinery, for there has been no change in a hundred years. A United States Judge still holds his office for life, and his duties are more important, owing to the great growth of business, than they ever were. It is the surrounding circumstances which have altered. The gains of private practice are so great, and the opportunities afforded by it so numerous, and the emoluments of public employment so small, that the ordinary motives which act upon judges as well as other men drive them out of the public service. We have seen a United States Judge, in our time, promoted from the Federal bench to a law-school professorship, and thence to the service of a railroad corporation, and it is notorious that the judgeship which he abandoned is regarded at Washington as a prize, chiefly because it has furnished a means for two lawyers to get into lucrative private practice. If such has come to be a recognized use for an appointed judicial office, with a life tenure, it is not surprising that in the State courts the figure of the "ex-Judge," promoted to the position of counsel, should be still more common.

If the bench has been subjected to external pecuniary influence to an appreciable degree, the bar, of course, has suffered as much. The career of Mr. Benjamin, however, can hardly be said to be of any value as showing the tendencies of the profession in the United States. His going to England was the accidental result of his connection with the rebellion, and his success there late in life, attributed in the first instance, as it generally was, to the production of an extremely able book on a difficult and important subject, may hint a difference between the condition of the profession in England and the United States; but his distinction was gained as an English, not as an American, lawyer, and was due to causes which would have brought him to eminence in any period or country. Mr. O'Conor, on the contrary, was a product of the American bar, and his life bridges over the interval between the early period, when Webster and Choate were great names, and that of our own times, when it is becoming yearly more difficult to single out men as "leaders" of the bar. He served his apprenticeship while the bench maintained its early vigor, and his most marked peculiarity was his strong sense of professional responsibility—*i.e.*, his professional conscience—which in the case of a lawyer means simply a high sense of duty, not merely, as Lord Brougham persuaded himself, to his client alone, but to the service to which every lawyer pledges himself by a solemn oath at the outset of his career.

There is no reason to doubt that there is just as much ability at the bar now as when O'Conor was a young man, or when Marshall expounded the Constitution. But the condition of the bench makes leadership at the bar in the old sense increasingly difficult. Any one can count up half-a-dozen lawyers of the first rank in New York, who, if they constantly practised before judges of the first rank, would easily settle the question of leadership among themselves by the only possible test. But as a matter of fact they practise before all sorts of judges, from those suspected of corruptibility up to judges whose opinions are quoted with respect all over the world—from judges who have won their places by purchase, fraud, or favor, to judges who have slowly worked their way up to the highest positions exactly as Marshall, Story, and Kent did in their day. In such a condition of the bench it is inevitable that the leadership of the bar should be involved in some confusion and uncertainty. A lawyer may have a great practice and his opinions carry weight in certain courts, owing simply to political influence, which makes judges eager for political favor anxious to please him. The lawyer pitted against him, though professionally his master at every point, may be defeated in spite of his learning and industry and eloquence. In another court a more sinister influence still may keep men who ought to be leaders of the bar fighting for months and years over frivolous points invented with the connivance of a friendly judge to baffle them. The "learning" judge—*i. e.*, the judge who is a well-meaning man, but unqualified at the first for his business, and who has to learn it from the lawyers who practise before him—is a common judicial type in the United States that in O'Conor's younger days was unknown. The struggle for the leadership of the bar before a judge of this sort, who is the pupil of the contestants, often produces curious results. Full of ability as is the American bar to-day, the old professional landmarks are much effaced; and as the great men of the past die off, a new legal order comes more and more into view, and we find it hard, when we compare the theory involved in the traditions of the past with the practice of to-day, to make out what results it will ultimately produce.

CASTS FROM SCULPTURE OF THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE RENAISSANCE.

THE great German museums of plaster casts, partly described in the second paper of this series, are weak in sculpture of other than classical epochs. In Dresden the post-classical department of the cast collection is well composed and well housed, but is wofully small. It has its separate entrance from the courtyard of the Zwinger (the classical department being entered from the street), and is well lighted and arranged. Here one sees some little-known sculptures of real merit: the wonderful statues from the western choir of the Cathedral of Naumburg, the bronze doors of Augsburg, some statues and the tympanum from the great door of Freiberg in Saxony, an important statue from the Cathedral of Madgeburg, a fine early sarcophagus from the little-known museum at Trier; but all this is German. Italian art is scarcely represented, and represented in a fashion far too fragmentary; little scraps being given of compositions which are chiefly important in their *ensemble*. Thus two separate heads are taken from the "Ascension" by Nanni Banco, over one of the north doors of the Florence Cathedral. One can praise unreservedly the selection of the "Jonah" from the Church of Santa Maria del Popolo at Rome, and a statue or two from the Florence Bargello; but, on the whole, Italian mediæval sculpture in its boundless variety and varied merit remains undisplayed in Dresden, and even the immense stores left in Italy by the Renaissance are hardly drawn upon. French mediæval art, one may say, is not represented at Dresden at all, nor English, though that is less surprising, nor Spanish, though that is perhaps less important.

At Berlin, of the dozen halls occupied by the cast collection only one large one is devoted to sculpture of post-classical epochs. Here again one may say that the German is the only mediæval architecture which has contributed its sculpturesque decoration to the museum. The great French schools, early and late, northern and southern, are ignored, nor has the moulder been sent to Verona or Venice, Orvieto or Brescia. Of Renaissance sculpture a more general choice has been made, but it is very uneven, very incomplete—too much of Michael Angelo in comparison with the earlier works, and too little of everything. In fact, these collections of mediæval and Renaissance art give only isolated instances of well-chosen sculptures; for the greater part they are inchoate, and not as yet representative of any school, style, epoch, or people whatever, as if still merely at their feeble beginning. Vienna is not very different in this respect, with its two hundred or so of subjects, though here also one finds things intelligently chosen for their merit and not their celebrity; and Munich has nothing.

There is still the collection at the Trocadéro at Paris, but of this I wish to make a special study, because it was organized expressly to carry out a theory as to the proper form, character, and purpose of museums of art. It would not be fair to Viollet-le-Duc and his coadjutors and successors to study their museum without carefully weighing their published reasons for their action, and comparing these with the result. The whole plan pursued by them is so very novel, and is so important a new departure, that its working out must be considered at length, if at all. The collection includes a splen-

did display of mediæval art of many epochs, not exclusively French, but French in the main, as yet. It represents a very extensive knowledge and a thorough examination of an immense field. The total amount of mediæval sculptures still existing in France is very great, and in general it has been spared by the restorer, even when the building which contains it has been half rebuilt. And this exhibition, which brings together so much of it in Paris, is almost worthy of the occasion and of the place; yet not quite so, for it lacks that which, to be sure, only deep purses could give, but which therefore is the special business of the French Government, with its traditions of free expenditure for artistical purposes—it lacks the completeness of its examples. It is a shame that the statues of Chartres, such as those which decorate the west doorway, and which, in their combination, make up what is perhaps the greatest design in architectural sculpture in Europe—a composition unsurpassed in the way of decorative design, and as unique in character as successful in its realization—should be set up separately, one by one, with breadths of blank gallery-wall between them. The museum contains splendid things, also, which are more or less completely reproduced—the tympanum of Vézelay, archivolts of Rouen, three bays (enough for the purpose) of the stalls of Amiens; it is the more vexatious to have it fail us when completeness is most needed.

But this consideration brings us at once into the very middle of the inquiry which we have really to follow, namely, not what *is*—for that, as we see, is generally rather a warning than an example, so far as non-classical art goes—but what ought to be. This non-classical art, then, especially needs that its examples should be given in their completeness. Neither is it an escape from this necessity to select and reproduce those examples which are complete within a small compass, simple and single pieces of sculpture. The strength of mediæval and of Cinquecento art is not in these. They are immensely interesting, as we all know; but chiefly so as affording further means of studying that art to which we owe the masterpieces of the time. Let us separate the different epochs in our inquiry. It will be admitted readily that the sculpture of a French cathedral porch of the thirteenth century can only be properly studied when all or much of it is taken together. Its religious or traditional meaning naturally can only be got at in this way; but further, its beauty as a work of art can only be enjoyed fully, or in anything like its fulness, when the whole combined work is before the admirer. Charming qualities of expression and of picturesqueness are to be had in the separate statues, reliefs, or groups, but little is there compared with the magnificence of the complete design. And this is because the art is not principally sculpturesque, but almost wholly architectural. It is an art which has developed itself slowly out of simple building, by charging the prominent members of the building more and more richly with decorative carving, until at last it shot up suddenly into the splendors of the pointed style. Its workmen had thought little of pure beauty of form, and had no skill in representing the human body, but they were consummate masters of decoration in all or nearly all its manifestations. The process of development is not at all that of sculpture, becoming more and more powerful and complete, and reaching nearer and nearer to independent value. Later for a moment it was partly so, but only for a moment, and only when the traditions of pointed architecture were lost. The development is not of the art of sculpture, but of the art of the decorative designer, of the architect (as we might say, if the word had not taken a different sense in our time), as of a fiduciary agent charged rather with the expending of large sums of money than with fine designing. From the round-arched opening in the flat wall, with a lintel across beneath the arch, and the semicircular space above carved with a cross, through a hundred steps of slow development, to the three shadowy porches of Reims charged with their ranged saints in order as of battle against the besieging foes of the Church, the growth is that of the doorway. The idea that fills the brain of each designer is primarily that of the door-opening and its proper ornamentation; and it is impossible to urge too strongly the truth that as sculpture grew more scientific and more beautiful in itself, the great art of architecture grew feeble. That very cathedral of Reims is a case in point: there are heads under the great doorway larger than life, and almost Grecian in their beauty; the Chartres artist could never have modelled them, but he would never have hung those wretched curtains under the feet of his rank of saints.

The task of the founder of our cast-museum will be, then, not to fetch a bit from Bruges and a bit from Laon, a statue from Arles and a quatrefoil-relief from Lyons, but to make up his mind which doorway (for instance, and because the doorways are the usual centres of the richest work) he will select, and then to give the whole of it. He must lose so much in losing the heavy wall above, loading the arches, and affording vast spaces of light to contrast the play of shade around his moulded and storied door, that he can afford to lose nothing more.

It will be urged that this is true of classic—even of Greek—art itself. Yes, but it is not *so* true. The Parthenon sculptures lose a great deal in losing their original place, and no doubt they lose a deal in losing color as well, and all the setting which the Greek artist imagined for them; but then, in the first place, the originals, too, have lost all that. They have never had it for us moderns. We cannot give it back to them, nor even imagine it, nor imagine them as they were when in their original setting. And, secondly, as they are, and in our museums, they contain the most perfect sculpturesque art that we know or can conceive of. We have, therefore, some reason for putting casts of the Parthenon frieze at a reasonable height above the floor in a well-lighted hall, and in feeling that that is as well as anybody can do. But with the mediæval sculptures it is not so, and we must set them up in their combination as they are, to the best of our poor ability.

Seriously, what some multi-millionaire ought to do for the study of mediæval art is to build in America a model of Chartres Cathedral. The building could be built for a million of dollars, very likely (I don't pretend to have taken out the quantities), and all the sculpture should be cast in plaster from the original, adjusted in place, stained or colored with careful suggestion of the original, and in some way waterproofed; the moulds being preserved to make easy the replacing of any which might fall. But we do not want any rich man to build a new Parthenon for us (unless by way of an experiment, or as a vehicle for different experiments), for we have no knowledge of how to color it, and, uncolored, it would look but little like what the Athenians raised their eyes to from Pericles's death, perhaps, until Hadrian's, perhaps longer. Who knows what the restorers did in those days with buildings that were a little out of repair, or what house-painter was employed, even under Sulla, to spoil the metopes and the friezes?

This is all matter of course, I take it. Nobody will deny the main assertions made above with regard to mediæval art; but it may not seem equally evident when we come to the developed Renaissance, to the art of the latest years of the fifteenth and of the early sixteenth century. But indeed the difference is only of degree, not of kind. The sculpture of Mino da Fiesole and Luca della Robbia (I take my especial favorites among those earliest men) is more sculpturesque than that of Orcagna; but it is not so very much more, when both are compared with Greek work. Luca, as a man, was capable of anything; with different surroundings he would have known no limits but those of humanity to his achievements as a sculptor. Mino, rather a master of expression than of form, might have carried further than art has yet been able to do the union of expression with sculpturesque qualities as they approach perfection. But both were men of their epoch, and their work is monumental rather than primarily sculpturesque. Their place is in

> "The chapter-room, the cloister-porch,
> The church's apsis, aisle, or nave,"

and not in museums at all. Indeed, the separate statues or other pieces of sculpture not intended as architectural accessories are few in work of this period. A Saint John the Baptist for a holy-water basin, and similar figures of saints for the choir screen, as at San Zenone and San Marco, although still architectural in their employment, are what the age has to offer as independent sculpture—with the one important addition, not to be forgotten, of portrait busts and a very few portrait statues, equestrian and other.

Not only are the mediæval traditions strong and the classic feeling but a feeble and artificial inspiration with the early men, but their comparative weakness as sculptors is evident in their work, when compared with even the great mass of classic sculpture, and never so evident as when a figure or a bas-relief, disengaged from architectural setting, finds itself in a gallery. The Bargello at Florence is the great witness to this fact. To study that collection of sculpture in bronze, terracotta, and marble; to go from time to time to see antiquity at Rome, or even no further than the inferior show of it in the Uffizzi; to keep in view what the same Renaissance men whose work is before you in the Bargello have left in so many churches, is to realize that the Cinquecento, scarcely less than the mediæval epoch which had just closed, and that Italian scarcely less than French art, requires to be considered as primarily architectural. Later, indeed, things change, and much of the sculpture of the great Jacopo Sansovino was conceived independently of all architectural surroundings, even in cases where the statue was designed for its special place, and this although the man was the first architect of his time. This is true of Michael Angelo to about the same extent. Their own evidence, however, would seem to be in favor of our general argument, for each of them was always striving to compass great designs in which sculpture—even their own highly realistic and developed sculpture—would be combined in architectural compositions; so that even Michael Angelo's perhaps most important statues remain for us in what is his most striking decorative design—the new Sacristy of San Lorenzo.

The conclusion is that the future museum of casts must have great spaces and lofty roofs for its non-classical department. It will be worth all it costs, though. The good effect that museums are capable of has only begun to be imagined or conceived. Even so: museums themselves have only begun to be separated from palace splendors, and to be reasoned about, *a priori*, as a separate and superlatively important means of education. R. STURGIS.

Notes.

CASSELL & Co. will publish immediately 'Day-Dawn in Dark Places; or, Wanderings and Work in Bechwanaland, South Africa,' by the Rev. John Mackenzie, Tutor of Moffat Institution, Kuruman, with numerous illustrations; the autobiography of Arminius Vámbéry, also illustrated; and a new 'Illustrated Guide to Paris,' with a map expressly engraved for this edition.

'The Hollanders in Nova Zembla' (1596-97), a poem from the Dutch of Hendrik Tollens, by the Rev. Daniel Van Pelt; and 'The Life and Times of Gustavus Adolphus,' by John L. Stephens, recently United States Minister at Stockholm, are announced as nearly ready by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press Mr. Guthrie's 'Giant's Robe'; James Sully's 'Outlines of Psychology, with Special Reference to the Theory of Education'; and 'Reforms, their Difficulties and Possibilities,' by the author of 'Conflict in Nature and Life.'

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will publish under copyright in this country Miss Blanche Roosevelt's new novel, 'Stage-Struck; or, She Would be an Opera Singer.'

Henry Holt & Co. have in press Lady Brassey's new book, 'In the Trades, the Tropics, and the Roaring Forties'; and a translation of Dr. Friedrich Kapp's 'Life of John Kalb,' which has long merited this distinction.

Macmillan & Co. have in preparation a complete Library Edition in seven volumes, to be published monthly, of the works of Lord Tennyson. The first volume, containing a steel portrait after a photograph by Rejlander, will be published about June 1. A limited edition will also be printed on the best hand-made paper, and will be sold only in sets.

We have received from the National Christian Association, Chicago, a little pamphlet, 'Sketch of the Life of James G. Birney,' by Gen. William Birney. An insert states, on the authority of the editor of the *Christian Cynosure*, that General Birney is engaged, not, as we had hoped, upon a simple life of his father, but "in writing a history of the growth, aggressions, and fall of the Slave Power in the United States, including notices of the prominent pro-slavery and anti-slavery men who figured before Abolition was accomplished"—in short, covering the ground gone over in Vice-President Wilson's well-known work. The same authority states that General Birney is delayed for want of a "complete collection of books and pamphlets relating to slavery," and is desirous to borrow or to buy. A glance at the 'Sketch' shows that delay is wise, for greater misinformation, misconception, misstatement, omission, or suppression is seldom exhibited in so brief a compass. General Birney's address is Washington, D. C.

We owe an apology to Messrs Funk & Wagnalls for stating that their abstract of Sir Samuel Baker's African books of travel, called 'In the Heart of Africa,' had no map. It is small and inconspicuous, and liable to be overlooked, but it is there.

The remainder edition of the sketches of the secret sessions of the first Senate of the United States, edited from the manuscripts of William Maclay, a Senator from Pennsylvania, by the late George W. Harris, has been purchased by James Anglim & Co., Washington, D. C., and is offered at a reduced price.

Mr. George William Curtis's eulogy on the late Wendell Phillips has been printed in plain pamphlet form by Harper & Bros. Seldom have greater tact and discrimination been shown in a similar task than Mr. Curtis displayed under circumstances of singular delicacy. Only by analyzing the occasion itself, can the merits of this admirable discourse be fully appreciated.

The twenty-third edition of 'Harper's Handbook for Travellers in Europe and the East,' in three stout red morocco volumes, still testifies to the unwearied touring of its editor, Mr. W. P. Fetridge, who spent last year, he tells us, in Belgium, Holland, Germany, Austria, Great Britain, and France. With his customary non-sequitur he immediately adds: "All of these countries have been entirely rewritten"—a censurable use of the perfect definite to indicate an action whose date is wholly indefinite. There is, in fact, no such difference between this year's edition and last year's, or that of the year before, as the statement in question implies. As an editor, Mr. Fetridge maintains an old-time conservatism which is truly refreshing in these days of change.

The generation that lived through the Fugitive Slave Law excitement remembers Mr. Trowbridge's 'Neighbor Jackwood' as a stirring contribution to the special school of fiction at the head of which stood 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Then it had a living interest for boys and girls and their parents; now it may excite the reader less, but will interest him still. The new edition just published by Lee & Shepard takes its place among the better class of American historical, and particularly of New England, novels.

'Out-of-Town Places: with Hints for their Improvement,' is Mr. Donald G. Mitchell's choice of a new title for his 'Rural Studies,' in the uniform edition of his works (Charles Scribner's Sons). The change is openly manifested upon the title, and more explicitly in the preface, where "Ik Marvel" hopes that it will attract a class of readers whom he sincerely desires to benefit. A well-known missionary author in the same field, Mr. E. C. Gardner, has lent his aid in the shape of numerous illustrations, both practical and picturesque.

Mr. N. Ponce de Leon's English-Spanish 'Diccionario Tecnológico' makes progress with its sixth part, which breaks off in the midst of the word *fall*. The work is not only of great practical utility for commercial translation, but offers curious comparisons between the two languages in regard to terseness and flexibility. For example, there appears to be no equivalent for the term *fall-board* in Spanish, where we must use a definition three times as long—"puerta engonzada que cierra hacia abajo." So, *drum-head of a traversing platform* is "sillar que se coloca con un perno para el giro del marco de esplanada."

Ten more numbers of the chromo edition of Brehm's 'Thierleben' (B. Westermann & Co.) include the 130th part, and conclude the tenth volume. The colored plates of the crustacea, the coral and the sponge, the nautilus, of many curious and vividly-beautiful sea-forms, will rank with anything that has gone before in this series; and the same may be said of the woodcuts, many of which are striking in a high degree.

Mr. Astor has lately presented to the Astor Library two illustrated manuscripts—one an evangelistary, supposed to have been made for Charles the Bald; the other a missal of the fifteenth century, formerly belonging to St. Stephen's Chapel, London. Also, a perfect manuscript on vellum of Wyklif's New Testament, containing the autograph of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester. Besides these, the gift embraces two works from the press of Fust & Schöffer, derived from the Sunderland sale, and dated 1459 and 1462 respectively; Coverdale's Bible in black letter, 1535; a Latin Bible, inscribed "Jo Grolierii et amicorum"; and Eliot's Indian Bible, with the English title and dedication.

Pleasant information about Elzevirs is given, with the aid of illustrations, by Mr. A. Lang in the June number of Cassell's *Magazine of Art*. Having occasion to speak of Elzeverian piracy, and to extenuate it on account of its daintiness, Mr. Lang protests that "the Yankee pirate dresses you in rags, prints you murderously, and binds you, if he binds you at all, in some hideous example of New York or Boston 'cloth extra,' all gilt, like archaic gingerbread." Three well-engraved portraits of busts of Molière and of Gluck, and a statue of Voltaire, by Houdon, accompany an article on "Sculpture at the Comédie Française" in the same number.

No. 30 of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute possesses exceptional value by reason of two papers on important themes. Dr. Emil Bessels reviews the exploration of Smith Sound, and after a crushing exposure of Lieutenant Howgate's ambitious intrigues, which ended in the despatch of the Greely Expedition, considers the chances and the ways and means of delivering the imperilled band. It is made quite apparent that the scheme was suggested to Howgate by Nares's discovery of a seam of tertiary coal in Lady Franklin Bay. The other paper we referred to is one by Lieut. J. B. Murdock, U. S. N., in criticism of the late Mr. Fox's monograph of the landfall of Columbus. Both these articles are accompanied by valuable maps, and Lieutenant Murdock gives a translation of the passages in Columbus's journal that bear upon the question under discussion.

J. W. Bouton sends us the Illustrated Catalogue of the Paris Salon for 1884, valuable, as usual, for its memoranda of the art work of the year, and for the list of contributors. The black-and-white sketches vary greatly in their intrinsic importance as in their thoroughness. Some are noticeably clever translations. The subjects have the customary range—say, from the bottle-fed baby upwards. The *revanche* motives are perhaps fewer than of late years. The portraits that arrest attention are also, in this selection, not numerous.

John Woolman figures in the current instalment of the article, "Friends in Burlington [N. J.]", in the March issue of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. It appears from the minutes of August 1, 1763, that he, "being returned from his visit to some religiously disposed Indians up Susquehannah, informed the last meeting that he was treated kindly, and had had satisfaction in his visit." The incident is well known to readers of his 'Journal.' Part of a letter of his, censuring the "gay" furniture of a female friend, is also printed, and some characteristic stories related of his cautiousness of speech and disinterested service.

In the report of the Chief of Ordnance for 1883 one finds a number of topics which would be thought extraneous, and which possess a general interest, such as the making of illuminating gas from petroleum, the preparation of vegetable fibres for brush material, the use of special rubber type to supersede stencilling, etc. Here, too, is reprinted Professor A. Geikie's praise of Captain C. E. Dutton's 'Tertiary History of the Grand Cañon District.' Appendix 7 shows the distribution of ordnance and ordnance stores to colleges and universities, while appendix 8 records the following formidable armament as having been bestowed on the Public Printer, viz., 12 Colt's revolvers, 12 revolver holsters, 12 waist belts and plates, 96 revolver ball cartridges.

M. Raoul Frary, who some time ago suddenly achieved fame by his 'Le Péril national,' has again attracted considerable attention by a 'Manuel du Démagogue,' a satirical work on the political life and national foibles of the French. It pretends to be a book of instruction

for the young son of an old friend, whom his father desires to be taught the ways by which popularity and political success and influence can most easily be won. The author, complying with this wish, tells the ambitious youth all he knows of the people, the present sovereign dispenser of public honors and benefices, of politics as a profession and arena, and of the ways of demagogues in general, and especially those of France in the present period. The proneness of the people to be seduced by sonorous professions, false pathos, and hollow declamation, and the vulgar tricks daily used in playing on the Frenchman's vanity, gullibility, instinct of imitation, and love of equality and centralized power, are brought into sharp relief by incisive strokes of satire. The Parisians receive special castigation for their political vices.

We have seldom met with a more amusing lot of blunders in time and type than this announcement contains, from *Das Magazin für die Litteratur* for April 26: "O. W. Holms ist unermüdlich. Das neueste Werk des überaus fleissigen Autors ist: The Pochat the Breakfast Table. Leipzig, Tauchnitz edition."

Dr. Karl Kehrbach, known as editor of the works of Kant, Fichte, and Herbart, has, after many years' preparation, undertaken the editorship of a vast collection of writings on German education, to be known as "Monumenta Germaniæ Pædagogica," and to be complementary to the famous "Monumenta Germaniæ Historica," of which, under the direction of Pertz and his successor Waitz, upward of thirty volumes have appeared. A. Hofmann, of Berlin, is to be the publisher. An idea of the extent of the scheme may be formed from the announcement of contributions already promised. They embrace the school regulations in historical order of Brunswick, Saxon Transylvania, and the Baltic Provinces; the catechetic writings of Agricola; the 'Scholarium Fundamentum' of Remigius of Auxerre; the grammars of Chrysoloras, Gaza, and Lascaris; characteristic school comedies; documents on princely education in the Ernestine branch of the House of Saxony; and writings on geographical instruction in the sixteenth century, on Erasmus, Melanchthon, etc. The list of contributors includes Eckstein, Giesebrecht, Köstlin, Wattenbach, Werner, Zarncke, and many other names of well-known historians and educators.

The fourteen-inch telescope mounted some time since at the Observatory of Nice, France, has lately enabled M. Perrotin, the director of the institution, and Messrs. Thollon & Lockyer to make an observation of Saturn which will have an important bearing on the theory of the constitution of the rings of that planet. On the 16th of March, under most exceptionally favorable atmospheric conditions, the outer ring of Saturn appeared to be composed of three distinct rings, the innermost being the broadest and the outermost the narrowest, the differences of breadth being, however, only slight. At the moments of best vision each of these rings showed striæ which gave the impression that they consisted of numerous divisions. Two days later, when the definition was exceedingly good, Uranus presented a general appearance to some extent similar to that of Mars, dark spots being seen toward the centre of the disk, and at a certain point on its edge a white spot, recalling the Martial poles. Different parts of the disk were also observed to be marked by a difference of tint, bluish-white predominating in one hemisphere.

— The first attempt to collate the various notices of the sea-serpent of Cape Ann since he was first reported in 1639 as coiled up on a rock in that vicinity, is made in the current *Atlantic*, and the comparison develops a force in the evidence that would remove him, if any evidence could, from the realm of the miraculous into that of the scientific. In fact, he has now become a real creature to the eye, for if he has not been photographed exactly he has been sketched from the life by Mr. Arthur Lawrence, and his flat turtle-head looks out from the usually unillustrated pages with a mildness of expression that is suggestive of a zoölogical garden. This drawing was made on the 3d of July, 1875, on the yacht *Princess*, which followed the serpent for two hours off Nahant. He was seen several times during that summer, and again off Gloucester in 1877 by Mr. George Wasson, the painter. The number and character of the witnesses, the pile of sworn affidavits, and the favorable circumstances under which many of the observations were made, are skilfully insisted on by the author, especially in his summary of the evidence for this century. But what convincing power lies in the testimony is due to its peculiar and striking consistency. The creature is described nearly always in the same way—an elongated eel-like body, with protuberances on the back, a dorsal fin, and at least two flippers, a thin neck, white throat, black lizard-like head, black eyes. Its motions of the head and of the body, and its habits, are characterized likewise with little variations; its perfect harmlessness, in particular, is a striking quality in a legendary monster. The author's conclusion is that no doubt of the actual existence of this summer visitor on the North Shore of Massachusetts is tenable; he is neither a delusion nor an imposition. Indeed, he is not a sea-serpent at all, according to this writer, who puts forth his opinion, however, with great caution, and merely ventures the suggestion that he is "a cetacean animal, which, if not an actual zeuglodon, has many affinities with that creature." A zeuglodon bears the same relation to whales that eels do to fishes. The study (considering the transitory nature of much of the material) is thorough, and will interest popular curiosity even if it fails to overcome popular incredulity on this topic.

— The other articles show that hot weather and a Presidential campaign are imminent. In the fiction a Western story, 'Wentworth's Crime,' by Mr. Frank Parks, is noticeable since it puts new territory under tribute, and illustrates the variety of the resources that our own country affords its novelists. In this tale, which is marked by its careful structure and the skill with which nature is truthfully used to tone down the coarseness and elevate the trivialities of a too narrow realism, the interest of the prairie as a romantic motive and the actual life of the dwellers there, in all its crudity, are blended in a way to suggest new possibilities for fiction that takes its local color from beyond the Missouri. The miner and the bandit have had it too much their own way on the border, in books as in fact. It is of more interest now to know how ordinary humanity looks out there in the face of new and picturesque scenes; and a slight sketch, even like this, not only has a refreshing novelty, but is a sign of the future.

—In *Harper's*, also, there are two articles, unfortunately not stories, which enforce on a reflective mind the variety and charm of the picturesque element in our past which has been, comparatively speaking, but slightly utilized in our fiction, and, if Cooper be excepted, may be said to have been disregarded. The first is Colonel Higginson's narrative of the early emigration along the waterways of the Mohawk and the Ohio, with its quick suggestion of color, humor, and adventure; and the second is Mr. Butler's description of the shore of Lake Superior, where, long before the Revolution, the monks had given history a fine beginning, and where after it the first transcontinental explorers, and the trappers and voyageurs, had made a chapter of which our version in imaginative literature is of the slightest. Daniel Boone, as Colonel Higginson says, is a genuine American Robin Hood, and the spirit and gayety of the French adventurers have, as Mr. Butler points out, something of the Norman strain. The solid article of *Harper's*, however, is the long and minute account of the organization and methods of business of the New York Custom-house, which will do much to define to the public the great place that institution has occupied in the field of politics, and which may also impress on the rural mind the far-reaching influence of the tariff by its concrete and luminous exposition of how duties are collected. The statistics, too, exhibit the state of American shipping in a brief, wide, bird's-eye view as it were. Altogether, in addition to the comprehensive information it contains, this paper has a great and timely value as an illustration of the working of our institutions and legislation in many ways. An article on Sheffield is illustrated, chiefly by Joseph Pennell, in a manner decidedly in advance of anything we have seen of this artist's drawings hitherto. These have distinctly a greater completeness as design, and a grasp of general effect which none of his earlier work has had; and the opening one, "A Corner," and "A Bit of Old Sheffield," are excellent in their vein.

—We recently had occasion to call attention to the manufacture of spurious *chefs d'œuvre* of great masters, through which we are threatened with a general inundation of counterfeit canvases. There is another kind of fabrication which is likely to be as dangerous to the finances of inexperienced collectors as the former. This is in the studious fabrication of spurious reputations. The art by which it is done is more subtle and less assailable legally. It is generally, if not always, the operation of European dealers, who, having made contracts with painters not in public grace yet, force them into reputation by persistent puffery, mainly in journals which they control or own, or by raising the prices of their works by an ingenious system of sales at auction in which their prices steadily increase. This is done thus: The dealer, A, having sold a picture by one of his "own artists," X, to a client, B, with the guarantee that if he ever wishes to sell it again, he will get an advance on the price he paid for it, goes to C, who wants to invest safely in pictures, and, assuring him of the security of any investment in the works of X, gets the order to buy something of his. When the picture comes to the hammer again it is sold for an advance on the last price, and if A has found a third customer, D, to order him to buy it for him, which is most likely to be the case, it goes into a new collection under the same conditions. If not, it goes into the stock of A, for sale as the work of a man whose value is rising, as is shown by the previous sales, and, with a modicum of attractiveness, makes a tremendous run in time, the values in many cases rising to three or four times the first price paid within as many years, the dealer getting his commission as a safe broker at every sale, and the last owner before the reaction (which is in a large majority of cases certain to come sooner or later) paying the penalty of the aggregate credulity.

—This is no picture of the imagination, but an actual statement of affairs within the knowledge of any one in the secrets of the English picture trade. Of course, with time, the artists so exalted find their level, and the spurious reputation which has represented so much money value disappears, for it is very rarely the case that the dealers are clear-sighted enough

to select the immortals as their protégés, and we see that neither Turner, whose pictures have been one of the most profitable investments ever made in their kind, or Millet, scarcely less so, acquired the grace of the dealers, and themselves never saw the prices which their works have lately brought. If a dealer in 1840 had been wise enough to foresee the future greatness of Millet and had rescued him from poverty, he would have deserved the fortune he would have acquired. They are always the little men, with superficial qualities, who catch the eye of the dealers (rarely good judges of art), and whose pictures lend themselves most readily to the delusion of people who have money to spend and no art education to direct the spending of it. This leaves the great prizes after all to the genuine connoisseur and amateur—*i. e.*, the man who at once knows and loves art. The painters who have been forced into spurious and temporary greatness by this process of nursing reputations are more numerous than the public would believe or than we should care to say. Celebrity has grown cheap, and is worth as much as cheap things generally are. A man who knows nothing about art is as blind an investor in pictures as a speculator in railway shares who knows nothing of railway statistics, and is as easily taken by the auctioneer's assurance that the celebrated A. B. C. pupil of D. E. F., is one of the greatest painters of the day and a rising luminary, as is the most naïf countryman by the confidence man.

—The Society for Photographing Relics of Old London has just published its tenth year's issue, which, whether designedly or by chance, admirably exemplifies the various lines in which the previous issues have run. For instance, the notable series of inns is continued by two views of "Old Bell," Holborn, which "still retains something of its renown as a coaching inn," and figures in William Black's 'Strange Adventures of a Phaeton.' The view of its narrow yard will compare favorably in picturesqueness with any of its predecessors. Or take old houses of chiefly wooden construction: here is one in Fore Street, of a type very rare, we are told, in London, which probably antedates the Great Fire, and stands on the corner of Milton Street (none other than the literary-historical Grub Street, with an altered name). Here, again, are two wood and stucco fronts with bay-windows, on Fleet Street, likewise surviving witnesses of the conflagration, which stopped, on the north side of Fleet Street, at Fetter Lane; and in one of these, tradition says, the poet Dayton lived. Churches form another division, to which is now added a view of St. Michael's, Paternoster Royal, on the site of a college foundation of Lord Mayor Whittington's: whence the name of College Street for the narrow roadway that furnishes a charming perspective to Wren's design. Finer still is the view (No 88) of the well-proportioned tower of St. Giles, Cripplegate, seen above a row of quaint two-story houses: a singularly well-lighted photograph, with the early dawn creeping down into the silent street. Do we, perhaps, seek architectural details? We have them in several fine doorways—the noblest, that of Innholders' Hall, shown incidentally in the vista of College Street, and again for its own sake on a larger scale; another from the same neighborhood, College Hill, the grandiose carved entrance of some merchant's house; finally, twin doorways of 1703, with bold corbelled overhanging hoods, and with richly carved jambs and lintels. These last are very effective. Architectural, too, is the grand staircase of the house No. 10, Austin Friars, whose existence would not be guessed from the plain exterior presented in No. 91; and yet it recalls, with an interval, staircases in the Charterhouse and in Ashburnham House. A dignified relic of Great Winchester Street in the days (at the beginning of the eighteenth century) when it was full of the homes of merchant princes, is that exhibited in No. 90, with its paved courtyard, its hospitable flight of steps, and the angle which suggests great possibilities of inner arrangement. The ten views thus briefly described bring the total number up to 96, and no other set has been better worth the annual guinea. A sheet of letter-press is now a regular accompaniment of the photographs, which are permanent. We must again commend the series to our architects in particular, who, so far as we have observed, do not seem to be aware of it. The honorary secretary of the Society is Mr. Alfred Marks, 155 Adelaide Road, London, N. W.

—In speaking of Matthew Arnold's 'Isaiah of Jerusalem' (No. 982 of the *Nation*), we gave his view of the style in which translations from the Bible should be made: "The old version is not to be departed from without necessity. . . . Only mistakes, real mistakes, should be corrected, and they should be corrected gently." Rev. T. K. Cheyne, in his introduction to the translation of 'The Book of Psalms,' contributed by him to the "Parchment Library"—a very neat collection, of which the Appletons are the American publishers—dissents from that view, on the ground that the old rendering "does but convey that part of the meaning and the charm which was accessible to the men of the sixteenth century." And though his ambition as a translator, as was Matthew Arnold's as an editor, is to make the Biblical work presented anew to English readers "enjoyable," he evidently cares much less for the charm than for the meaning of the original. The first verse of his translation shows how ready he is to depart from the Authorized Version for the sake of something more conformable to the verbal meaning—though not to the logical sense—of the Hebrew. The old version's "man that walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly, nor standeth in the way of sinners," becomes a "man that has not walked" "nor stood" there, although in the closely following "But in the law of Jehovah is his delight," we see the man in the present. Mr. Cheyne's rendering of verse 3 is superior to the old both in diction and in sense. His godly man "is like a tree planted by watercourses, that brings forth its fruit in due season, and whose leaf withers not," while the old version has this: "He shall be like a tree by the rivers of water, that bringeth forth his fruit in his season; his leaf also shall not wither." In lines like the last all the charm of the Hebrew wording is lost. But so it is also in "God is gone up with a shout" (Ps. xlvii. 5), or in "he giveth his beloved sleep" (cxxvii. 2), which Mr. Cheyne leaves unaltered; in "the bread of painfulness" (*ibid.*), which he substitutes for "the bread of sorrows"; in his "Yea, do thou behold with glad eyes the good fortune . . ." (cxxviii. 5), all of which stands for two short Hebrew words; or in his "the bed of my couch" (cxxxii. 3), which is not even correct as a literal rendering. The Authorized Version has, in the latter instance, simply "my bed," and it also says, with commendable freedom, "Both low and high" (xlix. 2), where Mr. Cheyne uses the loose paraphrase "Both those of low and those of high degree." It would, however, be a much easier task to pick out instances in which Mr. Cheyne's translation has the merit both of greater correctness and pleasanter diction. He here and there follows critically corrected texts, doing so, however, with moderation and discrimination. His introduction is both instructive and attractive.

—It is a trifle difficult for any one who does not know how quickly a new fancy takes root in Paris, and how widely it spreads, to understand the very strong hold on the affections of the Parisians obtained by the fashion of reciting monologues. The monologue is a very Proteus: it may be an ordinary recitation; it may be the telling of a versified anecdote; it may be the acting of a comedietta in one act and with only one part; it may be more than any one of these, or it may be less. In France just now the monologue has driven out the *chansonette*. Things which may be said or sung, and which would formerly have been sung, are now said. To entertain an evening party, resort is had not to the singer, amateur or professional, but to the monologuist, amateur or professional. Not that the singer is banished, but he is cast into the background by the monologuist. At the great receptions of the French capital, M. Faure is not as welcome as either of the Coquelins, to whose talent the surprising vogue of the monologue is in great measure due. The elder has popularized many fine poems by new writers, which, but for him, might have been read by the critics only. His range is as extended as his skill is unequalled. From the tenderest pathos to the most humorous comedy, from the simplest emotion to the most fiery passion, M. Coquelin is master of the monologue in all its forms. M. Coquelin *cadet* is wont to confine himself to one string—the broadly farcical; and one of the best of his efforts, 'L'Obsession,' by M. Charles Cros, is an adaptation of Mark Twain's 'Literary Nightmare,' the "Punch, brothers, punch, punch with care." These brothers are the first to issue a guide for amateur monologuists. 'L'Art de dire le Monologue' (Paris: Ollendorf; New York: F. W. Christern) may be recommended to all who wish to "speak a piece." The discussion of the proper principles of the delivery of verse should be studied by all who are anxious to read aloud or to recite: it reinforces and extends the suggestions of M. Legouvé's admirable little book on the art of reading. The title-page of 'L'Art de dire le Monologue' is adorned with profile portraits of the two authors.

—Everybody who has made the attempt knows the difficulty of acquiring a good knowledge of Russian; those who have persisted in their effort know how exasperatingly hard it is to learn to accent the proper syllables. "In this respect," Mackenzie Wallace justly remarks, "Russian is more puzzling than Greek, for two reasons: firstly, it is not customary to print Russian with accents; and secondly, no one has yet been able to lay down precise rules for the transposition of the accent in the various inflections of the same word." Russians also find it hard to master the difficulties of English accentuation, but then monosyllabic words are ten times as numerous in English as in the Slavic tongues; for in these even what is a monosyllable in the nominative singular, for instance, becomes lengthened in other cases and in the plural, and in Russian there is no general rule to tell which syllable of the lengthened word is to be accented. Thus *voin*, warrior, becomes *voi'na* in the genitive singular, and *voiny'* and *voi'nakh* in plural cases, while other similar nouns will have the accent, for no assignable reason, throughout on the penultimate or the last syllable. For *hand* and *hands* you have *ruka'*, *ru'ku*, *rukye'*, *ru'ki*, *ruka'm*, etc., while *sluga'*, servant, shows only two transposi tions. The difficulty can only be approximately stated, if we say that it is like what a Russian would have to contend with if, in studying English, he had not only to avoid readings like "Histo'ry of the Roman' Empire'," "Waver'ley Novels'," or "Gospel' of St. Matthew'," and to distinguish between *contest'* and *con'test*, *pros-*

pect' and *pros'pect*, and the like, but also to learn arbitrary shiftings of the accent like the following, if such also existed in English: Stud'y, studies', studi'est, studying', re'study, unstudied', stu'dious, studious'ly, student'. Diligent association with Russians, a good teacher, and diligent reading of metrical poetry will, of course, be found to be the means of gradually, though perhaps never completely, overcoming the foreigner's perplexity in the study. But a useful and pleasant additional help is offered by an accented library of Russian standard works, in prose and poetry, started a few years ago in Berlin, under the title 'Collection Manassewitsch' (the name of the editor). In this remarkably neat and clear edition every word of more than one syllable is accented. The collection appears in numbers of thirty-two pages each, of which nearly thirty have appeared, containing masterpieces of Pushkin, Lermontoff, Turgeneff, and Gogol. Works by Koltzoff, Nekrasoff, Tolstoi, and Grigorovitch are to follow.

—The Italian schools and institutions of learning outside of Italy form the subject of an interesting article in the last number of the *Nuova Antologia*. These schools and institutions are scattered over an immense area, embracing many of the European States, the Ottoman Empire, the regions of the extreme Orient, the shore of Roman Africa and both Americas. In Europe the Balkan Peninsula particularly is rich in Italian colonies, whose only tie with the motherland and the mother tongue is the patriotic cultivation of the Italian language. The shores of the Black Sea show numerous settlements of Italians; the Eastern Mediterranean, Syria, Greece, and Egypt, are dotted with towns and villages where Italian is currently spoken as the language of commerce; and a numerous and powerful current of Italian emigration has streamed out through the Pillars of Hercules and impinged upon the coasts of Brazil, Uraguay, Buenos Ayres, and Chili. To bind all this widely separated mass together and unite it firmly to the Kingdom of Italy by at least the sentimental tie of association, the Italian Government is pursuing an enlightened and liberal policy of granting subsidies in money and books to the schools founded by expatriated Italians in these varied regions. In 1880 it expended 109,110 lire in assisting institutions of learning in the east and west. In 1882 the sum was raised to 179,000 lire, which went to aid in the education of 80,000 Italian children living in foreign lands. During the present year it is believed that the sum will reach 300,000 lire, not counting the munificent provision of school-books, maps, school furniture, and pedagogical material contributed by the Government. Not to be forgotten in this record of an interesting attempt to cultivate the *sentimento dell' italianità* abroad are the noble efforts of the numerous missionary sisterhoods, the Franciscan friars, and the other emissaries of a vast ecclesiastico-educational establishment.

—The last number of the *Mittheilungen des deutschen archäologischen Institutes in Athen* for 1883 is one of special interest. The article on the Athena Parthenos of the Ermitage at St. Petersburg is illustrated by full-sized phototypes of two gold medallions, which give us, according to the author of the paper, Gangolf Kieseritzky, not only the most faithful and complete representation of the head of the Parthenos, but also the oldest copies and those not far removed in time from the original. Not less important is the advantage which the material possesses. We see the gold style in which the Parthenos was wrought, whereas the other reproductions translate after a fashion the gold into marble. The variations in detail from the other copies are all of the highest interest, but cannot be presented here. The resemblance of the face to that of the Varvakion statuette is very striking, but the eyes are wider open, and there is more power, more divinity in the St. Petersburg medallions. Kieseritzky complains that the "mildness" of the countenance has been turned into sternness by the photograph, but every one has had a like experience in his own case. It is enough that the goddess is not hopelessly *bourgeoise*, as she seems to be in the front view of the Varvakion statuette, to judge again by the photographs.

—Another article of interest, "Inscriptions of Tralleis" (in English), is the work of a young American scholar, Dr. J. R. S. Sterrett, who is attached to the American School at Athens, and who has done good service from the beginning under the administration of Professor Goodwin, and especially during the much-regretted illness of Professor Packard, the present director. Doctor Sterrett was travelling last summer with Mr. Ramsay, under the auspices of the Asia Minor Exploration Fund, and the two energetic scholars, happening to be in Tralleis, saw and coveted, as other scholars had seen and coveted, "six inscriptions which are built into the wall of the great ruin known now as the Utch Geuz—the Three Eyes or Arches." Frequent attempts had been made to read them with a glass, but the letters were too small and the stones too high. So the Anglo-American duumvirate proceeded to have a ladder constructed, and with "great difficulty and considerable danger" the copying was accomplished. Doctor Sterrett is evidently saddened by the thought that it was impossible to take impressions under the circumstances. The reader will be content with the spirit in which the work was accomplished, and not lament that nothing more was done. These six inscriptions, with fifteen others, are carefully edited, and will add to Doctor Sterrett's reputation as an epigraphist.

SAM HOUSTON.

Life and Select Literary Remains of Sam Houston of Texas. By William Cary Crane, D.D., LL.D. Two vols. in one. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1884.

The Rev. Dr. Crane's biography of Sam Houston is a simply-solemn affair, considering the nature of his subject. Its tone might be described as that of a campaign life of a popular missionary, or a voluminous tract dealing with an historical subject, so frequently are the styles of the literary bureau and the homily—both of a rather antiquated date—blended. The number of times in which Houston becomes the "inspired hero" and "governs destiny" in various forms of Providential direction and purpose is beyond count, and the tone of apostrophe and solemn disquisition, particular eulogy and general appeal to the unregenerate, is maintained on every page. It would perhaps be unjust to say that nothing new is contributed to the accessible means of information regarding the life of Sam Houston in this ponderous volume, but it would be hardly too much to say that there was as little as possible. Except in a remarkable chapter concerning his experience of religion and the arguments which convinced him of his worthiness to partake of the communion, and the collection of some of his talks and letters to Indians, which are all that are of any value in his "literary" remains or his state papers (except as materials for history), there is very little that is calculated to give an intelligent idea of the singular character of Houston, although the romance of his career could not be concealed even by a genius for dulness. But the rarity with which any revelation of individuality is allowed to appear is rather exasperating, and the biographer takes pride in suppressing all anecdotes for fear of "wounding personal feelings." He is, indeed, obliged to admit that Houston sometimes "indulged to excess," and that he abandoned civilized life to live with the Indians; but his guarded words hardly suggest Houston's condition as a degraded white man among savages, and there is only a single and almost involuntary glimpse of the theatrical element in his character, when it is admitted that his fits of passion and anger, like those of his great model and exemplar, Andrew Jackson, were sometimes simulated for effect. As a specimen of the carelessness or the confusion of the author, it is sufficient to say that he talks of the Highland or Gaelic ancestry of Houston, when he was of that sturdy Lowland stock, hardened and heated by the colonizing warfare in Ireland, which produced Jackson and so many others of the notable figures in our early history.

Sam Houston was born in March, 1793, of an emigrant Irish family, which had fought at the siege of Derry, and represented on the female side the Scotch houses of Davidson and Dunlop, and had settled in Rockbridge County, Va. His father had been an officer in the war of the Revolution, but the family by position and habit was of the pioneer rather than of the planter class, and a cabin in a clearing was probably the extent of its possessions. On the death of Major Houston, which occurred when Sam was thirteen years of age, the widow gathered up her family and her small belongings, and migrated with a party of neighbors to East Tennessee, on the bank of the Tennessee River, then the boundary of advanced settlement upon the border of the Cherokee country. Mrs. Houston was a woman of uncommon vigor, self-reliance, and natural ability, and from the physique of both parents the son inherited the brawny frame and the almost incredible strength of constitution which sustained him through terrible and wasting wounds, and hardly less trying exposure and excesses. The anecdotes of his youth are probably somewhat apocryphal, but he undoubtedly manifested the zeal and energy of a quick mind, the hasty temper, and the fondness for wild nature and the habits of savage life which always distinguished him. It is said that his imagination was so inflamed with the spirit of Homeric courage and poetry breathing through the conventional restraint of Pope's translation, that he was able to repeat the 'Iliad' by heart; and that he was so indignant because the pioneer teacher could not instruct him in Greek, that he ran away from home and went to live among the Cherokees, whose boys and girls had been his playmates and friends. At any rate, he did run away and join the Indians when a mere youth, and after a brief experience as clerk in a trader's store. The reply which he is said to have made to his brothers, who came in search of him, that he "preferred measuring deer tracks to measuring tape," was entirely characteristic of his grandiloquence and appreciation of theatrical effect, and, if an invention, was not an extravagant one. It is to be said that the Cherokees were by no means the degraded savages that many of the tribes were, and that to live with them and adopt their manners and customs did not signify the degree of degradation that it would for a white man to take up his abode in a Sioux or Ute tepee. They have always been marked as the most civilized and intelligent among the Indian tribes. At this time they lived mainly by agriculture, and had fixed habitations, while they had rapidly assimilated the civilization of their white neighbors, and were beginning to be mingled in blood with the adventurous pioneers who had settled among

them. Nevertheless, in language and habit they were essentially barbaric in their ways, and it is very probable, as is usual in such cases, that Houston was more Indian than the Indians themselves.

He remained among them for three years, perfectly acquiring their language, which is of so rare accomplishment that it is said never to have been done by an adult. When he reappeared in civilization his ambition and his intellectual faculties required food, and he devoted himself with energy and eagerness to self-instruction. He taught a pioneer school while educating himself according to the limited opportunities of the time and place. But the longing for adventure again became too much for him. He enlisted as a private soldier in the regular army, and by natural ability and zeal was promoted through the grades to the rank of ensign. At this time the Creek war, which had been fomented partly by the eloquence of Tecumseh and partly by the aggressions of the whites, broke out. General Jackson commanded the mixed army of regulars, volunteers, and allied Indians, among whom were a body of Houston's old friends, the Cherokees. At the battle of Tohopeka, or Horse Shoe Bend, Houston displayed that desperate gallantry which distinguished him through life, and won him the good will of Jackson, which he always retained. He led repeated charges upon the breastworks, and had already been severely wounded when he headed the final assault upon the last fastness of the desperate warriors, in which he fell with two rifle balls in his shoulder and an arm shattered by his side. When taken out of the mêlée he was given up as hopeless by the rude surgery of the time, and remained without attention through the night. His tenacious vitality sustained life through a journey to Fort William in a litter, and thence in a two months' journey to his mother's home, where he arrived such a skeleton that she declared that she would not have known him except for his eyes. For more than a year his iron constitution struggled with the festering wounds, unskilfully treated, and to the day of his death they were never healed, although they apparently had little effect upon his strength until he reached a late old age. After his recovery he was promoted lieutenant, and received an appointment as sub-agent among the Indians. After brief service he was accused of preventing the smuggling of negroes into the Western States from Florida, then a Spanish province, and indignantly resigned. It is interesting at this point to note that the reverend author leaves us somewhat in doubt whether he means to deny the truth of the charge, or to commend Houston for being guilty of the offence of defending the negro against what was probably a sort of land piracy. But although Houston was naturally a pro-slavery man, he was no abettor of slave-catchers, and his warm sympathies would naturally have been enlisted against the cruelties of kidnapping and smuggling.

On quitting the army service, Houston betook himself to the study of the law, the natural resource of the ambitious young man of his time. He was embarrassed with various difficulties of poverty and lack of education, but the requirements of the Southwestern bar in the way of study of authorities were not onerous, and in a very short time he was licensed to practise, and set up an office in Lebanon, Tenn. The records of his triumphs at the bar have not been recorded, although his biographer would give the impression that they were considerable. They were doubtless such as could be won at the local courts and from country juries by an advocate with a ready speech and a knowledge of human nature such as Houston possessed. He soon blossomed into a politician, was elected a major-general of the Tennessee militia, and a member of Congress in 1823, when thirty years of age. An amusing chapter is devoted to his Congressional career, almost wholly with reference to the legislative events of the time, in which, so far as appears, he took no sort of part, and certainly not a more conspicuous or influential one than that of a silent member from a rural district. He was a zealous supporter of Jackson in peace, as he had been in war; but, although less eccentric and of a higher class of mind and self-education than his colleague, David Crockett, he was doubtless only the backwoods politician among the leading statesmen of the time. In 1827 he was elected Governor of Tennessee, and two years later occurred that remarkable episode in his career which at first threatened to degrade and ruin him forever, but was finally the cause of his greatest achievements. He had been married about three months to an "amiable and accomplished" young lady, and there had been no appearance of any unhappiness. Suddenly they separated, Mrs. Houston going home to her parents. All sorts of rumors were rife as to the cause, but the secret was never divulged by either. Perhaps the most credible rumor has finally settled on the explanation that, in a moment of pique or despair, Mrs. Houston confessed that her heart belonged to another and that she had never loved her husband. No allegation was ever made of misconduct on either side, and Houston's habits at the time were not irregular beyond those of his class. Houston was of an impulsive and passionate nature—what is called in Southern parlance "high-strung"—and such a confession would have been very likely to upset him. At any rate, he announced his intention of resigning his office as Governor of Tennessee, and carried it out in a manly and dignified letter. He made no reply to the remonstrances or the accusations, and prepared to retreat to the wilderness among his old friends, the Cherokees, a portion of whom had settled in the Indian Territory in advance of the compulsory removal of the tribe. Here, on the banks of the Bayou Illinois, flowing into the Arkansas, lived his adopted father, the old chief John Jolly, or Oo-loo-tee-kah. To his cabin Houston made his way after the long and tedious journey with a flat-boat of Indian supplies, and received, according to tradition, a friendly and pathetic welcome. The Indian nature could sympathize with his sorrows, and the hospitality of fosterage was open to him.

Houston's second residence among the Indians marked his lowest decadence. Whatever sympathy he may have had by nature with wild life, and however grateful may have been the solitude of the forest and prairie to his wounded spirit, it was not possible that he should forget the position he had held, or drown the higher instincts of civilization in the rude life of the savage. He sank very low in habits of self-indulgence, took up with an Indian wife, and was hardly above the level of the "squaw-men" who have infested the Indian camps in a voluntary degradation greater than that of their hosts. This would not be quite true in every sense, for Houston had weight in the councils of the tribe, and was regarded more as one of themselves than an alien guest. At one time he accompanied a delegation of the tribe to Washington, and discredited himself by appearing in the blanket and buckskins of his associates. His mission was to protest against the robberies committed upon the tribes by the agents, and a savage attack was made upon his character and integrity by the friends of the Indian Ring. This he resented by committing a violent assault upon Mr. Stanberry, of Ohio, within the Capitol grounds, knocking him down with a hickory cane. For this he was reprimanded in a complimentary manner by the Speaker, and fined $500 by the courts, which was remitted by the President, the affair being championed by the Jackson party, then paramount. The charges against Houston's integrity were thoroughly disproved before a committee, of which Mr. Stanberry was chairman, and there never was any reasonable allegation throughout his career that he was not the honest, zealous, and intelligent friend of the Indians, whom he knew so well, and whose character he thoroughly appreciated. On his return to the Territory he continued his course of self-abasement, keeping a little trading store across the river from Fort Gibson, and spending a great deal of his time drunk about the cantonment. All this is passed over almost silently by Mr. Crane.

After three years of Indian life, the news began to stir the Western frontier of the rising of Texas, which had been colonized to a slight extent by Austin's party, under the authority of the Mexican Government, and was attracting the eyes of adventurous Americans and the distrust and apprehension of the Mexican authorities claiming sovereignty over it. Houston's better instincts and ambitions were aroused, and in 1832 he bade farewell to his Indian wife, who refused to accompany him, and started for the seat of the new empire. He found there the hardy adventurers and reckless spirits of the border, of every kind, animated with an eager greed and a native hatred of the Mexicans. At his advent among them he still wore the dress of the savage, but his reputation, his natural tact, strong magnetism, and undoubted ability for the conduct of affairs and the management of men, made him the leader; and, although he had keen and bitter rivalry, he maintained his position. With all his impulsive recklessness, his fondness for theatrical sensation, which never deserted him, and various other weaknesses, which were apparent enough, he had the gift of saving common-sense and shrewdness, and the genius for the practical achievement of great things. He inspired the motley band with confidence in him, and, while greatly daring, was not wantonly reckless, like the defenders of the Alamo and others, who were ready to fight at a hundred-fold odds. With such a leader, there was no question of the result of a contest between as fine a body of partisan soldiers, in indomitable courage and individual skill in the use of arms, as the world has ever known, and the ill-trained, inefficient, and effete Mexican troops, however extraordinary the nominal disparity in numbers. Thus it was that the battle of San Jacinto was won in one desperate fight of ten minutes by seven hundred and fifty over twelve hundred, and the question of the independence of Texas settled without another effort. Houston managed well in getting his troops into position, and the fight was won by the ready rifles against the clumsy *escopetas*, and the stout hearts against the timid ones.

Houston naturally became the first President of the Republic of Texas, and exhibited a practical skill in civil administration in marked contrast to his successors, to whom he gave way through the constitutional limit of office. He was largely instrumental in bringing about the inevitable annexation, and became a Senator of the United States. In this office he spent several years as a sort of picturesque and eccentric figure, having some queer ideas of statesmanship, but not without a shrewd sense of his availability as a popular and "hurrah" candidate for the Presidency, as, indeed, he narrowly escaped being. His notions of devotion to the Union became old-fashioned in comparison with those of the fire-eaters, and it is fair to presume

that he had no natural liking for the institution of slavery. He was superseded as Senator and then deposed as Governor for his opposition to secession, and died in a tranquil retirement, somewhat enfeebled in mind as in body. After his marriage in Texas he reformed his habits in a great measure, experienced religion after the orthodox fashion, and forgave his enemies so far as not to threaten to knock them down.

His character was a singular one, but perhaps less so than his career. He was a sort of lesser Andrew Jackson, with the latter's traits of affectation and instinct of adventure exaggerated, and less inveterate and vindictive—in fact, a lesser man in every way. But he had a genius for affairs in his way, and was sound at heart, kindly, grateful, and affectionate, with a manly spirit, which gave way for a time to degradation but not to meanness. He saved Texas at a crisis in its fate. It may be hoped that some capable hand will one day depict his life in clear and enduring colors.

RECENT NOVELS.

In the Tennessee Mountains. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Trafalgar. A Tale. By B. Perez Galdos. From the Spanish by Clara Bell. William S. Gottsberger.

Stratford-by-the-Sea. American Novel Series. Henry Holt & Co.

Bethesda. By Barbara Elbon. Macmillan & Co.

Not Like Other Girls. By Rosa Nouchette Carey. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Archibald Malmaison. By Julian Hawthorne. Funk & Wagnalls.

Mr. Nobody. By Mrs. John Kent Spender. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Wife Hard Won. By Julia McNair Wright. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Kitty's Conquest. By Charles King, U. S. A Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

The Man She Cared for. By F. W. Robinson. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Way of the World. By David Christie Murray. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Entailed Hat, or Patty Cannon's Times. By George Alfred Townsend ("Gath"). Harper & Brothers.

How Much I Loved Thee. Washington, D. C.: Raymond Eshobel.

La Veuve. Le Voyageur. Par Octave Feuillet. Paris: Calmann-Levy; New York: F. W. Christern.

Das Schatzhaus des Königs. Ein Roman aus dem alten Ægypten. Von Wilhelm Walloth. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.

A COLLECTION of detached stories not unfrequently produces upon the mind the rather unfortunate impression that any one of them is more and better than all taken together as a whole. Not so with Mr. Craddock's. True, he needed to tell but one story to prove his power as a simple narrator, who can catch a single incident, sketch in strong lines the few characters involved, and throw it all in high relief against a broad background with a power of conception and of execution almost simultaneous. But the eight stories now grouped together under the title of 'In the Tennessee Mountains' present in their total effect something much more than mere short stories. We have not only one mountain valley, but a whole country of hills—not a man and a woman here and there, but the people of a whole district—not merely a day of winter or of summer, but all the year—not lives, but life. Mr. Craddock is a master in the art of description. It is very easy for a man with a facile pen to forget that description, even of character, is not the main purpose of a story or a novel. The realist school is always in danger of piling up a mass of details, brilliant and telling, it is true, but of no use for the expression of sentiment or the development of passion.

William Black's work supplies good illustrations of widely different uses of description. That charming chronicle, 'The Adventures of a Phaeton,' is avowedly, in the main, description—as painters say, "a landscape with figures." The story is so slight as never to draw the reader's attention from the scenery, which is given with the accuracy of an eye-witness. The sunsets must have been recorded on the spot. Fancy would never have made them each so unlike the other. 'White Wings' is an attempt at a plot of an ordinary kind, with a great deal of yachting thrown in to fill up. Yet, after a few pages, we are conscious that there is no variety of scene, and that the paragraphs are mainly filled with catalogues of names, euphonious but strange and unsuggestive. Story and description fail together. The people in the story are no nearer to the scenery than the reader himself. It is all outside admiration. At the other extreme, in 'A Princess of Thule' the landscape is absolutely essential. Who could understand the King of Borva and his fair daughter who did not know intimately the surroundings of their lives? Who can imagine Sheilah without the background of boundless sea and sky? All the studied detail in 'White Wings' was futile, but here some flash of genius revealed to the author the spirit of things, and one precious hour was granted him to embody it.

A like felicity has fallen to Mr. Craddock. His vivid pictures of the roughness and loneliness of a wild country are not painted for their own sake, but because if we know them our hearts will be stirred by the sorrow and the joy of the life that is spent there. It is a hard life: the men are uncouth and stern, at the best; at the worst, wicked as only borderers can be. The women are gaunt and melancholy: "holding out wasted hands to the years as they pass; holding them out always, and always empty." But side by side with them is that strange miracle of young girlhood. We find it again and again as we find the wild rose lending tender beauty to the grim story. It may be rather the result of the grouping of the stories than of any plan of the writer, but he has enforced anew that saying of George Eliot's: "In these delicate vessels is borne onward through the ages the treasure of human affections." The reader cannot forget them, for they remain in his thought as a saving grace to those lawless communities. It is hardly needful to add that the style is admirable, with marked characteristics of its own which extend beyond the mere expression, and produce at times an effect of rhythm, not of words, but of thought—if such a thing is possible. "The 'harnt' that walked Chillowhee," has all the power of a pathetic refrain in music.

In 'Trafalgar' we have an old man's recollections of the high hope and the terrible defeat of that day. As a lad of fifteen he went as servant to his master, a Spanish gentleman, who, after years of chagrin over the defeat at Cape Saint Vincent, offered himself as a volunteer in the fleet. It is hardly a novel, but those who are fond of sea stories will find it worth while. The little Gabriel had an inclusive eye, and missed nothing, from the colossal mass of the *Santissima Trinidad*, on which he served, to the row of soldiers on deck "tying their pigtails, poor men! I saw them standing in a line, one behind another, each one at work on the pigtail of the man in front of him; by which ingenious device the operation was got through with in a short space of time." Even the proverbial school boy will think the fighting as old-fashioned as the hair-dressing, but it cannot come amiss to know how those who never heard of "Victory or Westminster Abbey" tell the familiar story. The single page that records with generous regret the death of Nelson, closes with the sentence, "The reader will forgive me this digression."

'Stratford-by-the-Sea' has nothing in plot or execution to commend it. The man who marries the country girl and afterward falls in love with a brilliant woman, appears once in so often in the third-rate novel in various guises. This particular hero is a little more stupid than usual, and a convenient railroad disposes of him when he is too much, or rather too many, for the author. It does not make the story less hackneyed that there is a lover ready for the country maiden. He is borrowed from Mrs. Whitney, and very badly used in the borrowing. The brilliant actress consoles herself with her destiny as "the vessel of the gods," and forms "a stock company that shall present nothing but standard tragedy and comedy." Were not the book so weak the fantastic notions of marriage and divorce might do harm. As it is, they are a pitiful witness to the confusion of right and wrong of which a well-meaning person may be guilty.

The author of 'Bethesda' has hit upon the same situation attempted in 'The Pagans.' In both books the hero is sent back to an early love by the heroine, whose self-sacrifice is as resolute as her professed ideals are lofty. The early love in the latter book was simply impossible, and all the ability of her rival goes for nothing. In 'Bethesda,' René d'Isten's wife is a commonplace woman of a poor kind, and may be true enough, but the lady who is supposed to save him and herself is queerly worked up from many novels (Mr. Crawford's notably), with an ignorance of life so profound as to be ludicrous. At twenty she had "found the hollowness of her childish faith . . . and taken refuge in æsthetic religion." She is of the grand pattern, with a vocation. As the American girl in Europe, "she sends a weekly letter to one of our best papers." When the lover hears this, there "comes a peculiar luminous appearance in his eyes. 'It is so unexpected——'" On that line the story goes on. She is to return home, and he is to supply her with materials to work over, so that the letters may still continue. They seek "a uniting of minds whose only aim is literary development." Bethesda knows of the wife at the outset, from her aunt, who is her sole guardian; but the wisdom and self-reliance of twenty never fail through three hundred pages of alternate flatness and spasmodic passion. The perils that are escaped only a tyro would dare to suggest, and the conquest at last, to any one who can struggle so far, must seem like the end of a sham fight. Some flattering comparisons have been made with Mr. James's work, but you might as well compare the performance of the last devotee to Kensington crewels with a piece of Gobelin tapestry.

It is a refreshment of soul to turn to anything so bright and sweet as 'Not Like Other Girls.' It is not the less pleasant for the suggestion of the spirited 'Doigts de Fée,' though there is as little resemblance as between the brilliancy of a Paris boulevard and the charm of an English village. The story ranks with the best of its kind; and the kind is a very good one, that leaves would-be philosophy and pretentious theories quite out of sight, and gives us the home-life of gentle, high-hearted maidens. A daughter's devotion, and the old-fashioned fidelity of lover to lady, still offer worthy opportunities to the novel writer. There is something curious in the difference in a story of this calibre (to adapt

a word, for neither rank nor class would express our meaning), by an English hand and an American one. The latter is more ambitious, puts more ideas into it, intends to mean more; but the former rounds out and finishes by adding a host of details that make the picture more interesting as well as more beautiful. Some people may say the difference is in the life itself, but it is not yet proved that it is not for want of some special faculty, call it perhaps literary patience, that will gather a full store, and then spare no pains to use it all to the utmost advantage.

The nervous should be warned off from 'Archibald Malmaison,' except where the plain prose of modern houses precludes the chance of secret chambers and the like. Mr. Hawthorne is at much pains to proclaim the story literally true, point by point; strong as the telling may be, it is so bluntly, boldly worked out as to be only horrible. Charm or fascination there cannot be in watching, in the broadest daylight, the deeds of a man who spends the alternate seven years of his life in a state but one degree better than idiocy.

"She mixed those babies up, and not a creature knew it," is the key to 'Mr. Nobody.' But she mixed them up under such dismal and disagreeable circumstances that the author's taste is condemned past dispute. Those who seek in a novel what we believe to be its primary *raison d'être*, entertainment, will hardly go beyond the first pages. Nor is it desirable that they should, since there is only dreary elaboration of nothing as well as nobody, and an extra stint of moral padding, both social and political.

A decent edition of the preposterous farrago, 'A Wife Hard Won,' suggests that we have still among us a few of those whose shining characteristic Rochefoucauld defined as the tribute vice pays to virtue. It is a choice specimen of that richly imaginative fiction from which in the sensational weekly all self-respecting persons turn away their eyes.

Mr. King offers 'Kitty's Conquest' to the public with the remark that it was written several years before his successful military novel, 'The Colonel's Daughter.' This at once attracts attention to the resemblance between the stories and to the perhaps natural inferiority of the earlier composition. Spurs jingle and the bugle-call rings true throughout, but the characters are drawn with comical sentimentality. In the handling of women the author's sensibility is worthy of Maria Roche. To "Noodledom," protesting solemnly that the practice of virtues is woman's proper and only duty, Sydney Smith said, "No man and no woman can fill up twenty-four hours with acts of virtue. We know women are to be compassionate, but they cannot be compassionate from eight in the morning till twelve at night. What are they to do in the intervals?" They are to pout, says Mr. King, to toss their golden curls, in a word, to coquet, thereby inspiring permanent rapture in the masculine breast. So he pleasantly settles the dreadful question, for the pretty women at least, and provides, too, a pleasant hour for good-tempered idlers who are never critical.

An old friend appears in the first pages of 'The Man She Cared for.' He is that imprudent English gentleman who has "one wife at Natchez over the hill, and another one here in Pike." Fame may be confidently predicted for that novelist who shall give us, as an eccentric character-study, the English gentleman successfully resisting the allurements of bigamy. The story chiefly concerns Sam and Agnes Challis, children of the indiscreet Mr. Dangerfield. Mr. Robinson tells of their trials and victories with the ease of a born *raconteur* and the skill of a practised writer. He tacitly admits the insignificance of the question why a woman cares for a man by not showing why Agnes Challis should care for Hamilton Redclove. But when a woman begins to be uncommon, she may not stop short of preferring insolence to deference in a lover. Redclove's rival, Overdown, the gunsmith, is a much finer sort of a man; still, the reasons why Miss Challis could not love him are obvious. Those who think him defrauded should reflect on the recent influx of grace which prompts aristocrats to give to a demogogical workman in white duck trousers the freedom of their hearth and dining-table.

The history of Mr. William Amelia and his paper, *The Way of the World*, may be taken as a satire on the society journal and the methods of its editor. The man and vocation fit each other, and worldly prosperity ensues. Mr. Amelia is diligently and delightfully snubbed, but that is small comfort, since inability to recognize a snub is part of his fortunate nature. The characterization is a clever and amusing piece of work—so clever and amusing that it almost excuses the author for whipping up choice items from the daily papers before the ink dries, and presenting them to us as fiction. At the same time it shows him scourging with the left hand what he imitates with the right. He holds Mr. Amelia up for detestation as an unscrupulous gossip, knowing that the spice in the dish is, for a great many readers, the inferential identification of Mr. Amelia with very interesting current gossip. The journalist's career is but slenderly interwoven with the commonplace plot. A peer so pitiable as the Earl of Windgall is enough to prompt the House of Lords to abolish itself in order to escape such an associate. A daughter so beautiful and dutiful as Lady Ella Santerre is removed beyond the sympathy of imperfect mortals, and the reader is as much oppressed by the abject humility of Bolsover Kimberly as that poor little man is oppressed by his millions and the letter "H."

A daughter's sacrifice for a bankrupt father is a prominent feature in 'The Entailed Hat.' If in so disorderly a composition there can be any central situation, it is the marriage of Vesta Custis and Meshach Milburn. This is an aggravated case of filial devotion, and, without disparaging domestic affection, we must protest against the generally-accepted beauty of the illustration chosen. The woman who gives her body in payment of her father's debts ought to be repulsive to the world in proportion as the act is repugnant to herself. Novelists, in such crises, often manage a dexterous slip betwixt the cup and the tearful but firm maiden's lip. The owner of the entailed hat is, however, an inexorable suitor, to whom love means acquisition, not denial. He coolly disregards Vesta's hint that he might express his adoration by letting both her father and herself go free. "I do not think," he says argumentatively, "you personally know of such a case, though you may have read it in a novel or a tract. . . . Where did you ever hear, Miss Vesta, of a famished lover surrendering every endowment that might win the peerless one, to be himself returned to his sorrow, tortured still by love, and by his neighbors ridiculed?" The remark is a fair specimen not only of Meshach's sensible ideas, but also of his style, which has something of the air and no little of the absurdity of a schoolboy's translation of heroic verse. If on the spur of the moment he tried to match his phrases against Vesta's, she very easily distanced him, for almost in reply she exclaims:

"Where will be my share of love in this world, married so? To love is to a woman the Globe itself, her youth the mere atmosphere thereof, her widowhood the perfume of that extinguished star."

This picturesqueness of language is not confined to the conversation, for the narrative is a revelation in the way of epithet and comparison. As far, however, as the story concerns Meshach and Vesta, it is harmless, and the unconscious drollery in the pair relieves it from dulness. But the twenty chapters dealing with Patty Cannon and her kidnapping gang are neither harmless nor droll. It is somewhat the fashion to excuse grossness in literature, on the plea that repulsion from evil propels toward good, and to discover a potent moral tonic in nastiness. It is also the fashion to lay upon the American novelist the awful responsibility of perpetuating every phase of by-gone national life. Among the horrors here accumulated, we have carefully sought for some latent moral force or some valuable historical fact; we have found none. Murder and debauchery have no national significance, and their fashion changes little with the times. The details of blackguardism, whether among princes or kidnappers on the border of a slave State, have no place in a literature with any pretensions to decency. It would be impossible in limited space to point out all the offensiveness of these chapters, but toward the last the climax of wanton bestiality is reached. It is stated in the introduction that the author's reflection on his knowing no locality well, inspired study of which this romance is the result. A little deeper reflection might have led him to a happier choice.

The tragic drama 'How Much I Loved Thee' comes to us several centuries before its time. When the language has been so long dead that Shakspere and the Sweet Singer of Michigan shall be equally valued and valuable, then only can justice be done to this episode of the American civil war. At present there is something in blank verse as it rolls from the lips of United States citizens and army officers that rouses a spirit of levity, not to say flippancy. There is no reason why a modern policeman should not break up a crowd with—

"Come, sir, you trifle—you must go with us";

nor why a young lieutenant should not remonstrate with a Washington citizen thus:

"What villain lie is that! How dare you, sir,
Level your piece upon a Union soldier?"

but we are pretty sure that they don't, and we are so hampered by the real that we cannot take the ideal seriously. But when time shall have obliterated nice distinctions of idea, of language, and of metre, then Eudora's madness will not seem a travesty of Ophelia's; then Ricardo will be as good a villain as Iago; then Anderton's soliloquies over his dead love will not parody Othello's; then "vile bounty-jumping beast" will have all the effect of vile "besonian," and start as many squabbles among the commentators.

The latest novel of M. Octave Feuillet is like the earlier, being strained, sentimental, and sickly. There are two friends, one in the army and one in the navy. The latter marries a beautiful woman, resigns, volunteers again when the war with Prussia breaks out, is wounded, and dies in his friend's arms, after making the latter promise to tell his widow that she must not remarry, and that if she does her husband will rise from his grave to curse her. Obviously, the friend falls in love with this victim of posthumous jealousy, and she with him. They are married, and on his wedding-night the bridegroom commits suicide. This is a painful and unwholesome story, inherently vulgar in its conception, in spite of the grace and decency of the literary style in which it is told. We maintain our frequently-expressed belief that M. Feuillet is a far more dangerous writer than M. Zola. M. Feuillet is insidious, M. Zola is outspoken. M. Zola must shock, and M. Feuillet is sure to

corrupt. It is perhaps characteristic that the second part of M. Feuillet's volume should contain a very lively little dramatic sketch, which might also be called "La Veuve," and which closely recalls an earlier comedy of M. Feuillet's, "L'Urne." It is an amusing little trifle, showing how a traveller, returning after a long absence, finds that the lady whom he had loved, and whom he had left married to a friend, is now a widow; and he assumes a due air of grief and condolence, only to discover that the husband died eighteen months before and has already been sufficiently mourned. So he marries the widow. Whether he, too, commits suicide on his wedding night, is not revealed to us.

Every period of Egyptian history has yielded fruitful subjects for the novelist -that of the old, the middle, and the new empire; that of the Ptolemies, Alexander's successors; that of the Romans, and of the Christian and Islamitic period. Wilhelm Walloth, in his 'Royal Treasure-Fort,' and G. Ebers, in his 'Uarda,' have selected the earlier centuries of the new empire for their narratives. In this empire are comprehended the reigns of all the Ramesids, the monarchs best known to us historically through the numerous inscriptions and manuscripts left to us from their times. A court-life episode from the reign of the powerful Rameses II., the Sesostris of the Greeks, forms the subject of Walloth's interesting tale. The antagonism of the Egyptians to the Hebrews, who then inhabited a northern province of the country and were held in abject dependence by the Egyptian Government, is the cause of all the tragic incidents and terrible scenes described. A young Jewess named Rebecca learns from her dying father the secret of the hidden entrance to the King's treasure-house at Memphis, and, having penetrated into it at night with her brother, robs it of many jewels and other precious articles, and afterward, by a curious coincidence, while following the profession of a dancer, is brought to Thebes, the capital, and becomes the favorite of the King. She meets there Menes, a young man whom she had known at home, occupying the position of a State Minister. He is engaged to a Jewish girl, but his mother compelled him to leave her in Memphis. Rebecca is ordered by a number of conspirators to poison the King, but betrays the plot to him. She suffers death at their hands, and Menes is on the point of losing his life while combating them. Meanwhile, his betrothed arrives at Thebes; the robbery at the treasure house is discovered, and a parchment found in possession of the robbers proves that Menes's intended is the natural daughter of King Seti I. The wedding takes place with the "royal blood" in preference to the real daughter of Rameses II., who is desperately in love with Menes; and, save a few invidious persons, everybody is happy. The story is exceedingly dramatic, even at the beginning, where the erection of the King's statue on the top of a pyramid, with fatal consequences to the laborers, is graphically described. The principal characters, too, are well marked. But there is too much improbability in the plot.

THE ORIGIN OF THE AMERICAN INDIANS.

De l'Origine des Indiens du Nouveau-Monde et de leur Civilisation. Par P. Dabry Thiersant, Consul-Général de la République Française au Centre-Amérique. Paris: Leroux. 1883. 8vo, pp. 358.

WHETHER the American Indians, such as the early explorers found them, were "native and to the manner born," or whether they derived their origin and their civilization—one or both—from the Old World, are questions about which opinions may well differ. Indeed, so many and varied are the theories that have been held upon these points that the bare enumeration of them, without any attempt at weighing their respective merits, would require more space than we can well afford. Hence we are compelled to limit ourselves to the statement that, for reasons which seem to be good and sufficient, the tendency to-day is to the belief that the Indians, so far from being autochthonous, are descended from Asiatic progenitors, and that they brought with them from their homes in the Old World the seeds of that civilization which, in material development at least, found its highest expression in Mexico, Central America, and Peru. But while conceding this much, we do not by any means wish to be understood as admitting that the question is finally settled; neither do we intend to assert anything as to the people or peoples from whom they are descended, or from whom they received their civilization, nor as to the route or routes by which they travelled in the course of what must have been a long, slow, and toilsome progress. So far as we know anything about these matters, the Indians may have been indigenous; or, assuming their foreign origin, they may have come over at one immigration, or, springing from different stocks or races, they may have started from different centres, travelled by different routes, and arrived at different times and at different places on the same or opposite sides of the continent. All that we can assert with any degree of certainty is, that the discovery, in California, of stone implements in the same stratum with the remains of extinct animals, and the fact that our Indians were ignorant of the use of iron, indicate most unmistakably that this immigration must have taken place at a period so remote that it can only be measured by geological epochs and phases of civilization. Beyond this all is conjecture, and if the drift of opinion at present is toward the Asiatic theory, it is not because it has been proved, but because, with the present configuration of the earth, an immigration from that direction (or perhaps it might be more correct to say a series of them) would meet with fewer obstacles than if starting from any other quarter; and because, also, in no other way can we account for certain peculiar features in the civilization, as developed here, with as little violence to accepted facts. Mindful of these limitations, and estimating at their full value the data which, though few, are all that we have to guide us in the investigation, we are now ready to take up this account of the origin of the Indians and of their civilization with some prospect of finding our way through the maze of fact, fiction, and fallacy in which our author is hopelessly lost.

Beginning with the question of their origin, he tells us (pp. 27, 49, and 348) that the New World was peopled, at a time that cannot be easily fixed, by colonies of the Mongol race, which came either by way of Behring Straits or the Aleutian Islands. That this colonization did not take place earlier was owing to the fact that the frozen regions of the northern part of America offered but few attractions to the people of Asia; and this same fact will, it is thought, also explain why it was that, in the seventh century of our era, America was inhabited by only a few tribes of savages who dressed in skins, subsisted by hunting and fishing, and dwelt in caves and grottoes instead of houses. About this time a band of Aryo-Turanians, whose country—Kharism or Chorasmia (Carizme?)—was situated just east of the Caspian Sea, being driven from their homes by the followers of Mahomet, took up their line of march, and, after a stay more or less prolonged in China, "probably" came to Japan (pp. 28 and 36), where they embarked in seven junks, and, guided by fishermen from the island of Yezo, they set sail and landed on the coast of Alaska. For the first forty or fifty years after their arrival they remained concentrated in the section of country now known as Arizona and New Mexico, and are said to have devoted themselves to "teaching the still savage tribes of North America how to clothe themselves, to cook food, to build houses, to make arms and implements, to raise temples, to offer sacrifices, to speak their language, and to make use of written characters." At the end of this time, or about A. D. 670 or 700, only forty or fifty years after they had been driven from their home on the shores of the Caspian Sea, and in spite of the most unfavorable conditions, we are asked to believe that, from a mere band of refugees brought over in seven junks, they had now become so numerous as to necessitate their division into tribes, and a migration to other less populous and more fertile regions, or, as our author poetically expresses it: "The hive became too full, and swarms escaping gradually spread, as the Aryans did in Europe and Asia, over the whole of the New World, where they can be traced, historically and by the ruins of monuments which they have left behind them, all the way from the Rio Gila to the land of Fire."

We believe this to be a fair statement of our author's theory, and he supports it by a reference to the traditions of the Toltecs, who seem to have formed a part of one of the earliest of these civilization-bearing "swarms" that left the parent hive. Without stopping, now, to inquire into the historical value of these myths, it is sufficient to say that, according to the account as given by Ixlilxochitl, these Toltecs came originally from a place called Huehue Tlapallan, or, as it is translated, "Old Red Land," and, after wandering around for a hundred years or more, they established themselves in Anahuac, the Valley of Mexico, some time during the seventh century. This is also the date fixed by our author, and as it is one of the few facts connected with early Mexican history about which there is anything like unanimity of opinion, it may be accepted. But while we may therefore feel reasonably sure as to the time of this migration, we cannot, unfortunately, be so certain as to the situation of this Huehue Tlapallan, the country from which they said they had migrated. According to most of the early Spanish writers, it was situated to the north, probably in the region now covered by New Mexico and Arizona. Some modern investigators, among them Squier and Hubert H. Bancroft, formidable by reason of their attainments rather than their numbers, incline to the opinion that it is to be found in the south, perhaps in Guatemala or Yucatan; while our author identifies it with Chorasmia or Carizme, which, as we have seen, was, A. D. 650, situated just east of the Caspian Sea. He bases this conclusion upon the fact that in the year 1222, or 600 years after these so-called Aryo-Turanians were driven from their homes, Genghis Khan, according to a Chinese history, having made himself master of Bokhara and Samarcand, destroyed the kingdom of the "Hue hue," and obliged their King to take refuge on an island in that sea, where he died. This Hue hue, if we may judge from the context, was situated to the east of the Caspian, and must therefore, according to our author, have been the same as Chorasmia, though separated from it by an interval of 600 years. It was also identical with the Huehue Tlapallan of the Toltecs, for the reason that in the Khanate of Khiva, as Chorasmia is now called, the soil is composed of a reddish clay, and produces melons of enormous

size and in great quantities; and as these same things are asserted of Huehue Tlapallan, it follows that the two countries must have been identical.

Bearing upon this point, and, from our author's point of view, strongly confirmatory of it, is the argument which he draws from the account given in the 'Popol vuh' of the origin of the Quiché Indians of Chiapas. In fact, the two arguments run parallel, or, rather, they are so mixed up that it is impossible thoroughly to understand one, especially in its philological aspect, without a reference to the other, and we therefore summarize it as briefly as possible: The Quichés, if we may accept the 'Popol vuh' as history, came from a country called Tulan zuiva, or "Seven Caves," which is said to be the same as Tulan *chiwim* or *chiwan*, though *chiwin=chivim* belongs to the Votan myth of the Maya Indians, and means "serpent." This Tulan or Tollan, we are told, is the same as the Turan of the Zendavesta—a country of darkness situated in the north—and must therefore have been the same as Chorasmia, the "Hue hue" of the Chinese historian, which, as we have seen, is represented to-day by the Khanate of Khiva. Now, Khiva is but another name for chiwim, and if to this latter we add Tulan, we have once more Tulan chiwim or Tulan zuiva, which is the Quiché name for the Toltec Huehue Tlapallan.

This is substantially all that there is in the historical argument, and to those who will take the trouble to measure our author's statements by the confession of ignorance with which we set out, it is needless to say that we do not regard his conclusion as entitled to any weight. Even if it be admitted that the traditions of the Toltecs, Quichés, Mayas, and other civilized tribes of Mexico and Central America as to an emigration from some centre, the name of which is variously given, refer to the same event; and that, hence, Huehue Tlapallan and Tulan Zuiva are but different names for the same place, there is nothing in the evidence presented, considered either historically or linguistically, to connect the former with the "Hue hue" of the Chinese historian, or the latter with the Turan of Zoroaster.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this branch of the subject further, neither will it avail us to follow our author into the comparison which he institutes between the religion, laws, arts, manners, and customs of the different peoples of the New and of the Old World for the purpose of showing their identity, and hence of proving not the Carizmian, but the "Asiatic" origin of the civilization of our American Indians. Unquestionably this portion of the work displays considerable research, and any one sufficiently familiar with the facts and the authorities to be able to separate the wheat from the chaff, may read it with profit; but the question is not as to the derivation of this civilization from any or all of the peoples of Asia, but whether it was brought over in the seventh century by a band of Carizmian shepherds who were driven from their homes by the Mahometan invasion. This is our author's own proposition, and, as he must abide by it, it follows that so much of his argument as relates to any other people is irrelevant and falls to the ground, unless it can be shown that they were in about the same stage of development as these refugees from the shores of the Caspian Sea. In other words, he must, according to his own showing, prove that there existed in the seventh century, upon the steppes of Tartary and among a tribe of shepherds, a civilization which equalled in every respect the best that had yet been developed upon the banks of the Ganges, the Euphrates, and the Nile. This he has not done; nor can he do it without indulging in as wild a flight of fancy as that which characterizes the assertion (pp. 39 and 45) "that proofs are being daily discovered which tend to show that the Iroquois, Algonquins, Shoshonees, Natchez, and other 'savage' tribes of North America had the same religion, the same manners and customs, and spoke the same language, as the Mexicans, the Central Americans, and the Peruvians."

So far as our author's argument is concerned this is, of course, a sufficient answer, though it does not go to the root of the matter. To do this we must go further, for, admitting that the American Indians derived their civilization from Asia, we hold with Tylor and other anthropologists that it is necessary to put the date of this event at a period long anterior to the seventh century, for the reason that, "when supposing a civilization to have been transmitted from one people to another, we must measure it by its lowest point, as the strength of a chain is measured by its weakest link." Applying this principle, it will be found that the people from whom the American Indians received their civilization were ignorant of the use of metals and of the domestication of animals, and, consequently, must have been living at that indefinite period in the remote past, and in that stage of progress, which, for the want of a better name, we are accustomed to call the age of stone.

In a concluding chapter our author tells us that the civilization of most of the American tribes, at the time of the conquest, was but a faint reflection of what it had been; and he ascribes this degeneration to "the want of a religion of peace elevating the heart with hope instead of depressing it with fear, to the absence of a liberal government, and of equal institutions founded in justice." Aside from the fact that the statement as to the extinction of this civilization is not admitted, it may be said that even if it were true the reasons given for it are not sufficient. We hasten to add that it is perhaps lucky for us that it is so, as there is not a government, a religion, or a set of institutions now on the face of the earth which could, if tried by this test, justify its existence at any and all times during the past 400 years.

Essays and Leaves from a Note-Book. By George Eliot. Harper & Brothers. 1884.

THE seven essays reprinted in this volume were selected by George Eliot from among her fugitive pieces, and, it is said, were carefully revised by her for publication after her death. If they are the best of her writings in the reviews, the world need not regret their fewness; for, as essays, they are by no means level with her reputation. They are not the work of a critic, but of a partisan; their aim is not disinterested, but to serve a cause in which the moral nature of the writer was strongly aroused; they do not belong so much to literature as to polemics. Yet the seriousness of George Eliot, her grave enthusiasm, expressing itself not in idealizing or eulogizing or any heightening of the reality, but rather in thrusts of irony, or sketches of grim truthfulness, or appeals laboriously practical, saves them from the fate of being merely literary curiosities. They have still the worth of their moral and the interest of the information hived in them; they show the old comprehensive, discriminating, rigid power of mind, and in a striking way the scientific basis, and firm, reflective trend of her convictions before she turned from critical and abstract thought to build the fictions that are truer than systems; but, for all that, they belong to the works that perish and ought to perish.

George Eliot's nature, her training, and her aims, did not particularly qualify her to be the judge of either Young or Heine: the consequence is that Young, under her treatment, becomes as gloomy an object of reprobation to us as the most hardened sinner could have been to his own blandly contemplative eyes; and Heine even, whose intelligence creates a sort of sympathy with his critic, loses half his merriment and all the conceited light-heartedness of it, as if he had put his cap and bells in his pocket to make a more decent appearance. Young was very likely a hypocrite morally, and a hyperbolical star-gazer poetically; but the energy of George Eliot's criticism spends itself not on the man or his poetry so much as on the profit-and-loss nature of his religion, which allowed his self-complacency to flourish under the notion that he held preferred stock. This was the vile thing, she thought, behind the man and his poetry, and so she thrust at the system through them. Such criticism has only the slightest value in art, however useful in other respects. The essay on Dr. Cumming is a simple denunciation of preaching that she did not like—rightly enough, because it was foolish, ignorant, and full of misrepresentation; but his words and himself are gone now, and it is a pity that this dust, too, did not settle with the rest that his little eddy of popularity raised. The four papers which conclude the collection are of a less pugnacious kind, being a notice of Lecky's 'Rationalism,' in which she thought he did not assign sufficient relative influence to science in moral changes, an account of Riehl's studies of German sociology, a description of a visit to Weimar, and an address to the workingmen of England when the extension of the suffrage was carried in 1868. The last few pages are taken up with some indifferent notes from a commonplace-book, such as were stitched together in 'Theophrastus Such.' The whole volume is on a lower plane of literary art and mental power than either her novels or her poems; it must, of course, be now added to her complete works, whence after a while time will winnow it.

Annals of Sandy Spring; or, Twenty Years' History of a Rural Community in Maryland. Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey.

"SANDY SPRING NEIGHBORHOOD" is in Montgomery County, Maryland. It is a Quaker community in the main, and, as such, enjoyed the blessing of free labor in a slave State before the civil war. In its homely thrift there is a suggestion of the Quaker Community at Kennett, Chester County, Pa., but the resemblance does not extend to all particulars. Unless the writer of these pages has, through fear of giving offence, been over-cautious, there has been at Sandy Spring no such aggregation of men and women remarkable for their intellectual and moral force and independence as at Kennett. Of course the local situation was a serious obstacle to any such part as the Quakers of Kennett played in the times preceding the rebellion. The main impression that we get of Sandy Spring from Mr. Farquhar's book is that of admirable decency and thrift, combined with intellectual feebleness and general pettiness; but this impression may be owing to the character of the annalist rather than to that of the community.

There is, it seems, at Sandy Spring a Lyceum Society, at whose annual meeting Mr. Farquhar has each year, for twenty years, read a brief history of the neighborhood for the year preceding. He is disposed to magnify his calling, and, as he approaches the conclusion of the twenty annual records that make up this little book, he quotes with sympathetic admiration that beautiful passage from Gibbon's autobiog-

raphy in which the historian describes his final deliverance, after twenty years' devotion to the 'Decline and Fall.' If General Butler could attribute Tennyson's "Brook" to Longfellow, it is not strange, perhaps, that Mr. Farquhar attributes

> "It is not growing like a tree
> In bulk doth make man better be," etc.,

to George Herbert instead of to Ben Jonson, and the admirable saying of Sir G. Cornewall Lewis, "Life would be so pleasant were it not for its pleasures," to "some Frenchman." There is much poverty of incident and interest throughout the book, which closes with a hope that when the comet of October, 1883, appears again, it may behold not only a brighter, better world than ours, but also a narrow-gauge railroad connecting Sandy Spring with the great outside world. This railroad is the most engrossing topic in the book. Each chapter in turn leads up to an account of the deaths, births, and marriages of the ended year. The writer's bathos reaches its lowest deep in these passages. On page 82 he records a "marriage gale"—"the actual solemnization of three weddings very near together. . . . Thanksgiving day of 1870, how inexpressibly bright and sweet and balmy! And yet there was another side to the picture; for the influence of these exciting events served to lessen the interest felt in opening the lecture course of the Lyceum." On page 237 we are told how Doctor Magruder dropped insensible at a social meeting, "and by the coming of dawn next morning his bright, bold spirit had left its splendid earthly tenement a mass of lifeless clay. *A void was left there, never since filled.*" The italics are our own.

Kreolische Studien, IV. and V. Von Dr. Hugo Schuchardt. Vienna. 1883.

Among the islands and archipelagos of the South Sea, the missionaries and colonists of to-day were long antedated by the whalers, the trepang-fishers, and the sandalwood-seekers. These, singularly enough, were chiefly of English and North American origin, traders sailing among the islands and trafficking with the natives, between whom and the trading people some method of communication had to be devised so that the productions or possessions of each could be speedily and advantageously exchanged. Hence a rude lingo sprang into existence, originated primarily by the whaling men, and called distinctively the "whalers' jargon," because they first of all touched on these remote and varied coasts and felt the need of communicating with the aborigines. Added to the English ground-stock of this jargon there came, in process of time, an accretion of words picked up by these "beach-combers" from every possible source, so that in one of them English, Portuguese, Hawaiian, and Chinese elements jostle amiably together without producing (as one would suppose) an unintelligible result. Many of the singular expressions prevalent in these seas, indeed, have been introduced from season to season by American whalers who, in the pursuit of their business, are obliged to take on board a number of the aborigines from many different places to assist them in their whale catching. The activity of the trepang-catchers and the sandalwood-hunters was naturally more limited, but to counterbalance this they came into more enduring relations with the South Sea populations, and had better opportunities of refining and elaborating their jargon. Large numbers of these Oceanians, voluntarily or involuntarily, serve as laborers on the ships, and though the English which they learn from the sailors and fugitives is not of the purest, it is sufficiently clear and impressive to hang in the recollection of the laborers and perpetuate itself from year to year, until, being greatly helped by the intrusion of a deeper and purer European culture, by instruction in unspoiled English, and by greater intelligence and appreciation of the Oceanian dialects on the part of Europeans themselves, it bids fair to evolve itself out of its cocoon stage and spread in a purified form all over the islands of the South Sea.

New Caledonia (albeit a French colony) and the New Hebrides are becoming particularly important factors in the diffusion of the New Pidgin English in the southern latitudes. Many of the New Hebrideans, indeed, after the term of their service on the plantations has expired, remain in New Caledonia as workmen and servants; and here especially an astonishing lingo has excreted itself, made up of English, Chinese, Portuguese, and New Caledonian words. We have the peculiarly interesting fact, furthermore, that the French are known all over these remote regions as the *wee-wee* men (*oui-oui*) and the English as the *yes* men, quite in the fashion after which Italian in the Middle Ages was called the *lingua di sì* and the French dialects the *langues d'oïl et d'oc*. So, by a grotesque twist not entirely devoid of humor, the Methodist denomination, which ingeniously combines missionary work with (presumably) profitable trade in coco oil, is called in Melanesian *lotu wai-wai* (the coco-oil denomination).

The English of New Caledonia goes by the curious name of *Beche-le-mar*, or Sea-Slug-Catcher English. The trepang or sea-slug (*holothuria edulis*) is the special delicacy of the Chinese, and is called in Portuguese *bicho de mar*, French *bêche de mer*, English *beech de mer*, further corrupted into *beche le mar*. An extensive trade is plied for the gratification of the Chinese in this sea animal, the chief agents in which are English and American sailors. Hence the wonderful growth of numerous mediary jargons in Queensland, the Fiji Islands, and throughout Oceania, the results of which are indicated and explained by Dr. Schuchardt in one of his very interesting studies ('Ueber das Melano-Englische'). Here are a few specimens of it:

"What for you put diss belong-a master in fyer? him cost plenty money!" "Missis, man belong bullamacow him stop." (Mistress, the bull-and-the-cow butcher is come). "What for lamp you make him dead (put out)?" "This fellow hat belong you?" "What man you give him stick?" "Me like him grog," etc.

Dr. Schuchardt's second pamphlet, on the Spanish-Tagil Creole of the Philippine Islands, is scarcely less interesting to an intelligent inquirer. The Spanish language has run a far less brilliant career in the Malayan Archipelago than in Central and South America and the West Indies. Of the population really subject to the Spanish Crown in the Philippines only about one-fortieth speaks Spanish. Even in the provinces of Manila and Cavité, where the Spanish language is at its strongest, only a seventh or eighth part of the people speak the language of the conquerors, and this after an occupation of three centuries. This is partly attributable to the overwhelming numbers of the aboriginal population as compared with the small garrisons of Spanish Americans, Mexicans (before the emancipation), and *mestizos*, who held the islands for the crown, and partly to the disinclination of the colonial clergy to instruct the Malays in Spanish, paralleled by the course of the Jesuits in Paraguay. Now, however, a better state of things, modelled after the more enlightened course of the Dutch in Java, has begun to prevail in the Philippines. In the capital the prevalence of Spanish and the growing interest in its acquisition have started into existence some very interesting linguistic phenomena. A "scullion Spanish," or *Español de cocina*, recalling to mind the lingo of the Greek cooks of antiquity, is in full efflorescence, springing from the lips of the colored population and gradually making its way up into the higher circles, much to the grief and mortification of lovers of the so-called *Castellano*. For the seeker after truth or insight into the genesis of speech this patois has a high interest, being not so much a finished patois, like the Portuguese of Macao or Malacca, as a growing and expanding dialect full of instructive gradations, replete with reminiscences of Castilian grammar, and yet richly garnished with native Malayan words; a fluent jargon current among a numerous Indian population, and showing at their most transparent stage many of the important evolutionary processes of Creole idiom.

Dr. Schuchardt is to be congratulated on his important contributions to the study of mixed dialects, and on the intelligent manner in which he has gathered and arranged his material, principally acquired by an extensive and laborious correspondence with cultivated men in the remotest corners of the globe.

Leisure Hours in Russia. By Wickham Hoffman, late Secretary United States Legation, St. Petersburg; Minister Resident in Denmark; author of 'Camp, Court, and Siege.' London. 1883.

This is a very unpretentious little book, embracing sketches and translations, of which the following are the most extensive: "St. Petersburg," "Russian Superstitions," "Nadeschda," "Finland," and the "Kalevala." Some of the pieces originally appeared in a Philadelphia monthly, which is all we are told in a prefatory way. The prose sketches contain unadorned descriptions and characterizations, little of which will be new to the more diligent class of readers, excepting the pages treating of Finland, a country seldom visited and described by travellers from England or the United States, though, for a Russian province, abounding in highly characteristic features. The little our author has to tell about this almost hyperborean land of fens, lakes, and fiords, and its two million non-Slavic, partly non-Aryan, and with few exceptions Protestant inhabitants, is enough to show the fallacy which he aims at destroying. The popular opinion of the Finns—a term here used of the Finlanders proper—entertained by nine-tenths of the people of the United States is, he says, that "they are pretty much like the Lapps: that is to say, that they live in huts, dress in skins, and live principally upon reindeer milk and black bread." He is, in fact, very fond of Finland, and especially of its capital, Helsingfors, "a picturesque and charming little town of about 35,000 inhabitants," with a university, various learned societies, and upward of twenty newspapers and periodicals, chiefly in Swedish and Finnish. He believes "it is difficult to find a more highly civilized, cultivated, and agreeable society than exists at Helsingfors." And it is mostly Finnish things that attracted his attention during the leisure hours in the Russian capital of which the fruits are here presented; for only the first thirty pages of the book are descriptive of things properly Russian, while all the rest is devoted to the Finnish Grand Duchy—to translations from Runeberg, a Finlander whose contributions to Swedish literature rank among the most esteemed productions in that language, and to an abstract of the great popular epic in the ancient Finnish vernacular, the 'Kalevala.'

Runeberg's romantic tale in verse, 'Nadeschda'—Mr. Hoffman in this and other Russian names improperly follows the spelling of the

Swedish original—is rendered entire. It is attractive in its simplicity, and in some of its parts touching, though the idyllic scenes are placed in the rude wilds of Muscovy, and Catharine II. plays the part of a benign *deus ex machina*. The translation, however, is far from being satisfactory. The versification is very loose, and there is a great deal of unnecessary or bad inversion, as in the following:

> "A rose plucking then Nadeschdina
> Wandered on in beauty and gladness."
>
> "Then from the flow'ry bank of the brook,
> Took she a path that led to the hall."
>
> "And replied then the maiden,
> 'On the ocean a sailor
> My young prince is now like to.'"

The following lines are, probably, the worst of all:

> "'In what occupation, what place residing,
> Told me you have not, and I have not asked you.'"

The translations from the 'Kalevala' are, on the whole, incomparably better, and the abridgments into which the unrhymed verses are woven also show an advance in style on the preceding prose pages. The translator evidently studied with good results the diction of Longfellow's "Hiawatha," knowing that its verses were modelled on those of the 'Kalevala.' Not a few of the verses are, both in sentiment and wording, as pleasing as this address to a departing bride by her mother:

> "'Why abandon thus your mother? . . .
> Here you had no thought of trouble,
> Here no care your heart to burden.
> Cares were left to pines of forest,
> Troubles to the posts and fences,
> Bitter griefs to trees of marshes,
> Sad complaints to lonely birches.
> Like the leaf you floated onward,
> Like the butterfly in summer—
> Grew a bay, a beauteous berry,
> In the meadow of your mother.'"

Frederick the Great. By Col. C. B. Brackenbury, R. A. [The New Plutarch.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884.

FOR the majority of readers who do not care to make a study of Frederick the Great, but who wish to have an intelligent knowledge of the principal events in his career, and a fair appreciation of his character and abilities as a whole, Colonel Brackenbury's life will be found all that could be desired. It is written in a very interesting style, and shows good judgment in the selection of materials, and a clear conception of the relation of Frederick to general history. Military events are described especially well, but unfortunately there are no maps or plans—a defect which is almost fatal to the value of the book as a military history. Col. Brackenbury's estimate of his hero from the point of view of public morality may probably be taken as on the whole that of history. It needs no elaborate arguments to show that Frederick had little regard for right and wrong; or, on the other hand, that he was no worse than his rivals, only a great deal abler and shrewder. Of the two especially vulnerable points in his career, no attempt is made to justify the partition of Poland, which we could wish, indeed, had been condemned a little more heartily. For the seizure of Silesia strong grounds of justification are given—strong enough, at any rate, to be valid against the predecessors of Maria Theresa. That virtuous Queen was made to suffer for the crimes of her fathers. There is at the beginning of the book a compendious (rather too brief) account of the early growth of the Margraviate of Brandenburg, and of the Hohenzollern family. Here it is incorrect to say (p. 4) that Albert the Bear was made *Kurfürst*, or Elector of the Empire. The Electoral College was not organized until a hundred years after his time. What is true, is that he, the most notable German Prince of his time, obtained for his house the hereditary dignity of Archchamberlain of the Empire; and that, the electoral office coming to be attached to the great household offices, the Margrave of Brandenburg received this power as an outcome of the other.

Woodcraft. By "Nessmuk." *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

THIS book contains a series of useful instructions for those who go to the woods in search of health or amusement, and is, on the whole, a valuable companion and assistant to such as have not large stores of personal experience to draw from. It is systematically arranged and plainly written, with a number of explanatory illustrations. "Nessmuk" believes in "travelling light"—for fishing excursions recommending on p. 16 what most people consider, and justly, a nuisance, "a general fishing-rod," not good for bait fishing and almost worthless for fly fishing, while on p. 22 he instances the superfluousness of washing material in the woods by stating that "last summer I carried a cake of soap and towel in my knapsack through the North woods for a seven weeks' tour, and never used either a single time. When I had established a good glaze on the skin (with tar and oil) it was too valuable to be sacrificed for any weak whim connected with soap and water." Probably the portrait of "Nessmuk" which forms the frontispiece was taken just before the seven weeks were up. The description of the headlight, used almost entirely for shooting deer out of season, might have been omitted; but on the whole the book is sound and practical, and well worth the reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Hour with Miss Streator. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Barnes, Dame Juliana. An Older Form of the Treatyse of Fysshynge wyth an Angle. London: W. Satchell & Co.
Bianciardi, Mrs. E. D. R. At Home in Italy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Blanchard, R. Rise and Fall of Political Parties in the United States. Brentano Bros.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 29, 1884.

The Week.

THE affairs of Grant & Ward still maintain their primacy among financial misdemeanors, by reason both of the magnitude of the liabilities and the queer things which are all the time cropping out. Mr. Davies, the receiver, has commenced a suit against W. S. Warner to recover large sums of money obtained by the latter from the firm of Grant & Ward without consideration. The complaint avers that the firm was insolvent at least a year before it failed, and that Warner had reasonable cause to believe that the money drawn out by Ward and handed to him (Warner) was unlawfully withdrawn, and that the transfers of property made by Ward to Warner about the time of the failure were fictitious and should be set aside. All this is highly probable; but Mr. Ferdinand Ward's brother, William S. Ward, of Colorado, a man of good repute, makes some statements to the newspaper reporters implying that there was other crookedness besides W. S. Warner's. According to William S. Ward, it was not Warner alone who wrung this large amount of property out of Ferdinand Ward, but "Work and Warner." These two were present at the midnight interview when the deeds were executed. These two were "getting credits for profits purely fictitious"—profits of ten, and even twenty, per cent. per month, which they must have known were fictitious. The queerest thing in the whole jumble is the fact that the receiver, Davies, is Work's law partner. It will become necessary, therefore, if Mr. William Ward's statements are correct, for Mr. Davies, as receiver, to sue his own partner. Such a suit would probably determine a point which stands much in need of elucidation, viz., whether Work or Warner was the master spirit in the enterprise of plucking Ward while Ward was plucking the public. But, perhaps, a more enterprising plaintiff in such a suit could be found than the receiver. Mr. William Ward says in conclusion: "I do not propose to stand by without objection and see the debtors of this firm claiming to be its creditors," a sentiment which the real creditors of Grant & Ward will heartily endorse.

Dr. Newman on Sunday, commenting on the panic—which naturally supplies much material for pulpit exhortation—said that "religion does not interfere with business life, nor business life with religion," and wished to know "why the idea of hostility between the two was so prevalent." We do not think it is prevalent—not nearly so prevalent, in fact, as it ought to be. The great trouble of the day is, that religion does not interfere enough with business life. In Stalwart circles in particular the separation of religion and business has long been painfully evident. It is too much the custom for business men to leave their religion up town during business hours. It is told of one of our prominent financiers that, being reproached with some sharp practice in Wall Street, as unbecoming in so prominent a professor of religion as he was, he said, "Up town I endeavor to do my duty to God, the Church, and my family, but down town I have to take care of myself." It would not be a bad thing, in fact, if the financial "shrinkage" in some way affected the churches as well as the financiers and if some of the cutting down which goes on in private houses as a consequence of these crises, operated on the gorgeous buildings, and the expensive lots, and the high-priced music and pews, with which so much of the war of religion against dishonesty is carried on in this city. This would bring home to the worshippers the danger of going too fast probably much more effectively than most of the sermons.

Russell Sage has apparently settled with the holders of all his "privileges" who care for a settlement at present prices, and is now enjoying a brief period for reflection and refreshment. His experience during the past few days is probably unique. It is doubtful whether any other member of the human family has passed through anything like it. It must have been a sort of foreshadowing of the punishment which awaits wicked brokers in the nether world, to have stocks in which he had made heavy losses "put to him," hour after hour and day after day, in infernal iteration, by an apparently endless file of mocking or infuriate creditors. An eternity of this, or something like this, must surely be the fate which awaits, after death, dealers in "puts" who "lay down on their privileges." Sage on one day undoubtedly came near incurring the dreadful penalty. If he did not actually "lay down" on Tuesday week, he lolled and lounged in a very suspicious and alarming manner. It will be interesting to see whether his taste for "puts" will survive this ordeal, which so much resembles the plan of curing inebriates by giving them a little whiskey in everything they eat. Will not the very sight of a boy bringing a "put" hereafter cause faintness and nausea?

The failure of the Bankruptcy Bill is a great misfortune, coming as it does at a time when a general insolvency law is most needed. A bankruptcy act will have to be passed sooner or later, and probably would have been passed now but for the deep distrust of Wall Street and Wall Street "methods" which the recent troubles have inspired in some of the patriots who carry on the work of legislation. A bankrupt act is evidently supposed by these statesmen to be simply a device by which debtors get rid of their obligations, and it must be admitted that there is some warrant for suspecting the motives of a good many of the "business men" who are strongly in favor of one. But we have yet, sooner or later, to make our choice between such a bankrupt system as every other civilized country has, and the State insolvent system. There is certainly just as much chance for fraud under the latter as the former; and any one who has watched the proceedings in the recent assignment cases must regret that there should not be a uniform instead of a local system of investigating all bankruptcies.

Signs of disintegration among the Blaine forces multiply daily, and the managers of the boom are making heroic efforts to stop it. From nearly all the States in which large numbers of delegates have been claimed for Blaine, definite and apparently trustworthy information comes that he has nothing like the strength claimed, and that he is likely to have less when the Convention meets than he has now. The main cause of the falling away in his support is the belief which has spread through all the States that he could not carry New York if he were nominated. In order to counteract the bad effect of this belief, the Blaine organs are now arguing that New York is after all only a secondary consideration; that the first thing to be considered is the carrying of Maine in September and Ohio in October, and that the candidate who can carry those States will have no trouble in New York. This apparently makes slight impression upon anybody, and even Murat Halstead, who was a pretty good Blaine man for a time while the boom was big with promise, is admitting more or less frankly that there is no hope for Blaine. He has just returned to Cincinnati from a visit to this city and Washington, where he had all possible advantages for inspecting the boom, and gives it as the result of his observation that there "is a growing chance for John Sherman." The "close calculators," he says, "have fixed it up that Arthur and Blaine will prove too strong for each other." He says also that Blaine has a "sincere feeling that the office is not worth the struggle."

There can be no doubt that the Blaine men have greatly exaggerated their strength in the Northwestern delegations. They "claimed" 23 delegates from Indiana, 25 from Michigan, 10 from Nebraska, 10 from Kansas, 28 from Ohio, 12 from Wisconsin, and 26 from Iowa. Recent advices from those States cut the figures down to 10 from Indiana, 3 from Nebraska, 6 from Kansas, 12 from Ohio, and leave Michigan and Wisconsin altogether doubtful, while it is quite certain that Mr. Blaine will not receive the whole Iowa vote, although he may get the majority of it. The total vote claimed for Blaine, including the erroneous estimates of the Western States, was 378. Three hundred is probably a liberal estimate of his strength after making allowance for his alleged Southern recruits. We are convinced that he will not get 32 votes from New York, or 16 from New Jersey, or 8 from Rhode Island, or 2 from Massachusetts—these being a part of the 378 which his organs have counted for him. The bragging tone which they indulged two weeks ago has moderated of late in a very noticeable way.

A week or two ago the British Minister was interviewed in Mr. Blaine's behalf, and testified, it was reported, that the election of Mr.

Blaine would be a mighty disagreeable thing for his government and its diplomatic representatives abroad, as he would make it hot for them about canals, foreign trade, and divers other matters. All this time, however, there has been no news as to the effect on the English people of "the history." In fact, the silence of Europe about the history has been rather puzzling. Not one historian of the Old World has opened his mouth about it, or given any sign that he even knew of its existence. The talk about it has been, indeed, confined to American members of the Blaine boom. This can, of course, be easily accounted for by ascribing it to jealousy. The European historians naturally fear the effect of Mr. Blaine's book on their own sales. It is not likely, in fact, that there will be much demand for Freeman's 'History of the Norman Conquest,' or for Mommsen's 'History of Rome,' when 2,000,000 copies of a really live work like 'Twenty Years in Congress' are in the market and selling like hot cakes. The London *Times* has now had the manliness to disregard insular prejudices, and publish a "first-class notice" of the American history, which will be very useful during the coming week in showing that the British dread of Mr. Blaine as a statesman is not unmingled with admiration for him as a writer. They will, in short, read him, not with moistened eyes, but shaking knees.

The movements of Secretary Chandler are watched with great interest as the time for the National Convention to meet draws near. He seems to have dropped for the time his official capacity as a member of the Cabinet, and to be operating in his old and very familiar capacity as "Bill." It is announced that by a singular coincidence he and a large number of Southern delegates will meet in Chicago early this week, and the possibilities of this accidental conference are a subject of great anxiety to both the Blaine and the Arthur managers. The former are fully aware of Bill's persuasive powers in meetings of this kind, for they had the advantage of his coöperation in former years. The latter are also aware of them, but are disturbed by rumors that Bill has never quite recovered from his Blaine infatuation, and is likely to use some of his power secretly for Blaine now. Indeed, there is a lively discussion in progress as to which side Bill is really on, and there are shrewd observers who say that he may turn out to be a Blaine man when the critical moment arrives. All speculation of this sort, while it must necessarily be disagreeable to Chandler as Secretary of the Navy, must at the same time be most flattering to him in his more congenial character as Bill. It shows that the labors of his life are fully appreciated by the public, and that, whatever else may be said of him, nobody will ever accuse him of wilfully putting himself on the side of the losing man.

The "old ticket" movement among the conservative and revenue-reform Democrats is, of course, a cover for the boom of the real candidate of the old-ticket men, whoever he may turn out to be, and is also a defensive measure against the machinations of the protectionists, the Butler Democrats, and other wicked persons who will probably show their hands early in the game. The actual nomination of Tilden cannot be seriously thought of, because he not only is himself a "tattooed" statesman, but is in such a physical condition that exposure of him to campaign charges would probably finish him. There are the cipher despatches and the income-tax suit, all of which would have to be gone into once more; and to political charges what the lawyers call *res judicata* cannot be pleaded. But the use of the old ticket as a cover is a very astute political device, and no one in this State would be very much surprised if, when it was removed, it should disclose the well-known and respected features of the present Governor of New York. The old ticket might do a far worse and more foolish thing than nominate Mr. Cleveland.

The action of the Democratic majority in Congress on Thursday, in voting to admit a contestant to a seat to which on the previous day they had voted that he had no right, was a very scandalous performance. There is no evidence that English, who is the son of the last Democratic candidate for Vice-President, was elected to the seat, and the only reason for putting him into it which appears to have been given was that his father had set his heart upon having him get it. The father was so conspicuous in lobbying for his son on Thursday that several members protested against his efforts as constituting a breach of an ex-member's privileges to the floor. Mr. Cox, however, came to his rescue with the remarkable explanation that the rule defining such privileges had been drawn by him, and that its object was to bar out ex-members who came to lobby for railway interests, but not to limit in any way the natural eagerness of a fond father who was on the floor to help forward his son's cause. There were some vague charges made that members had been bribed to change their views in the case, and suspicion hovered for several hours over "Calamity" Weller, who had voted at the outset against English, but who was suddenly called away before the final ballot was taken. These are generally believed to be unfounded, however, and the most common view of the matter is that the Democratic members voted to give English the seat out of sheer inability to avoid a blunder.

According to a Chicago despatch, the Convention next week is to be marked by a total absence of "headquarters." This is as nearly incredible as any political story can be, for in the case of a candidate who has accumulated any considerable amount of strength in advance, and who has a large number of delegates in his favor, a headquarters—in other words, a large suite of rooms in a hotel where meetings can be held, and plots hatched for capturing delegates, transferring strength, and getting early and reliable information as to the "break"—have hitherto been considered an absolute necessity in a contest of this sort. One great function of a headquarters is that it furnishes a rallying point to which the supporters of a candidate can retire in the intervals of the fight, count noses, talk matters over, form estimates of what the next vote will show, receive visits from other delegations, prepare to transfer strength, etc., etc. A headquarters is generally believed to be worth a good many votes to any candidate, and as this is true of all the candidates, it would be difficult for one of them to abandon the custom unless all the rest did so too. Blaine and Logan giving up their headquarters without Arthur doing the same would be like Gladstone and Ferry disarming England and France without Bismarck doing as much in Germany.

That the story should be circulated and find believers, seems to imply very strongly what we have all along contended with regard to some of the great men before the Convention, that their booms are singularly factitious, and that the promoters of them know this to be the case. There has been very little real "pledging" in advance this year, and three-quarters of the Convention will go to Chicago without being openly bound to any one, and with a certain unwillingness to brand themselves in advance with the badge of a particular candidate, and with a burning desire to find out simply who is the man who is going to be able to get the most votes. Out of these circumstances, the story (which we find in an Arthur paper) must have originated. The delegates are supposed to feel that they are in a better position to find out where they are, and what the "lay of the land" is, by simply appearing as delegates from Pennsylvania or New York, as the case may be, rather than as Arthur, Blaine, or Logan delegates. If there is any candidate before the Convention who only counts on a majority of the votes as the result of quiet intrigue and bargains and deals, and is, therefore, anxious to prevent too much publicity in advance, it might be a good plan for him to get headquarters abolished, at any rate until after the second or third ballot, when, the work of "subsoiling" the doubtful delegations having been done, he might suddenly develop a sort of a temporary headquarters in the Field, and come in with the Gallery at his back and the dark horses nowhere. It would be all of a piece with other things that such candidates have done before now. For ourselves, we insist that the good old American custom of headquarters ought to be kept up, and we rely upon the thoughtful recluse of Washington, who must desire to preserve all the best traditions of the Government, and the grim warrior of Illinois, to whom the very name of headquarters must be as a bugle-call, to see to it that the proposed innovation is not attempted.

The Senate Post-office Committee, in their report on postal telegraphy, say that in their belief the lines of the Western Union Telegraph Company could be duplicated at the present time for the sum of $24,500,000, including the cost of instruments and batteries. They go on to say that "the swollen capitalization of the Western Union has created at one and the same time a cover and an inducement and in some senses a necessity for excessive charges for telegrams. So long as and so far as the public have been made to believe that the nominal capital was a real one, it has tended to

cause an acquiescence in excessive charges, while the exposure of the actual nature of the nominal capital does not diminish the pressure of the motives which impel the managers of the company to keep up charges which are essential to the maintenance of the present dividends upon the immense mass of its watered stock." This is undoubtedly true, but it is true also that the "water" is going out of Western Union at a rapid rate, without any squeezing on the part of Congress. The stock of the company sold above par after the consolidation with the American Union. During the past week it was quoted at 53. At this rate the whole property, including the valuable real estate which it owns, was worth $42,400,000, or only $17,900,000 more than the Committee estimate to be the probable cost of duplicating the poles, wires, and instruments. The truth is that the monopoly character of the Western Union Company has ceased to exist, and, whether Congress establishes a Postal Telegraph or not, the public will soon get their telegraphing done at what the service is fairly worth. The "water" in Western Union may serve to point a moral or adorn a tale, but it will do no further harm to any except those who have invested their money in the water.

A bill has been reported by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to pay off and redeem the first mortgages on the Union and Central Pacific Railways and their subsidized branches, in the event of such default as would bring the property to foreclosure under the first mortgage. The object of this is to protect the Government's second mortgage and accrued interest on the same property. The opposition to the bill, based upon the notion that it is opposed to the Government's proper duties and functions to own and operate railways, comes too late. That would have been a valid argument in 1862, when the subsidy was granted, and again in 1864, when the Government's mortgage was postponed and made subject to another mortgage of equal amount. The question is no longer one of mixing up the Government's interests with private interests, but of saving money already spent—saving it in the only way still open. Upon this there can hardly be two honest opinions. There is no reason yet to suppose that default will be made on any of the first mortgages, but it is altogether prudent to clothe the Executive with power to meet such a contingency.

Ex-Senator Kellogg, of Louisiana, is in search of a "vindication," and is much grieved because Congress, of which he is now a member, declines to give it to him. The grounds of the refusal are, that when Mr. Kellogg had an opportunity to prove his innocence in court he allowed the statute of limitations to be pleaded as an excuse for discontinuing the trial; that the charges against him relate to acts committed before his election to Congress, and are therefore outside its cognizance. Mr. Kellogg made a long speech insisting upon an investigation, saying that his character had been injured by testimony made before the Springer Investigating Committee; that he was a victim of the malice of wicked men; that he could prove his innocence; and that, if he had violated any laws, he could show that other Congressmen had done the same thing and had not been punished. The sincerity of his desire for investigation was painfully impeached by a statement from one of his Democratic colleagues from Louisiana, to the effect that he had been trying for weeks to induce Kellogg to demand an inquiry, and had only succeeded in persuading him to make the demand on Friday by threatening to do it himself in case he refused longer. The lack of a "vindication" to a sensitive man like Kellogg is of course hard to bear, but he ought to console himself with the reflection that his reputation cannot be injured by anything which Congress may say or decline to say about it.

The whiskey dealers, having failed in getting aid from Congress in carrying their large stocks, have formed a pool, railroad fashion, to keep prices up; but now the pool is suffering from the old trouble—the secret "cutting of rates" by selfish and perfidious men. There are sad accounts from Chicago and Cincinnati of the treachery of some of the members in selling below the pool price of $1 11 a gallon. The chances are said to be now that the pool will go to pieces this summer if the consumption does not increase.

A worse way to get out of financial difficulties than that which appears to have been adopted by the Reading Railroad can hardly be imagined. They are going to issue scrip to pay wages, while their credit is seriously impaired, and although the employees do not at all like the plan. Mr. Gowen declares that there will be no trouble, because the scrip will be taken up by some capitalist who will pay par for it. If this is so, why talk about issuing scrip to pay wages at all? On the other hand, if it is not so, what is the use of pretending that it is so? The employees of the road know perfectly well, or ought to know, that a receiver could be ordered to pay such current obligations in cash; and the talk about scrip wages can only tend to make creditors think about a receivership.

A curious case has arisen in France connected with the collapse of the Union Générale. Vicomte de la Panouse was "squeezed" in the crash, could not meet his contracts, and got one Bacot, a broker, to pay his differences for him to the amount of 600,000 francs, giving him twelve bills of 50,000 francs each. La Panouse afterwards repudiated these as a gambling transaction, and his view was sustained by the courts. Bacot, however, kept the bills, and this so irritated Panouse that he brought an action to compel their return to him as necessary to "protect" himself against them, and actually recovered judgment. This may be good law in France, but would seem to be covered in this country by the rule that in disputes wholly outside the law the possessor of the property has the better right. Why a court of justice should bother itself with the "protection" of a gambler who repudiates his debts of honor, it is hard to see.

The demand for higher duties on grain and other agricultural products in France calls forth some solemn words of warning from M. Leroy-Beaulieu. He says that while part of the agricultural depression is due to a succession of bad harvests and the phylloxera, by far the greater part of it is due to things which no increase of duties will cure, such as heavy taxation, the drafting off of agricultural labor to unprofitable public works, and the turning of the heads of the younger generation of the farming population by over-education in the public schools. He ridicules the idea that any government will dare to raise duties to the point which, in the absence of other remedies, would protect the French farmer from foreign competition. Grain producers are suffering from the supplies of new countries and the low rates of freight both by sea and land, and the beet-sugar men from the superiority of the German beet-root in saccharine properties.

Late public utterances of General Gurko, the Governor of the Kingdom of Poland, or, as the Russians prefer to call it, the Vistula Country, show that, in the midst of all its troubles and anxieties, the Russian Government not only steadily adheres to its old schemes of denationalizing its Polish territories, but is now bent on precipitating the process. The recent restoration of friendly relations with the Berlin Government offers a favorable opportunity, and there is an obvious inclination to punish the Poles for their late endeavor to foment discord and sow suspicions tween the two Governments. Gurko's occasional brief addresses to leading members of the Polish clergy or nobility are very severe in tone, and the comments of his official organ, the *Warsaw Journal*, exasperating. A provocation which is novel even in Warsaw, is the partial surrender of the principal theatre of that metropolis to a company of Russian players, in order to accelerate the course of Russianization, of which the exclusive use of the Russian language in schools and public offices has hitherto been the main instrument. All this, as the result obviously shows, is much more galling than effective. The patriotic resistance of the Poles is unremittent, and is both encouraged and strengthened by the opposite course of events in neighboring Galicia, or Austrian Poland, where the demands of the Polish nationality are more and more yielded to by the organs of the Imperial Government, in almost pure indifference to the antagonistic claims of the Ruthene population. These opposite currents of official influence in two adjoining parts of ancient Poland, under the clear direction of Governments formerly equally detested by their Polish subjects and now united in apparent friendship, are an interesting phenomenon in the history of our times. In the third division of Poland, the Prussian, the attitude of the Government toward the Poles is unfriendly, often rudely so, but mainly on account of their political alliance with the Ultramontanes. But here, too, the Polish nationality is not losing ground, as Bismarck himself, some time ago, frankly admitted.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 21, to TUESDAY, May 27, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

WALL STREET on Wednesday was feverish and excited, prices being rapidly forced down. At 10:40 o'clock the suspension of J. L. Brownell & Co. was announced. It is believed that their liabilities are not more than $150,000.

The Penn Bank, of Pittsburgh, one of the largest in that city, suspended on Wednesday after a run of five days, during which more than a half a million dollars of deposits were withdrawn. The bank is believed to be perfectly solvent and resumed payment on Friday, but on Monday again closed its doors, alleging, as the cause, that President Riddle had been taken suddenly and seriously ill.

Ferdinand Ward, of the firm of Grant & Ward, was arrested late on Wednesday afternoon on an order issued on the application of Mr. John R. Dos Passos, counsel for County Chamberlain J. Nelson Tappan, in a suit to recover $320,000, alleged to have been obtained by Mr. Ward on false pretences. The amount of bail fixed by the Court was $300,000. Mr. Ward passed the night at a hotel in the custody of a deputy sheriff, and has since been in Ludlow Street Jail.

The course of the market on Thursday was steadily downward.

On Friday it became known that Charles A. Hinckley, paying teller of the West Side Bank, Eighth Avenue and Thirty-fourth Street, in this city, had disappeared on May 15, and about $95,000 of the bank's funds were found to be missing. It is supposed that they were lost in speculations at the Produce Exchange. The Directors issued a statement on Friday evening that their capital stock was intact, and that they had a surplus of about $100,000 to the bank's credit. During Saturday there was a run on the bank, and about 1 o'clock it closed its doors, owing to the refusal of the American Exchange Bank to make further "clearings" for it.

Business was dull on Saturday at the Stock Exchange, and about noon there was a slight rally in prices.

James D. Fish, President of the Marine National Bank, was arrested on Sunday evening in his rooms. The warrant was issued by United States Commissioner Shields on an affidavit sworn to by Bank Examiner Scriba. It charges Mr. Fish with "unlawfully misapplying certain sums of money, to the amount of $1,400,000 of the moneys and funds of the Marine National Banking Association, to his own use, benefit, and advantage, with intent to injure and defraud such association." Mr. Fish made a remarkable statement to a reporter, alleging that he had an autograph letter from General Grant, asserting that all the Government contracts of the Grant & Ward firm were genuine, and that the alleged profits were all right. Mr. Fish furnished bail on Monday for $30,000. Warrants are also out for the arrest of John C. Eno, late President of the Second National Bank, but he has eluded the officers.

General Grant's counsel have furnished letters for publication, in view of the serious statement made by James D. Fish. One of the letters from General Grant to Mr. Fish is an acknowledgment of his status as a general partner in the firm. The other is a brief letter which was written by Ward, copied by an employee of the firm, and handed to General Grant for his signature. He did not scrutinize it, but signed it on the assurance that it was only an ordinary letter in the course of business. It is addressed to Mr. Fish, and reads: "In relation to the matter of discount kindly made by you for account of Grant & Ward, I would say that I think the investments are safe, and I am willing that Mr. Ward should derive what profit he can for the firm that the use of my name and influence may bring." This letter Mr. Fish's friends claim was in reply to one from Mr. Fish, in which he mentioned that he had endorsed and discounted notes for Grant & Ward to the amount of $200,000, and added: "These notes, as I understand it, are given for no other purpose than to raise money for the payment of grain, etc., purchased to fill the Government contracts." General Grant's friends, on the other hand, assert that he believed that the letter was wholly disconnected from the preceding correspondence. A friend of Mr. Fish's said that the latter made no charge of wilful deception against General Grant, but simply defended himself from the charge of being a conspirator with Ward, by whom he had been deceived and ruined. General Grant had also been deceived by the same person.

The Secretary of the Treasury issued on Thursday the 128th call for the redemption of bonds. It is for ten million 3 per cents, and matures June 30th.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday, by a vote of 121 to 117, adopted the minority report in the Peelle-English contested election case, which gives the seat to Peelle (Rep.). The House then adjourned while a motion to reconsider was pending. On Thursday morning the motion to reconsider was carried by 133 to 130. The Republicans endeavored to recommit the case to the Elections Committee, but were defeated by ten votes. Mr. Horr (Rep., Mich.) stated that W. A. English, father of the contestant, had grossly violated the rules of the House in actively working in his son's interest, and ought to be excluded from the floor. This caused great excitement, and Mr. Randall defended the elder English. At length a resolution to give young Mr. English Mr. Peelle's seat in the House prevailed by a vote of 130 to 127, twenty-nine Democrats voting in the negative. A resolution was adopted appointing a committee to inquire into the alleged lobbying.

Ex-Senator Kellogg asked the House of Representatives on Friday to investigate his alleged connection with the Star-route service. The resolution was referred.

The House Committee on Civil-Service Reform on Thursday unanimously directed a favorable report on the bill introduced by Mr. Long, of Massachusetts, to repeal the Tenure of Office Acts. To this is attached an amendment repealing the sections of the Revised Statutes which fix the term of office of certain officers at four years.

The Senate Judiciary Committee on Monday reported the following amendment to the Constitution of the United States: "Article II. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. The President and Vice President hereafter elected shall hold their offices for the term of six years, but the President shall not be re-eligible, nor shall the Vice-President be eligible to the office of President if he shall have exercised the same in the case of vacancy therein."

J. W. Elder, one of ex-Speaker Keifer's witnesses in the Keifer Boynton matter, has presented the ex-Speaker with a bill for $350 (less $70 received) for "services in looking up witnesses," and has written him a letter demanding payment.

The New Hampshire Democratic State Convention on Wednesday adopted a platform demanding a reduction of the war tariff, and insisting that there shall be no cessation of efforts until the revenue system is re-established on a just and honest basis, and calling for a thorough reform in tariff, financial, and administrative affairs. No instructions were given to the delegates elected, but the unanimous sentiment of the Convention was for the "old ticket."

On Thursday the Nebraska Democratic Convention elected Tilden delegates-at-large, and advocated a revision of the tariff which "shall limit it to the production of the necessary revenues of the Government, economically administered."

On Wednesday afternoon the New York Democratic State Committee met at Albany and called the State Convention to meet at Saratoga on June 18. The members expressed strong Tilden sentiments.

General B. F. Butler has accepted the nomination of the Anti-Monopoly party for President.

President William Endicott, jr., of the Oregon and Transcontinental Company, has resigned on account of ill health, and Elijah Smith has been chosen as his successor.

There have been great rains in Texas, extending from the Red River to the Gulf, more than 500 miles north and south, and from the Louisiana and Arkansas line westward 250 miles. The damage to the crops and railroads is estimated at five million dollars. Hundreds of miles of track were submerged.

A colossal bronze statue of Martin Luther was unveiled in Washington on Wednesday. There were addresses by the Rev. Dr. J. G. Morris, of Baltimore, and Senator Conger, of Michigan.

The shore end of the Bennett-Mackey cable was laid at Rockport, Mass., on Thursday, amid the great enthusiasm of the collected people.

There was a collision near Rochester on the New York Central about midnight on Thursday, between the St. Louis express and a freight train on the Auburn branch, which crosses the main track at Brighton. Seven sleeping cars were thrown from the track, and twenty persons more or less seriously injured, among the latter being the Japanese Prince Imperial and his suite.

The Council of the Nebraska Diocese of the Protestant Episcopal Church has elected the Rev. Dr. Worthington, of Detroit, Bishop of Nebraska, in place of the late Bishop Clarkson.

Thomas P. Grinnell, a millionaire of this city, shot and killed himself on Friday, about midnight, in his bed-room. His friends believe that it was accidental.

Ex-Judge Welcome R. Beebe was killed by the cars on Thursday at Evona Station, near Plainfield, N. J., while waiting for a train to New York. He was seventy five years of age and had practised before the United States Courts for fifty years. He was considered among the very best admiralty lawyers at the bar.

FOREIGN.

An important naval expedition will start from Cairo immediately for Assuan in three Egyptian Government Nile steamers. Lieut.-General Sir John Adye will command the expedition which is now preparing to go to Khartum. The route to be taken will depend on the success of Admiral Hewett's mission to Abyssinia. General Lord Wolseley will command an expedition in the early autumn which will land at Suakim and march to Berber. Private contractors or the War Office will begin in June to construct a military railway across the desert, which is considered quite indispensable. It is reported that England has proposed to the Porte to despatch troops to the Sudan to coöperate with Lord Wolseley's column.

A slightly different rumor on Saturday was that England had suggested to the Porte to send 12,000 troops to land at Suakim, march to Khartum, attack El Mahdi and re-establish order in the Sudan, and then withdraw with the English garrison, leaving a Pashalik of the Nile dependencies subject to the Sultan's sovereignty. This has not been confirmed.

Lord Dufferin has stipulated that if Turkish troops are despatched to Suakim, English officers must command them, England to pay all expenses and to have sole control during the period of the withdrawal of the Turks from

the Sudan. The Sultan declines this proposition, and has also refused to send 10,000 troops to coöperate with the English in the Sudan. It was reported from Cairo on Sunday that the rebels had captured Dabbeh. Bodies of Arabs of the desert are on their way to attack Assiut and Assuan.

It is believed to be settled that the Egyptian Conference will meet on June 23. According to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, France asked that England should first consent to place Egypt under international control. Earl Granville, Foreign Secretary of State, objected to this so long as the British military occupation of Egypt should continue. At that, France asked that the duration of the English occupation should be limited, and renewed its demand for an immediate international control. Earl Granville, in answer to this, named five years as a minimum for English occupation, and insisted on a postponement of the proposed international control until after the English had withdrawn from the country. But France steadfastly adhered to its previous demand, until at last Earl Granville offered to consent to the principle of multiple control, provided it should be disguised. France accepted this, caring little for the shadow, but anxious for the substance. France then desired to limit English occupation to three years, and it is asserted that England consented, and also agreed to an international board with supreme authority over Egyptian finances. Italy supported France in her demands.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday Mr. Gladstone said that no agreement would be concluded with France without reference to other Powers. He again declared that the Egyptian Conference would be limited to a discussion of the financial situation. Earl Granville, in the House of Lords, said the Government had no intention of employing Turkish troops in connection with a British army for the reconquest of the Sudan.

It was reported on Saturday that the negotiations between Admiral Hewett and King John of Abyssinia had failed, El Mahdi having promised the King a large coast district, including Massowah and several harbors, upon condition that he would remain neutral.

It was asserted in Cairo, on Thursday, that the Governor of Dongola, whose loyalty had been questioned, had sent a despatch to General Gordon in which he said he despaired of relief being sent him, and had determined to become an ally of the Mussulmans' cause. The report was not believed. El Mahdi is at El Rabat, and he has ordered his followers to bring General Gordon to El Obeid alive. It is believed that he desires to ask a heavy ransom.

In the House of Commons on Friday, Mr. Gladstone stated that no definite news had been received concerning affairs at Berber and Dongola, but the reports were reassuring.

On Friday the British Government decided to reinforce the Governor of Dongola to the extent of 1,000 rifles, his loyalty having been established.

The Governor of Dongola telegraphed on Tuesday that he had visited the disturbed districts and had persuaded the people to remain quiet. The tribes have consented to pay their taxes. The Governor engaged to pacify the entire Sudan if several thousand troops were sent him. He has retaken Dabbeh.

Reports have reached Korosko that Berber has not surrendered, but hostilities have been suspended, as the Governor of Berber agrees to surrender the town when Khartum surrenders. El Mahdi is prevented from leaving Kordofan, owing to the hostility of several tribes.

Sir Henry Gordon, in an interview on Monday, said the latest news received from General Gordon was to the effect that he had no fear as to his personal safety. He could leave Khartum by a safe route any day, but would not until a better government in the Eastern Sudan had been established and the safety of the inhabitants from the rebels assured. General Gordon considered that a large British expedition was needless. He only wanted a few hundred English troops to coöperate with the gunboats after the rising of the Nile to clear the country of rebels from Berber to Khartum.

Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Prime Minister, insists that no Europeans shall be employed by the Ministry of the Interior. Mr. Clifford Lloyd's nominees will be dismissed. That gentleman has permanently retired from Egypt. The resignation of Abd el Kader Pasha, Minister of War, is considered imminent.

In the House of Commons, on Wednesday, the bill amending the Irish Laborers' Act of 1883 was rejected by a vote of 138 to 75. Mr. Parnell said the Government must not find fault if it should meet with a little retaliation. "Does the Government," he asked, "mean to wait until the laborers burn the houses over the heads of dissenting landlords? The laborers have been patient; but it is intolerable that they should continue to live upon mud floors until a commission has investigated their grievances."

Colonel Stanley's amendment to postpone further consideration of the Franchise Bill in the House of Commons until after a redistribution bill should have been passed, was rejected on Friday by a vote of 276 to 182.

The Committee of the House of Lords to which the Manchester Ship Canal Bill was referred, resolved on Friday to pass the bill, provided that the stock issue of £5,000,000 should be subscribed before the work was begun. Three hours after this announcement was made the necessary stock issue was subscribed.

Two Frenchmen from Calais were arrested on Monday morning at Charing Cross Railway Station. Their luggage contained a quantity of explosives, together with what were supposed to be infernal machines. They declared that they intended to use the explosives for blasting purposes. One was released on nominal bail and the other was discharged.

The festival in celebration of the five-hundredth anniversary of the death of John Wycliffe, the English reformer and translator of the Bible, was begun on Wednesday, May 21, at St. Andrew's Church, Blackfriars, London. This church is on the site of the monastery where the Pope's bull against Wycliffe was read. There was a choral service by various religious societies, a sermon by the Bishop of Liverpool, and a conference at the Mansion House, at which the Lord Mayor presided. A number of eminent gentlemen spoke. The celebration was concluded in the evening with a great meeting in Exeter Hall. The Earl of Shaftesbury made an address.

The Duke of Marlborough has made an offer to the director of the British National Gallery of eleven of the best pictures in the collection at Blenheim Palace for £367,500. The Duke has applied to the Court of Chancery for permission to sell his pictures, and the offer is made subject to his gaining that. The Treasury has declined to recommend the purchase.

The steamship *Oregon*, of the Guion Line, which recently made the fastest transatlantic trip on record, has been purchased by the Cunard Company.

The American Lacrosse Team defeated the Lancashires at Manchester, England, on Wednesday, by a score of 4 goals to 0. On Saturday they defeated the North of England Club, by 5 goals to 0.

A bill will be introduced in the German Bundesrath increasing the taxes on Bourse and other financial operations. It imposes a percentage of duty amounting to two-tenths per 1,000 on all money bargains. The German Liberal papers violently attack the bill. They say it is calculated to interfere with speculation and injure the investment market. The feeling in commercial circles is one of indignation.

The Paris *Voltaire* published a letter on Monday, from Brussels, which said that Belgium and Holland had agreed to exclude the German Princes from succession to the Dutch throne. The report was denied in Brussels.

Prime Minister Ferry introduced on Saturday in the French Chamber of Deputies a bill for the revision of the Constitution. It proposes that the office of Senator shall not be life-long, but that the term shall be for nine years. The bill is not retrospective. The number of Senators and delegates with whom the election of ordinary Senators rests is to be increased in proportion to the number of the Municipal Councillors. The financial powers of the Senate are to be modified, and prayers at the opening of the Legislature are to be abolished. Clause 8 of the law of February 25, 1875, is to be revised so as to provide that in no case shall a revision touch the stability of the Republic.

The new Customs Bill which the French Government will introduce in the Chamber of Deputies leaves the tax on wheat the same as at present, in order to facilitate an increase of the public supply in case the national production shall be deficient. The duty on all other cereals is increased to 3 francs 75 centimes per hundred kilogrammes.

The Bonapartist papers in Paris attach considerable importance to Prince Victor's decision to leave the house of his father, Prince Jerome (Plon Plon) and reside in his own private apartments. This action is deemed a definite rupture between them. Prince Victor denies that he has quarrelled with his father.

The Paris *République* repeats a story that Mr. Morton, the American Minister, lately received the Comte de Paris with royal honors, and invited many prominent enemies of the Republic to meet him. It is, nowever, explained that the Comte de Paris was present at Mr. Morton's ball as an ex-officer of the American army, having served on Gen. McClellan's staff in the civil war.

Tamatave advices of May 9 state that General Miot has notified the foreign consuls that a blockade will soon be declared along the entire coast of Madagascar. The Hovas are still in force near the French lines. The French refuse further negotiations, insisting upon their protectorate already demanded. The French Government has decided to send a Resident to Madagascar.

Sarah Bernhardt appeared in Paris for the first time as *Lady Macbeth* on Wednesday night. She acted with great power, it is said, in the sleep-walking scene, and the whole performance was a success. The French version of the play is severely criticised.

Mlle. Colombier, the French actress, has been sentenced to three months' imprisonment and to pay a fine of $200 for her book about Sarah Bernhardt, entitled 'Sarah Barnum.'

In the Italian Senate on Thursday Signor Mancini, Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that the law passed affecting the Propaganda must be fulfilled. He hoped soon to introduce a bill definitely regulating church property, in which it would be possible to introduce a stipulation favorable to the Propaganda.

The floods in the southeastern provinces about Murcia and Alicante, Spain, are becoming alarming. Whole towns have been cut off, and the crops over a large extent of country have been completely destroyed. Many families have been rendered homeless.

The Servian Skupshtina was opened on Thursday with a speech from the throne by King Milan. He announced that bills would be introduced looking to the freedom of the press and the right of public meeting.

Sir Richard Cartwright, the Finance Minister in the late Mackenzie Government, and a prominent leader in the present Opposition, delivered a political address in Toronto on Wednesday, in the course of which he advocated the advisability of Canadian independence, a sentiment which the audience cheered.

AFFAIRS IN WALL STREET.

When the Wall Street panic broke out, we remarked that the conditions of trade and industry throughout the country were not those which commonly precede and usher in a commercial crisis, and that the signs pointed merely to a local trouble, which would not reach far beyond the circles of stock speculation. The course of events has confirmed this view of the situation. The explosion in Wall Street has had no answering echo anywhere. It has fallen upon general business with no more rebound than a blow upon a mass of putty. General business had already gone through its crisis. The slow shrinkage of three years had left little or nothing for a bank panic to work upon. The bank panic was for this reason short-lived. Banks are merely agencies for conducting and expediting general business. There can be no protracted or considerable panic among them which is not fed by troubles outside of themselves. Stock dealings cut only a small figure in their affairs, and defalcations are few and inconsequential when we look at the whole mass of the capital and "turn-over" of the banks. The dangerous side of stock failures and defalcations is their tendency to start a run on the banks by frightened depositors.

Possibly such a run was averted by the action taken by the Clearing-house in issuing "loan certificates" to settle balances between the banks. This device was first introduced in the panic of 1873, when the conditions of general trade were in the highest degree favorable to a commercial crisis—when every species of inflation had reached the bursting point. As the loan certificates were effectual at that time, so far at least as to keep the banks open and business moving, it was certain that they would be effectual at this time. It is plain that they will not be required much longer, and it is doubtful whether they are really needed now. At all events they are not increasing but diminishing in amount. Banks in the interior which habitually keep balances in New York have, to a large extent, drawn them out, in anticipation, perhaps, of a run on themselves, but as they have no real use at this season of the year for their surplus, they will shortly send the money back. The local run, if there was one to be apprehended, has ceased to menace the city banks, while in the country at large there has been no disturbance whatever outside of the narrow limits of speculation in stocks and oil.

The trouble, such as it is, is confined to the Stock Exchange, and here it seems to have gone further than the facts really warrant. Probably we have not seen the end yet. Probably some classes of securities are destined to go lower, but the pressure exerted upon the whole list by the sympathy of the good with the bad must be nearly exhausted. It was seen six months ago that the coal companies must yield sooner or later to the lessened demand for iron. They were held up by main strength, while the railroad companies, which relied upon general traffic, were tumbling right and left under the effect of low rates and excessive competition. It is only within a short time that the coal stocks began to give way. They may give way still more, and they may carry other things down to a lower deep by breeding further distrust among investors, but it is time to call a halt in the mad sacrifice of property which has been going on so long. The insensate character of the panic is illustrated by the fact that railroads which show an increase of earnings—a steady increase betokening a real turn of the tide—have suffered heavily in the stock market from day to day with scarcely an intermission. The *Financial Chronicle* cites St. Paul, Northwestern, Omaha, Northern Pacific, St. Louis and San Francisco, and several minor roads as glaring instances of declining values in the face of increasing receipts. Obviously somebody must reap a harvest from the groundless fears of those who are throwing good things overboard, merely because they see others throwing bad or doubtful things overboard. The want of discrimination among investors is as wonderful in seasons of depression as in times of prosperity, and is as marked among large capitalists and old stagers as among greenhorns and patrons of the bucket-shops. There is no aristocracy in a panic.

The disposition to throw overboard good stocks as well as bad has been intensified by the multiplication of parallel and competing lines of railway, whose effect in many instances, and whose tendency always, is to impair the value of old dividend-paying lines and to ruin the promoters of the new lines as well. The country is too full of instances in point to call for specification, but the latest and one of the most glaring may be found in the rivalry of the Union Pacific and the Denver and Rio Grande. No cure for this form of mutual destruction has yet been devised. No one will affirm that it is a good thing for the country that its railways should cease to bring a return to those who have honestly invested their money in them. Even the most confirmed Granger will acknowledge that this is an undesirable state of things. Yet the capitalist classes have brought it about. They are primarily responsible for the depreciation of good securities now going on as well as for the massacre of poor ones. The holders of St. Paul and Northwestern & Illinois Central, when they see Union Pacific fall thirty points in three weeks in consequence of paralleling, infer that their own roads may be paralleled in like manner, and they hasten to get rid of their shares while they may. Of course there is a great lack of discrimination and ignorance of geography in such a rush. But there are some cool heads left, and it will probably be seen in the course of the next thirty days that they have been picking up gold pieces which others have been recklessly throwing away.

GRANT, WARD, AND FISH.

Late on Monday General Grant's counsel reached the inevitable conclusion that they would give to the press the correspondence between him and James D. Fish, touching the business of the firm of Grant & Ward, of which Fish furnished some account in an interview with the reporter of the *Tribune* on Saturday. The letters appeared in the morning papers of Tuesday. To understand them it is necessary to remember that the assumption that the firm of Grant & Ward had large and highly profitable Government contracts, was for nearly two years the basis of their swindling operations; that it was from this source that their dupes supposed they were deriving their enormous gains; that when the exposure came, it was alleged on behalf of General Grant and his sons that they knew nothing of these Government contracts—that Ward managed the business, and this business they supposed to be a legitimate one of stock and money brokerage. When the inquiry began to be made who were Ward's real confederates, if he had any, public opinion fastened on Fish, the then President of the Marine Bank, he being a large endorser of the paper of the firm and a participator in the alleged profits.

Fish, being arrested, and threatened with criminal proceedings, is now standing at bay, and is defending himself, as it is his natural right to do, with every weapon within his reach. He says that he did not enter the firm of Grant & Ward and begin to share in its risks without proper inquiry; that when he found himself an endorser of the notes of the firm to the extent of $200,000, he wrote a letter to General Grant, in which he called attention to this fact, saying that the amount of his liability was "not trifling for him," and adding:

"It is necessary that the credit of G. & W should deservedly stand very high.

"These notes, as I understand it, are given for no other purpose than to raise money for the payment of grain, etc., purchased to fill the Government contracts. Under the circumstances, my dear General, you will see that it is of most vital importance to me particularly that the credit of the firm shall always be untarnished and unimpaired. I will be happy to meet you at almost any time you may name to talk these matters over."

This letter was dated July 5, 1882. It will be observed that it called General Grant's attention explicitly to the existence of the Government contracts, as being, in Fish's opinion, the basis of the firm's operations and the source of their credit. General Grant answered, the following day:

"New York City, July 6, 1882.

"My Dear Mr. Fish: On my arrival in the city this A. M., I find your letter of yesterday with a letter from Thomas L. James, President of the Lincoln National Bank, and copy of your reply to the latter. Your understanding in regard to our liabilities in the firm of Grant & Ward is the same as mine. If you desire it I am entirely willing that the advertisement of the firm shall be so changed as to express this. Not having been in the city for more than a week, I have a large accumulated mail to look over, and some business appointments to meet, so that I may not be able to get down to see you to-day. But if I can I will go before 3 o'clock.

"Very truly yours, U. S. Grant."

This, it will be seen, contains no denial of the assumption about the contracts, nor any expression of surprise on hearing of it. On the same day a formal letter was sent to Fish from the office of the firm, which must be regarded as the real answer to Fish's inquiries about the contracts, and was signed by General Grant:

"NEW YORK, July 6, 1882.

"MY DEAR MR. FISH: In relation to the matter of discount kindly made by you for account of Grant & Ward, I would say that I think the investments are safe, and I am willing that Mr. Ward should derive what profit he can for the firm that the use of my name and influence may bring. Yours very truly, U. S. GRANT."

It is due to Fish to say, that he certainly was justified in regarding this communication as an affirmation by General Grant that the contracts existed, and that Fish was warranted in relying on them as security for his notes, and also as an intimation that the contracts were procured, and likely to be sustained, through General Grant's "influence." Of course this ought not to have satisfied a man of Fish's age and experience. He ought not to have been willing to share in the profits of contracts such as he supposed these to be, without more inquiry. But we are not seeking to make Fish out an honest man. We are simply showing that he was not as dishonest as he has been supposed to be. He confesses himself a party to an operation which he must have known was in some manner, or at some stage, tainted with fraud. The president of a New York bank can hardly be such a simpleton as to suppose that honest contracts for hay and oats with the United States Government yield 10 or 20 per cent. a month profits. But he has apparently vindicated himself against the charge of joining Ward in concocting a story about contracts which had absolutely no foundation, for the purpose of defrauding investors.

It is, of course, easy to believe, from what the world already knows of the ease with which General Grant is imposed on by persons who have once acquired his confidence, that he was deceived by Ward about the amount of his profits from Government contracts or any other source; but that he should have been deceived by him to the extent of supposing the firm to be maintained in great prosperity by Government contracts which had absolutely no existence except in Ward's imagination, is something which the public will hear with painful surprise. It will, too, try even General Grant's warmest friends greatly to learn that he was willing to participate, or assist others in participating, in contracts with the Government of which he was once the honored head, from which it was possible for the contractor to make 120 or 240 per cent. per annum, in such articles as hay and oats. It would seem as if it was his duty, on hearing of such profits, to warn the departments at Washington that they were in some manner being defrauded or overreached.

HASTY NAVAL LEGISLATION.

IT would be interesting to know how many members of Congress understood the real effect of the bill abolishing the grade of junior ensign in the navy which passed the House of Representatives without opposition last Saturday. Nothing could be simpler on the face than the provisions of the bill as explained by the Naval Committee. Those graduates of the Naval Academy who were assigned to the line, had to accept a salary of $1,000 for several years, while their associates, inferior in academic standing, who were made assistant engineers, commanded a salary of $1,700. Thus the singular anomaly was presented of the lower graduates getting the higher pay. Not a single member present had the readiness to inquire whether there was any obstacle to the best graduate getting the $1,700-appointment. No one, even of the Naval Committee, seemed to know that if the best graduate got the place of lower pay and rank, it was either through his own choice or by the arbitrary act of his superiors. We shall try to explain the anomaly.

The engineers have heretofore been the picked technical corps of the navy proper. On them has devolved the important duty of planning and designing the engines of all our ships of war. This duty demands a higher grade of natural ability, scientific knowledge, technical skill, and close study than any other which the navy requires. Recognizing the necessity of securing the best talent for the performance of this duty, and the imperfections of candidates for the service who had not been specially trained, the Navy Department established, a few years ago, a special class of cadet engineers at the Naval Academy. The examinations for admission to this class were far higher in grade than for the regular cadets, so that none but picked men from our schools were able to pass it. Thus the corps of assistant engineers was being recruited with a class of men who, in native talent and intellectual training, were far above the requirements of their grades. In a few years the new blood would have reached the upper grades, and the chief engineers would have been better qualified for the important duties required of them than ever before.

Such was the prospective state of things when the separate corps of cadet engineers was abolished by the Naval Bill a couple of years ago. Of course the effect was to abolish at a stroke the whole system of special and superior training for the corps; the entrance examination was the same for all, and this meant that the higher standard was abolished, and not that the lower one was raised. That such a causeless cessation of a system of superior training should have been allowed to pass unchallenged, is not creditable to any of the parties concerned. That no effort to stop it should have been made by the men of high rank among the engineers, is particularly suggestive of shortsightedness. The system cost nothing, and the only possible objection to it was that there was no need of such training for men performing the duties of engineers. There we reach the kernel of the whole matter. It has long been maintained by men of high rank in the line of the navy that there was no real need of a scientifically educated corps of naval engineers. All that was wanted was a body of skilled mechanics, who could manage and run the engine and repair it when necessary. There is no "high science" needed in this duty—only mechanical training and such precepts as can be condensed in an engineer's pocket-book. In a word, it was desired that the officer who commanded the ship should know better how to design her engines than the man whose duty it was to run the engine. As a further step in the same direction, it was proposed to abolish the Bureau of Steam-Engineering in the Navy Department, and consolidate its duties with those of the Bureau of Construction. This would do away with the last vestige of a necessity for a highly trained corps of engineers, by leaving that corps nothing to do but run and repair engines designed by their superiors.

But there was still a serious obstacle to the completion of the plan. The law was silent as to the choice of service on the part of the graduates of highest rank. The assignment was to be made by the Secretary of the Navy upon the recommendation of the Academic Board. The old salaries, graded upon the idea that the engineers were the picked graduates, remained unchanged. To retain the old state of things it was only necessary that the Academic Board should assign the best graduates to the engineers, and thus secure them the highest pay. But this would have kept up the intellectual superiority of the engineers, and indeed have made it, from the point of view of the line officers, still more threatening, since the new engineers would have been men of at least equal political influence with their fellows of the line. The best men must be retained in the line, and this could not be done except by giving them the places of lowest pay. The new law, it must be said, does not remove the difficulty, it only slightly eases the conscience of those members of the Academic Board who vote to assign their first man to the line and not to a technical corps. At the same time the bottom would have dropped out of the bill if they had been willing to assign him to the engineers, since he would then have received $1,700 salary.

In discussing this subject we do not enter into the question whether the duties of engineers should or should not be reduced in importance in the way which the bill is designed to facilitate. If, however, the naval cadets who hereafter replenish the Corps of Engineers are those who know the least about the principles of steam engineering, there can be but one result. That corps will be unfitted to design engines, and the continued existence of a Bureau of Steam-Engineering will be an anomaly. But, if this is to be the case, there will be no reason for continuing the present rank of the corps. Indeed, it is difficult to see why a young man should be sent to the Naval Academy at all to become a skilled mechanic. A good apprenticeship in a machine-shop will give him all the training he will require.

Our conviction that Congress little understood the effect of the bill is strengthened by the very next act of the House, which had the effect to increase the very disparity the first bill was designed to lessen. It was an eminently just and proper measure if the engineers are to retain their superior position, since it provided a small increase of pay after ten years' service as passed assistant engineers. It appears that although the engineer gets the highest pay at first, promotion is so slow that after he has been twenty or thirty years in the service he finds himself with less pay than his brethren of equal rank in the line. But, if his position is to be that of perpetual inferiority, this inferior pay will be a natural result.

MONARCHY IN FINANCE.

THE monarchical tendency in all the financial institutions of the day—that is, the tendency to one-man government—which has recently been exciting so much attention, and to which so many of our financial collapses are attributed, is not confined to this country. Some people here ascribe it to the effect produced in the financial mind by the spectacle of the disorders and corruption produced in politics by the government of the multitude. But this theory would hardly hold water, even if it were true that the financial mind in America really distrusted popular institutions. We believe there is in all business enterprises a natural tendency to put the power in the hands of one man; or, to state the matter a little differently, that enterprises initiated and managed by one man are apt to be more successful than others, owing to the very constitution of the human mind. Consequently, monarchical finance gets the advantage of the principle of natural selection, or the survival of the fittest. What our finance is suffering from now is what so many political communities have suffered from—the abuse of its own principle of government. We have not learned to put the proper limitations and checks, in the management of financial institutions, on the One Man, and consequently we find that every few years he loses his head and gets us all into immense trouble.

The last number of the *Journal des Économistes*, discussing the condition and characteristics of the financial world in France, says, apropos of this:

"What first of all strikes any one who studies our financial world is the small number of men in whose hands all the financial power of our time really lies. One might expect that owing to the constant growth of the principle of association, individuality would be lost in the crowd; that the talents and merits of each one would be confounded with the activity of the whole; that, in short, individual, personal force, if it did not lose its value, would lose its importance, and count for less and less in the success and development of enterprises. But this expectation has been completely falsified by the facts. The more grouping and association there are, the more efforts and resources tend to unity, and the more personal weight is appreciated, estimated in large figures, and encouraged by confidence and often by infatuation. Never as much as in our own day has the maxim been true—'that the thing is worth what the man is worth.' . . . One is greatly astonished, in studying the financial world, to see by how few persons the serious business of the country is done, and how rare real financial capacity is; for were it as common and as easy to acquire as some people think, it would be difficult to explain the scarcity of solid, experienced, sagacious, and sure financiers. So that we find that for great and extended operations there is an extremely limited and choice *personnel*. On the contrary, for moderate and small business there is a numerous and superabundant *personnel*."

The French have a special and characteristic name for this small group of great moneyed men who, in every country, do in the last resort the work of financial management. They call them "the High Bank," or "the High Finance," and hold them, or have held them hitherto, in considerable awe. The smash-up of the Union Générale, however, and some other things of a similar character, have done a good deal of late to diminish this feeling, and to bring the great men of the financial world down to the humble level on which they live and work among us, who, after permitting them unbounded power and license, such as no one man is fit to use in any undertaking, kick and cuff them unmercifully, and denounce them from the pulpit, when they break down under the weight of mistakes from which a little wholesome supervision and counsel would have saved them.

The "Haute-Banque," however, is hardly ever likely to fall into as much discredit in France as here, owing to the extraordinary pains the French have taken to fortify their Stock Exchange against all financial crises and mutations. The constitution of the Bourse is such that failures among brokers, which form such an exciting and disastrous feature in Wall Street panics, are almost impossible. There are only sixty members in the Board. For admission the candidate must not only be able to stand a most searching investigation as to character and capacity, but must put up $50,000 as security for his good behavior, besides paying $500 for the expenses of his reception. He has also to pay from $320,000 to $340,000 for his seat, and to put $24,000 into the treasury of the Exchange. Then he needs about $80,000 as working capital, and the mere legal costs of the transfer of a seat amount to about $12,000. So that, all told, every seat at the Board represents about $500,000, or the whole sixty about $30,000,000. When the great crash of 1882 occurred, caused by the breakdown of the Union Générale, the credit of the Board was very seriously shaken. Many of the members were, owing to the default of their clients, in great difficulties, but none were allowed to fail, or be "sold out under the rule," or go through any of the humiliations which our newspapers describe the day after a crash here. The Board borrowed in its corporate capacity $16,000,000 on bonds of $100,000 each, and enabled every member to meet his engagements pending his recovery. Moreover, it obtained the loan without difficulty. The High Bank stepped forward and, through a syndicate headed by the Rothschilds, lent half the amount, and the Bank of Paris and that of Holland lent the other half. The loan was repaid within a year. It is not surprising that High Finance should continue highly respectable when buttressed up in this way.

EGOTISM IN LITERATURE.

M. GUILLEMOT, a French critic, has been discussing in a magazine article the "I" in contemporary literature, and denouncing the growing tendency of authors, and dramatists, and artists to thrust themselves and their private life upon the public. Unless it is checked, he declares that it must inevitably lower the standard of all modern literary productions. It is natural enough that an author, an artist, or a poet should desire to have a great name; but that is an altogether different thing from craving to be talked about and marvelled at. Formerly the poet sang his song, the author told his tale, and the artist completed his work without ever a thought of putting himself to the front. Whether he was married or single, whether tall or short, fair or dark, sanguine or bilious—what had this to do with his work? No one knew, and no one cared to know. They remembered Confucius's words, "Do not talk of yourself either well or evil; because in the former case no one would believe you, and in the latter everybody would." Within the last two centuries all this has changed. At present all houses are built of glass, the inhabitants themselves being the architects, throwing open to the gaze of the public even the most sacredly private portions of the edifice.

That there is a great deal of truth in this will be disputed by no one. It is when M. Guillemot produces his explanation that we are shocked and pained. He traces the origin of the malady to ourselves—to the United States. Fortunately for France, he says, these evils do not originate within her borders, but come like tempests across the Atlantic, from "that powerful nation which in turn astonishes the world by its grandeur and its folly, its refined civilization and red-Indian barbarities, its love for liberty and its contempt for inferior races; from the United States, which let a Lincoln die and a Barnum live." The audacious, resolute Americans exercise the same influence on the French which every firm spirit does on the weak and undecided: "We are as wax in their hands." It was in America that interviews and lectures originated, the Yankees having always had a great desire to approach the persons of great men. That, however, is due to a defect of vision, which incapacitates the American from seeing the difference between a justly celebrated poet and a two-headed calf. It is by no means the deep interest in the works of a great man which excites this curiosity among the people; in the same degree as art declines, the personality of the artist increases in interest. American journalism and reporting strengthen this tendency to pry into the private life of public characters, and France has eagerly taken up the evil habit.

It is the fashion just now for thoughtful Europeans who take up the evil tendencies of the time to attribute them *en masse* to the influence of the United States. It is a very convenient and simple method of moralizing, and it curiously reverses a fashion in vogue in the last generation on this side of the water. Then all the evils found in Europe were attributed by us to the lack of something which was to be found in abundance in America, and if the world was to be saved at all it was by the influence of the United States. Now it makes little difference what the evil is—according to all sound European thinkers, the Yankees are at the bottom of it. The frivolity of women, the rascality of men, sensationalism in the pulpit, trichinæ in pork—everything that is unpleasant, or disagreeable, or discreditable, is attributed to our unfortunate country, our institutions, or our "tendencies;" and the best of the joke is that the American snob, who basks in the favor of the Europeans who despise him, echoes most loudly the complaints made by moralists of the school of M. Guillemot.

M. Guillemot, however, carries the new

system too far. We may be conceited, and growing more so—though we think, as a matter of fact, the level of highest conceit was reached in this country some fifty years ago, and that this might be demonstrated to any one's satisfaction by a comparison of the tone of the press of the country then and now. But even if we are growing worse and worse in this respect, it is vastly more probable that we caught the disease from France than that the French were infected by us. Impersonal literature has no existence in France, and personal literature there goes much beyond anything we dream of here. From the time of Balzac to that of Zola, French literature and journalism have been the scene of an orgie of egotism, which now makes it impossible for the simplest criticism or narrative to be produced without the constant intrusion of the "I" between the reader and the subject, in a way which to most Englishmen and Americans is excessively funny. That egotism is making rapid progress in the modern world is a fact the explanation of which must be looked for not in any one country or place, but in the conditions of modern life and in modern institutions. In literature we seem to be suffering just now from the fact that a great literary period is coming to an end, and that the traditions of literature and the literary function are great, while the performances of the present literary generation do not quite match its expectations. It feels uneasy at its shortcomings when it thinks of the mighty shades of the past, and endeavors to make up for its lack of fame by a diligent cultivation of personal notoriety. The work goes merrily on throughout the broad expanse of the modern world, and we protest against any attempt on the part of the lively Gaul or any other enterprising European moralist to unload the burden upon us.

THE ANTI-PIANO MOVEMENT.

The details of the anti-piano movement in Berlin will be awaited with interest on this side of the Atlantic. From the despatch published on Sunday it looks as if the popular feeling against the instrument was not too violent to allow the Germans to consider remedial measures with the cool calmness which the crisis demands. Piano-playing in Berlin has, it is said, reached a point at which the public health and the price of real estate are seriously affected. It is therefore proposed that the Government shall restrict playing and practising within certain hours of the day, *i. e.*, between eleven o'clock in the morning and noon, and between eight and eleven in the evening. In this country, where the piano is an almost universal instrument, and where the capacity to own or rent one is the great mark of division between the wage-earning and the property-owning classes, and where it is the popular substitute for every other instrument, the damage to health and real estate must be even greater than in Germany, where the quieter violin is more cultivated, and where there is a smaller population interested in pianos. In New York life the piano plays an especially important part, owing to the great number of flats, in which the piano of each family is practically a curse or a blessing to the floor above or the floor below—a fact admirably brought out in the popular song, "The Family Overhead."

Some of our contemporaries treat the piano revolt with levity, and indulge themselves in humor at the expense of what they call the "phlegmatic" Germans. But this is an erroneous view of the subject, for Germans are by no means phlegmatic about music, and their rage against the piano is no blind rage. The piano is the instrument of a democratic age, because it is an instrument which within certain limits any one can learn to play. It is an instrument which seems to bring music within the reach of everybody provided, as the dry-goods people say, with a "full line" of fingers and thumbs and eyes. The beauty of the piano, as distinguished from the violin, is that every note and half note is identified to the eye and touch by its connection with a particular piece of ivory; and in "practising" the apprentice does not have to strike the true note by ear, which is regarded by the musical aristocrats as the true musical organ, but simply by pressing down the appropriate key with her finger. As long as she is willing to labor—and the dullest piano-players are notoriously the most industrious—she can certainly in the end master her instrument, and play just as many and difficult pieces as Paganini ever could on the violin. It is this fact which has given the piano its triumph in the modern world, and accounts to musical people for the extraordinary number of people who play it extremely well and yet so very disagreeably. They maintain that it might just as well be played by machinery, or that a mechanical instrument, like a musical box, would be as good for ordinary family use.

If this is true, it is easy to see why the piano is so well adapted for a really unmusical race like ours, a race of which Mr. Lowell had the audacity to say the other day that it was not, and would never be, artistic. We have produced some of the greatest piano manufacturers in the world, and the American home into which the daughters do not force a Grand, a Baby Grand, or at least an Upright, is a rarity—one of those houses in which we miss something feminine and familiar, a home in which we involuntarily suspect that the husband is a cold, unmagnetic man, who rules his household with a rod of iron.

The great difficulty in the way of any anti-piano movement in England or this country has always been that the people who were hostile to the instrument were suspected of being mere men, with no ear for music. *Punch* used to contain many a broad hint directed against the piano and "scales," but the friends of the instrument never heeded this much, because they felt above it. They looked down with amusement or pity upon those who remonstrated against practising, feeling toward them much as we do toward the expressions of dissent which come from dogs and other quadrupeds exposed to a piano.

But the attack on the piano in Germany, accompanied as it is by a threat of a resort to the police, and, no doubt, in the end, to Bismarck, is a much more serious matter, because those who make it are presumably musical people. Their movement is directed against the unreasonable use of the instrument; but any restriction in hours will greatly reduce the number of players, because all practising is done in the morning, and one morning hour only is to be allowed; it is only those naturally gifted with a musical taste who could acquire any real proficiency in it by means of giving an hour a day to practising. This would rule out the great host of players who rely for success solely on indefatigable industry. It is by having the whole morning to themselves, when the men are away at business, and when no one but the neighbors can be annoyed, that the women of the type we mean reach that proficiency celebrated in the well-known story of Dr. Johnson, who, hearing that a piece performed in his presence was "very difficult," politely replied, "Would to God, madam, it were impossible."

That the "violin men," as we should say, are probably behind the attack on the piano does not rob the movement of its interest, but rather increases it. Musical people in Germany have for a long time insisted that the violin was the true instrument for educational purposes, and it is by no means uncommon for girls in England who, twenty-five years ago, would have been taught the piano, to learn the violin instead. Probably to a person afflicted with an "ear" a girl playing badly and industriously on the violin is even worse than a girl playing badly and industriously on a piano. But then the violin baffles the unmusical girl in the end, because there are no ivory keys which she can make sure of and rely on hitting with accuracy every time. Therefore she soon wearies of the violin, and leaves it for those with ears. The worst that can be said of the anti-piano movement is that it is undemocratic. The piano is the only good instrument which is really compatible with equal rights in music. But then we get more undemocratic, socially, every year, and it is doubtful whether there can be any permanent democracy in art. But the Germans have one great resource from which we are cut off: they can rely on the police to enforce the ordinance.

THE BRITISH MINISTRY AT HOME AND ABROAD.

London, May 12.

There is probably no country in the world whose politics are so complicated as those of Britain, none in which the conduct of affairs and the authority of that Governing Committee of Parliament which we call the Cabinet, is affected by so many crossing and intermingling currents. Our foreign and colonial relations ramify all over the world, our domestic issues of policy are numerous and intricate; and each set of questions and issues tells upon the other and upon Government in unexpected ways. While Lord Beaconsfield ruled, he was in the habit of appealing for support to the country, on the ground of the spirit and energy with which he had conducted our foreign policy and sustained our imperial position, although he had confessedly done little or nothing in the way of progressive domestic legislation. The result showed that he had overestimated the success

of his foreign policy: but till 1880 it was generally believed to have constituted a strong claim on the confidence of the nation. At present the position is exactly reversed. Mr. Gladstone's Government has been unusually successful in its domestic policy. There have been no scandals, no grounds for serious complaint, in the conduct of English and Scottish administration, in the exercise of patronage, in the character of the measures which have been submitted to Parliament. Defects in Parliamentary procedure have prevented many useful measures from passing; but the great majority of the nation approves the proposals of the Government, and trusts their honesty and capacity in all such matters. Even in Ireland, the standing and insoluble problem of British politics, a wonderful diminution of crime has taken place under Lord Spencer's administration; the Land Act of 1881 has greatly improved the condition of the peasantry; the troubles which still confront us are rather political than agrarian or social, and in so far less formidable. The Franchise Bill, which is now being debated in Committee of the House of Commons, has rallied the Liberal party to the Government in a remarkable way, and seems likely to pass the Commons by so large a majority that even the House of Lords will hesitate to reject it. Mr. Gladstone has seldom appeared to more advantage than in his advocacy of this bill, while the vacillation and weakness of the Opposition leaders has been displayed in the fact that they have never ventured to say what they are known to feel about it, and that they have left the only really weighty criticism to come from an independent Liberal, Mr. Goschen.

This is the bright side of the picture. But the deficiencies of the Government in their conduct of the Egyptian problem seem to many of their supporters as conspicuous as their successes at home. It is hard to say exactly what view an impartial observer would take, because the exaggerated language of the Opposition provokes sympathy from those who would otherwise be disposed to blame the Government, and disturbs the balance of their judgment. But the case, as presented by men who wish to hold that balance fairly, might be put by them as follows: The policy of the Ministry in Egypt since the day when they sent the fleet to Alexandria, now just two years ago, has been a hand-to-mouth policy. They seem to have never looked more than a month ahead, and to have taken each successive step only because it naturally followed from the last preceding step, not because it could be justified in view of the consequences it might ultimately entail. It has therefore, such men go on to say, been marked by infirmity of purpose: not that they have vacillated, but that they have always done the least possible, appearing to follow and be swept along by events, not to control them. They have allowed evils to outrun their remedies, and have seen more than one difficulty grow serious which might have been diminished or avoided, had it been foreseen and provided against a little sooner. They have clung, no doubt, to their principles, the chief of which was to avoid annexation or any increase of British responsibilities; but this very adherence to principle has blinded them to facts, and made them unwilling to admit what the rest of the world recognized. It has been plain enough for a good while that our troops cannot leave Egypt at any assignable time, because the country would then at once relapse into anarchy, or perhaps be occupied by France. Yet they have continued to talk of a speedy evacuation, and have thereby prevented the settling down of society in the Nile Valley, and lost the benefit even of the reforms they have initiated. They allowed the Khedive's Ministry to attempt to reconquer the Sudan when his resources were obviously inadequate. When Hicks had been defeated and killed, they took no step to rescue the garrisons or secure the southern frontiers of Egypt till seven weeks had elapsed, during which the position had grown far more perplexing. Then, in the middle of January, when they despatched General Gordon to Khartum, it was not so much with any definite view as to what he was to do, as in the vague hope that he would somehow succeed in pacifying the revolted tribes, and by the magic of his personal influence restore tranquillity and secure the retreat of the garrisons. Things having turned out worse than he expected, they had no second string to their bow, no course to pursue which could either help him or the garrisons; and, though they admit their responsibility for his personal safety, they are helpless to aid or to rescue him. Doubtless the task is difficult, for the climate prevents European troops, perhaps even Indian troops, from crossing during summer and early autumn the terrible deserts that separate Khartum from Assuan and from the Red Sea coast. But these were difficulties which might have been foreseen. If they were not mere waiters on fortune, they ought either not to have sent Gordon, or to have arranged some means of rescuing him, or to have let both him and the world know at the outset that he was taking his life in his hand and could not expect any support from home. As it is, we are in the painful position of seeing a gallant man in danger, which he has incurred on behalf of his country and humanity; of being unable to succor him, and of seeing the danger of a Mohammedan attack upon Egypt itself increase every day. If a forward policy was too perilous, and would have drawn us into new entanglements, a policy of prompt evacuation might surely have succeeded if adopted in time, and it would have saved the needless and dishonorable victories on the Red Sea coast.

There is no denying that sentiments of this kind are widely held, and have seriously affected the reputation of the Government. Some think that their mistakes are mainly due to Lord Granville, who has always been considered rather adroit than strong or profound in his conduct of foreign policy. Others blame Mr. Gladstone himself, alleging that he has disliked the whole Egyptian business so heartily from beginning to end as to have tried to lull himself into a false security, and ignored facts which it was disagreeable to admit. The London press has, as usual, been foremost in denouncing the apathy or timidity of the Government. Even some organs usually strenuous in their Liberalism, such as the *Pall Mall Gazette*, have in this instance turned against them, while there has been no advocacy of any weight or value offered in their behalf except by newspapers in other parts of the country, which are of course not read in London. True it is that the country and the mass of the people are far less sensitive than London or the upper classes on questions of foreign policy, and that the damage which all this hostile criticism has inflicted is therefore less perceived by the bulk of its supporters than by members of Parliament and other professed politicians. The country Liberals want the Franchise Bill passed, and would put up with a great deal for the sake of that. They do not quite understand why we have gone to Egypt; they wish we were well quit of it. They respect the Government for its consistency in trying to be quit of it. They have an unshaken admiration for and faith in Mr. Gladstone. It may be, they admit, that he is less brilliant in foreign than in domestic policy, but then foreign policy has so much less to do with the welfare of the people. They are therefore, on the whole, faithful; and the suspicion that the declamations against the cowardice or hesitation of the Government, with which the London press rings, may be partly due to the selfish promptings of the holders of Egyptian bonds, who would like to see the value of their property enhanced by the proclamation of a British protectorate, makes them less than ever disposed to swell the cry against the Ministry.

This loyalty of the Liberal party in the country is the dominating fact in the present situation. Emboldened by the chorus of complaint and indignation which one hears in every London drawing-room or club, the Tory leaders have again arraigned the Government by a formal vote of censure. It might be carried, or almost carried, were the Ministerial majority to follow their own sentiments, because London opinion tells heavily on them. But even those who are most swayed by it fear to offend their constituents, who would call them sharply to account for a vote which endangered Mr. Gladstone and the Franchise Bill. It is therefore expected that the Ministry will have an easy, if not large, majority in the division to be taken to-morrow, though much will of course depend on that unascertained and unascertainable factor, the votes of the Irish Parnellite members. The speech in which Mr. Gladstone replied to the charges levelled against them was somewhat disappointing to his followers, the rather as the case which the despatches in the Blue Books disclose is decidedly less unfavorable than the London papers have made the London public believe. He had the air of being fatigued and disheartened—disheartened not at the attack upon the Ministry, for conflict stimulates him; but at the sad complication of difficulties which our position in Egypt involves, and which will remain to perplex other Ministries when he has retired. It is a curious piece of the irony of fate that he, whose main object has been to keep England out of fresh responsibilities, should have been dragged, always resisting, deeper and deeper into this Serbonian bog. Y.

THE HUNDRED DAYS.

PARIS, May 8, 1884.

THERE is not in modern history a more dramatic episode than the "Hundred Days," the return of Napoleon from Elba, and the short struggle which ended at Waterloo. I have spoken in these columns of the first volume of the memoirs of Baron de Vitrolles. The second volume, which has just appeared, is even more interesting than the first, and it is chiefly devoted to the period of the first year of the Restoration of the Bourbons, and to this period of the "Hundred Days." The Restoration had been a national necessity, but Talleyrand, Fouché, and their friends had succeeded in making it appear as the work of the French Senate. The first cabinet of the Restoration was presided over by the Comte d'Artois; Talleyrand, Dalberg, Jaucourt, the Abbé de Montesquiou were the nominees of the Senate; Marshals Moncey and Oudinot and General Dessoles had been called in in order to conciliate the army and the National Guard. Vitrolles had a place in it as secretary. The Comte d'Artois acted in everything upon the formula—"There is nothing changed in France; there is only one Frenchman more." This historical saying, by the by, was never pronounced by him; Beugnot tells us in his amusing memoirs that he made it himself, thinking it necessary for the occasion, and sent it to the official papers. Beugnot had much *esprit*. One day he came to visit Vitrolles; they had to make up together a list of persons who were to be sent with a special mission into all the provinces.

"Give me," said he, "your honest men, and I will give you my rogues; so we will do a good business."

Louis XVIII. was in England when the allied sovereigns entered Paris; he remained there till an armistice was concluded between them and the new government. He left Hartwell on the 20th of April, 1814. In London he was received with much enthusiasm; he gave the order of the Holy Spirit to the Prince Regent, who gave him the Garter. The King crossed the Channel in the *Royal Sovereign*, the finest ship in the navy, escorted by eight men of war. The reception in France was equally enthusiastic; the King stopped at Compiègne and had a conference with his brother, the Comte d'Artois; he received Pozzo di Borgo, who was deputed to him by the Emperor Alexander; the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia came to him in person. Everybody was anxious to see how Talleyrand would be received. "People expected to find him supple, adroit, flattering, and caressing; he adopted a different part. He arrived cold, serious, making advances to nobody, like a man who has nothing to be pardoned, and who has need of no suffrage. He tried to make his *bel esprit* in unison with that of the King, and showed himself at ease on all the questions of the day." The King was infirm, and walked with difficulty; but he had a very noble face and countenance. He had a good voice, and his intellect was of a high order. Vitrolles was presented to the King, who assured him that the dangers which he had incurred and the services which he had rendered would not be forgotten. He wrote a *Déclaration* at Saint-Ouen which preceded him to the capital, and he made his *entrée* on the 12th of April, in an open coach, with the Prince de Condé and the Duc de Bourbon before him, the Comte d'Artois and the Duc de Berry riding beside the carriage. The cortège went first to Notre Dame, and then to the Tuileries. Vitrolles gives the impression made on him at the first meeting of the Cabinet over which the King presided himself. After having done justice to the King, he adds:

"It seemed to me that all the sentiments which the King had expressed were noble, but that his ideas had not risen above a certain level. I had seen in his impatience for the formation of a guard one of the weak points of the emigration—the conviction that the reduction of a few hundred of horse of the King's household had been one of the principal causes of the Revolution. In vain had I waited for an exposition of his policy, of the principles which he had adopted for the reëstablishment of his authority, of the plans which he had traced for himself for the development of the public prosperity. Instead of all this, when I summed up his discourse for myself, I found only narrow thoughts, dictated by prejudice."

The chief preoccupation of the new King was, it is true, the formation of a military household. Six companies of guards were formed, and given to the Duc d'Havré-et-de-Croy, the Duc de Grammont, the Prince de Poix, the Duc de Luxembourg, Marshal Berthier, Prince of Wagram, and Marshal Marmont, Duke of Ragusa; these two last nominations were a concession to the army of Bonaparte. The King had, besides, two companies of chevau-légers and of gendarmes, two companies of mousquetaires, and a company of grenadiers on horseback. To all this cavalry it was decided to add a body of 4,000 infantry, under the name of Royal Guard, and a body of artillery. These projects, while they gave satisfaction to the émigrés, offended the old army, wounded its legitimate pride, and were not without influence on Napoleon's resolves. Louis XVIII. treated the sovereigns who had prepared his Restoration with an easy pride and dignity; he made great efforts to put a stop to the exactions of their armies. In all matters of administration the King took no initiative; he seemed disposed to assume the part of a constitutional King. Many told him to keep the bed of Bonaparte, and to place himself in it. Such was not his disposition; he was too idle to be despotic, too indifferent to see to details. In England he had become familiar with parliamentary government, and Beugnot could say of him, "Let us thank Providence for having made us a King composed of the finest flower of constitutionalism." The Comte d'Artois, who afterward became Charles X., once said to Vitrolles, who was speaking against constitutionalism and the modern ideas of monarchy: "If you could pound us all, Princes of the House of Bourbon, in a mortar, you could not make out of us an absolute King." The King did not attach much importance to formulas, and the "Charte" was called "Charte Constitutionnelle."

On the 5th of March, 1815, M. de Vitrolles was in his cabinet at the Tuileries, when the Director of Telegraphs asked to speak to him immediately, and thereupon handed him a despatch. Vitrolles, feeling instinctively that it contained bad news, brought it to the King.

"The gout was at that moment in his hands. He tore the seal with difficulty, and, seizing as well as he could the despatch in its envelope, told me to draw the envelope from it. I turned slowly and threw the envelope in the chimney-place which was behind me; then, standing before the table facing the King, I waited while he read the two or three lines of the despatch. He kept his eyes fixed on the paper longer than was necessary to read them; then threw it on the table: 'You don't know what it is?' said he. 'No, Sire, I am ignorant of it.' 'It is,' said he in a voice without the slightest alteration—'it is Bonaparte, who has disembarked on the coast of Provence.'"

The despatch had been sent from Marseilles by Marshal Massena; at that time the telegraph did not extend further from Paris than to Lyons. "'Take this,' said the King, with the same calm, 'to the Minister of War. He will see what there is to be done.'" Vitrolles found Marshal Soult, on his way to the Tuileries, on the Pont Royal, and told him the great news. Soult showed some incredulity, and went at once to the King. It was decided that the Duc d'Angoulême should take command of the troops in the South, in Languedoc. The Duc de Berry was to assemble the forces which were in Alsace and in Lorraine; the brother of the King, Monsieur, was to march directly against Bonaparte, with Macdonald under his orders. Vitrolles remained in Paris. On his way, Bonaparte passed by the château of Vitrolles, near Sisteron. "Is this," he asked, "the castle of the famous Baron de Vitrolles?" The defection of Labédoyère opened to Bonaparte the gates of Grenoble; the soldiers joined the Emperor wherever he went. Monsieur, who was at Lyons, was obliged to return to Paris with the Duc d'Orléans. Marshal Macdonald, and the Governor, M. de Damas, who remained the last, were obliged to run away at full gallop, so as not to be made prisoners. Marshal Soult, who was suspected of treason, resigned his functions of Minister of War. Vitrolles made plans of resistance, and proposed to the King to make a stand in the west of France, at Orléans, at Tours, at Angers—if necessary, at La Rochelle—to make of half of France a new Vendée.

In the midst of the drama the King preserved his perfect calmness. Here is a curious proof of it. A speech was prepared, which the King was to pronounce before the Chambers. "We were all standing round the table of the King. At the moment we heard it read I was struck with this locution: 'The man who comes among us to fire the horrors of civil war, brings also with him the curse of foreign war.' 'I do not believe,' said I to Blacas, who was by me, 'that the horrors of war can burn.' 'What are you saying?' said the King. Blacas repeated my observation. 'He is quite right,' said the King, and he wrote 'the torches of civil war.'" He was a great purist, and the grammarian was not lost in the King.

The next day General Maison, who offered his services against Bonaparte, asked to see M. de Blacas, with General Dessoles. They spoke of the situation, said that Bonaparte would never forgive them, that they would probably be forced to go into exile; they threw themselves on the goodness of the King. M. de Blacas answered in the best terms, and said that the King would certainly appreciate their services and their devotion, but kept in the domain of generalities. "General Maison spoke then with the cynicism which lay at the bottom of his character. 'You see,' said he to General Dessoles, 'that he makes believe not to understand us. We must speak clearly. You must,' said he to M. de Blacas, 'either not count on our services or else give us each two hundred thousand francs.'" M. de Blacas took the advice of the King, and the money was sent.

Louis XVIII., through the agency of some bankers, sent about fourteen millions of francs to England. This sum was procured from the resources of the civil list, and it helped the King to maintain his numerous followers at Ghent during the Hundred Days. The King, before his departure, gave to Vitrolles a letter for his niece, and asked him to take it to Bordeaux. "You will tell my niece to stay at Bordeaux as long as she can, and when she is no longer able, to do as I do." "The speech," says Vitrolles, "was not more heroic. Taking in my hand the King's letter, I told him that I regretted much not to have foreseen this order of his Majesty; that I would have come to an understanding with the Ministers and taken their instructions; that they would have enlightened me to the best of their ability, and that I regretted much to go away without any directions. 'Mitte sapientem et nihil dicas,' said the King. I answered this compliment with a profound reverence." The King and Monsieur gone, Vitrolles left Paris by way of Rambouillet and Chartres. He found the Duchesse d'Angoulême at Bordeaux, and gave her the letter of the King.

The last part of this second volume contains an account of the vain attempts made in the south of France against Bonaparte and in favor of the Bourbons. The great answer to all the prayers of Vitrolles, to all his entreaties, was the word, "We will have no civil war." The Generals, one by one, took sides with the Emperor against the King. The regiments felt no loyalty for Princes of whom they were almost ignorant. Every proclamation of Bonaparte stirred the patriotism and the pride of the soldiers. His success, uncertain at first, had become definitive. Madame, learning that the King had left Lille, and afterward Belgium, had embarked in the *Gironde;* the Empire was proclaimed at Bordeaux. Vitrolles was arrested by order of General Laborde, and sent to prison. He heard the soldiers who were on guard say to each other, "When shall we shoot him?" He was not shot, however. After ten days' confinement, he was sent, under escort, to an unknown destination. The escort stopped at Montauban, at Limoges, at Orléans; he learned at last that he was going to the prison of Vincennes. He remembered the Duc d'Enghien, and prepared himself for an immediate death, without trial, or after a mock trial.

Correspondence.

A YOUNG VOTER'S DOUBTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A college friend (who has just passed his professional examinations and is about to enter active and independent life) and I have been talking about our duties as young voters, and those of all young men who are to cast a ballot this year for the first time at a Presidential election. Believing that there are hundreds of young men of about our age who would read, perhaps with some benefit, a report of our conversation, I will attempt to reproduce it in effect, hoping that although it may not express their ideas, yet it may suggest something further in their own line of thought.

We thought that it is a natural and praiseworthy desire for a young man of our age to choose carefully a party, and then work with all the seriousness of honest citizenship to help accomplish the aims of the chosen party. But on analyzing the two parties we could not see that either party, as a *party*, was working for any of the important questions which advanced scholars and papers are advocating. Had we been voters twenty years ago, when the Republican party was doing a great work, there would be some excuse for our saying, as many older voters do, "I believe that the Republican party has done so much good that it ought not now to be abandoned." Or, could we read of its great achievements without being mindful of its present stupidly dogmatic views on the question of tariff, its insane notions of special industries, and its peculiar susceptibility to all influences which come bearing riches via the lobby, then we might accept it as an honest leader. Could we, on the other hand, believe that a large majority of the Democratic party is in earnest about revenue reform, and will spare no means to make itself an honest exponent of that cause, without remembering that its seriousness in regard to civil-service reform is much like that of the trick mule, and that its notions of silver are unscientific and delusive, then we might with some hesitancy say, "We believe that you have *almost* an honest purpose, and we will lend our weak but earnest efforts to your side."

So, then, we conclude that the serious and disinterested young voter of to-day cannot afford to work within the ranks of either party. The languor which always follows a great struggle has not yet left the Republican party, the blood-poisoning which the Democracy has experienced on various occasions has not yet been entirely cured, and the screaming babe of which Butler is the fond nurse is not yet old enough to make any articulate sounds. Our final resolve, then, is, to *enlist* with no party, to freely express our ideas, denounce narrow partisan spirit, and give our efforts and our sympathies to every movement, in whatever party, that will tend to raise our political system to such a level that demagogues shall no longer be the most powerful, special interests the most important, and careful political education and stern morality an object of popular jesting.

Very respectfully,

A POLITICAL STUDENT.

NEW YORK, May 24, 1884.

Notes.

THE first volume of an American edition of Dr. Alfred Edersheim's 'Life and Times of the Messiah,' will be issued by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., early next month; the second and last volume, in July.

'The Travelling Law School and Famous Trials' is announced by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston.

Mr. Francis S. Drake has nearly ready for the press a small quarto entitled 'Tea Leaves,' largely made up from documents, biographical notes, etc. (now for the first time printed), relating to the "Tea Party" which met in Boston on the 14th of December, 1773. Mr. Drake has found out the names of as many as 100 persons who were engaged in the destruction of the tea, and will have something interesting to tell about each and all. Portraits of Warren and Revere, and views of the wharf, vessels,, etc., serve to illustrate the "scene of action."

'Henry Irving, in England and America,' 1838-1884, has been issued by T. Fisher Unwin, London. From the same source we have received the catalogue of the summer exhibition of the Royal Society in water colors, of which the memorandum sketches possess considerable intrinsic interest.

Dr. J. G. DeHoop Scheffer, of Amsterdam, author of the well-known 'History of the Reformation in the Netherlands,' has translated into Dutch and published in the *Doopsgezinde* [Mennonite] *Bijdragen* for 1884 the address delivered by Mr. Samuel W. Pennypacker, of Philadelphia, at the recent German Bicentennial in that city.

Mr. John Edmands, librarian of the Mercantile Library, Philadelphia, has reprinted from the *Bulletin* his 'Reading Notes on Wycliffe,' which have a timely importance: and has also distributed for corrections and additions proofs of a bibliography of the "Dies Iræ," regard being paid only to works in English.

We have received the first part of vol. i. of Records of the Society of Naturalists of the Eastern United States, an organization formed in April, 1883, and having for its object the discussion of methods of investigation and instruction, laboratory technique and museum administration, and other kindred topics. Professional naturalists, teachers, and physicians are alone admitted to membership. The New England and Middle States and the District of Columbia are the allotted territory for the Society's reunions.

No. 18 of the *Journal of Social Science* (G. P. Putnam's Sons) contains the transactions of the American Social Science Association at Saratoga last year. The papers printed have the usual variety of subjects, but none is striking by its novelty, unless we name Mr. M. F. Tyler's "Legal History of the Telephone."

Professor James K. Hosmer, who is engaged upon a new life of Samuel Adams, sketches his hero in the fourth number of the Second Series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies—"Samuel Adams, the Man of the Town Meeting." It will be found eminently readable, and to have had the benefit of the new life of Governor Hutchinson.

The corporation of Harvard University have just announced that a gift received from the estate of the late Henry T. Morgan, of this city, is to be used for the establishment of four new fellowships for the encouragement of advanced liberal studies. The "Morgan fellowships" are to be assigned to applicants undertaking to carry on at the University special work of the kinds for which the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Science are now given, but it is not required that an applicant should become a candidate for any degree, nor that he should hold any academic degree as a qualification. As in the case of the Kirkland fellowship established by Mr. Bancroft, it is requisite that the applicant should prove that he has the education and the special capacity necessary for success in the work undertaken; but this proof may be presented in any form which the particular case admits, and for this purpose diplomas, certificates from instructors or from experts, and written or experimental work already performed, will all serve equally well. The holders of these fellowships will work under the supervision of the committees having charge of the several departments of advanced study, and will be required to forego all other occupation, except such university work as may be approved by the Academic Council. The income of the fellowships will be $500 each, and the term of appointment one year, the incumbent being eligible for a second appointment.

We have received from Mr. Arthur Gilman, Secretary of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women, at Harvard College, the programme for the sixth year's courses of study, (1884-5). Mr. Gilman's address is 5 Waterhouse Street, Cambridge, Mass.

Prof. C. K. Adams, Dean of the School of Political Science in the University of Michigan, sends us the Annual Announcement describing the plan, courses, and requirements for admission to this seminary, which is one of the most promising of the latest forms of our higher education.

The Ohio State Forestry Association at Cincinnati has issued a pamphlet on 'Trees and Tree Planting,' which, though somewhat loosely edited, will do far more good than its occasional exaggerations both of facts and of sentimentality will do harm. It is intended to promote everywhere the observance of "Arbor Day," or a general tree-planting, by school-children and the citizens at large. In Cincinnati, a pin-oak, planted in memory of a cemetery superintendent, "was appropriately draped in mourning and labelled"; and at the feet of trees set up in an "Authors' Grove" were sunk "small granite tablets, about eight inches square, bearing the name of the author honored and the date of the ceremony." Many authorities are cited as to the value of preserving forests; practical directions for planting and transplanting are given; and appropriate extracts in prose and poetry are offered for use at the annual festival. We understand that copies of this pamphlet will be forwarded gratuitously on receipt of postage.

A pamphlet address by Mr. Alexander Hogg, Superintendent of Schools at Fort Worth, Texas, on "The Railroad as an Element in Education," is devoted mainly to the advantage of making all the railroad routes of the State converge upon Galveston, and of building a great breakwater in that harbor. We have remarked the following curious testimony: "A prominent minister of one of our leading denominations told me he had ridden free, in one year, 24,640 miles upon the various roads of Texas—over 5,000 miles being upon the lines of a single company. Hundreds of other ministers can testify to this same liberality of these same corporations toward the spread of the Gospel. The Texas roads keep a temperance lecturer continually travelling over the State, free as to transportation, to wage a ceaseless war against intemperance. One of our greatest General Managers says: 'At all times put me down, first, in favor of public free schools; second, and under all circumstances, against whiskey.'"

The *Revue Indépendante*, begun this month in Paris, is recommendable by its handy form, but its print is poor, and its contents far from extraordinary. The editorial article on Materialism allies the *Revue* with the modern doctrine of evolution; M. Adrien Renacle treats, as a disciple, of the Wagnerian movement in France, in the first number not getting beyond the historical stage; and J. K. Huysmans attacks the system of the Ecole des Beaux-Arts, by which the sons of peasants and of workingmen are expected to be turned out painters with ideas, seeing in it the cause of the increasing mediocrity of the Salon. Edmond de Goncourt con-

tributes a trifle, and is in turn made the subject of eulogy by an admirer.

We should doubt if *La Nuova Scienza*, a quarterly metaphysical review just started by Professor Enrico Caporali, at Todi, Umbria (New York: F. W. Christern), would have many attractions for American readers. The three leading articles of the first number are entitled: "Italian Thought of To-day," "The Pytnagorean Formula of Cosmic Evolution," and "The Anti-Clerical Italian Evolution."

M. Gaston Paris has pointed out, in a paper read before the French Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres, a source from which, by a little ingenuity, considerable knowledge of the manners and customs of the Middle Ages might be derived. Ovid's 'Art of Love' was translated half-a-dozen times, beginning with Chrestien de Troyes, whose version, to be sure, is lost; but the others remain, and whenever there are allusions to the usages of ancient Rome which their readers would not understand, as of course there often are, the translators substitute equivalents borrowed from the practices of their own time; so that the changes are doubly interesting, as showing what was not, as well as what was, the life of the Middle Ages. It would require some care to work this mine, but it would be a very interesting labor for a scholar endowed with leisure.

Architects will find their account in 'L'Architecture Normande aux XIe et XIIe Siècles en Normandie et en Angleterre,' text and plates, now in course of publication by the Librairie Centrale d'Architecture, 15 Rue Bonaparte, Paris (New York: F. W. Christern). The editor is M. V. Ruprich-Robert. Certain classes of the designs copied will be given on a uniform scale. There will be about 176 plates, engraved, colored, and photographic.

From the *Revue Critique* we learn that the last volume (2d series, vol. viii., pp. 128 129) of the *Recueil des travaux de la Société d'Agriculture, Sciences et Arts d'Agen* contains a notice and a letter by Mommsen upon the famous inscription of Hasparren (Basses-Pyrénées). This inscription, which has lately been the subject of an article by M. Desjardins in the *Revue Archéologique*, October, 1883, and of which a good facsimile is given in the *Bulletin du Comité des Travaux Historiques*, 1883, p. 163, is dedicated to one called Verus, who "*Pro novem optinvit popvlis se ivngere Gallos.*" The date of the inscription Mommsen fixes as of, or subsequent to, the time of Diocletian, and the subject in his opinion is the provisional reunion of Novempopulana and the diocese of the Gauls. It is worthy of remark that Mommsen has lately turned his attention, in a great degree, to the study of the antiquities of Gaul. The results of his researches have been given from time to time in the French reviews. The *Bulletin Épigraphique de la Gaule*, 1883, p. 133, has a note by him on a Paris inscription, the *Revue Épigraphique du Midi de la France*, 1883, p. 379, a comment upon the pretended inscription of Ahenobarbus, and in the *Bulletin Trimestriel des Antiquités Africaines*, October, 1883, he writes upon the inscription of an ADVocatus XL GALLIARVm.

— The annual educational discussion of the commencement season is begun in the *Century* for June, by the publication of President Eliot's address at Johns Hopkins University last February. This paper is to be looked on as an authoritative statement of the aims of the practical reformers, which it defines and supports with a condensed but far-reaching argument. Succinctly the proposition laid down is, that the degree of Bachelor of Arts shall mean a certain amount of knowledge irrespective of its kind, and secondly, that on this understanding English, French, German, political economy, history, and natural science shall be regarded as equal in weight or rank to Greek, Latin, and mathematics. The argument starts from the utilitarian principle that the best is a fluctuating quantity, and, after showing that this is historically true of education, asserts that the present strong effort for reform is of the same character as that which more than three centuries ago substituted classicism for scholasticism, *i. e.*, it is an attempt to adapt methods which grew out of old learning to the interest of an age of new knowledge. This is a much more skilful and powerful attack than Mr. Adams's guerrilla raid last year; in fact, it is a move in the game, and denotes a change in the disposition of the forces. It is not likely that a leader in the movement would take up so positive and decided a position unless he were sure that it would be held The time is ripe for results. Mr. Edward Eggleston's paper on the "Commerce of the Colonies," though summary and statistical, gives a very vivid picture of the trading activity of all the colonies, their pursuits, ways and means of transit and exchange, and their state of mind with regard to smuggling and piracy. Its illustrations, from contemporary sources, are very curious and valuable.

—The *Century* has for a frontispiece an engraving from a drawing by Kenyon Cox from St. Gaudens's statue of Randall, founder of the "Sailors' Snug Harbor." The drawing is an admirable reproduction of the statue, and it is cut in the best possible style. There is an interest *sui generis* in the statue, arising from the fact that it is entirely the creation of Mr. St. Gaudens's imagination, no likeness of Randall being in existence. The illustrations of "A French-American Seaport" are in the best manner of the *Century* work. Mr. Julian Hawthorne's article on "American Wild Animals in Art," having reference to Mr. Kemys and his sculptures of the wild animals of America, has too much the air of a "boom" for Mr. Kemys, and from this the editor of the *Century* very wisely dissents. It is one thing to write on art eloquently and in the abstract, and quite another to pronounce concrete judgments, especially on new forms of art. Art is not picked up on our Western frontier, however well the knowledge of nature may be; and the more accurate representation of nature does not imply, or necessarily go accompanied by, art. Between the art of Kemys and that of Barye, to which it is preferred, there is the gap which lies between nature and art. Kenyon Cox, on the whole, carries off the honors of this number of the *Century*, not only with his Randall, but with the fool's May-day poem and illustration—both excellent, and in the best sense original.

— In *Lippincott's*, also, the educational question is taken up in an article on the endowment of academies, which is declared to be desirable on many old grounds. It is a pity that the comparison, by statistics, of the academies and the high schools was not made more fully and closely. President Eliot has confessed, long ago, that in his view endowed academies should supersede high schools in the preparation of students for college; and, certainly, education could thereby be more easily controlled by the university, on which such feeders would be practically dependent as the public schools can never be. Just here is the essential point which differentiates education East and West. Where the university is a State school it can dominate the school system, and it is in the exercise of this power, which is markedly increasing, that the competitive strength of the Western State colleges will lie. In the East the lack of a direct tie with the common-school system is gradually leading to the conviction that endowed academies must be multiplied, and that, perhaps as an indirect consequence, the higher education, afforded at public expense, will be abridged. There are certainly two sides to a question out of which two systems seem to be growing at the same time. Of the other articles in this number, Mr. Kirk's reminiscences of the great actors of Shakspere who are dead, adds a valuable chapter to the conflicting annals of the stage.

—The fifth annual report of the Archæological Institute of America gives an account of the conclusion of the work at Assos. It is unfortunate for the more practical results in museum-material that our diplomatic representative at Constantinople had not been gifted with a little more backbone, which would have enabled him to insist on the firman rights of the Institute. The scrupulous good faith of our American Society is not appreciated or understood by the Turkish officials, by whom the love of justice is taken as nothing but a sense of weakness. The partition of the objects found having been made by the recognized Turkish authority, no nonsense on the part of the Porte or its officials should have been submitted to, and the characteristic conduct of the authorities which the report mildly refers to thus, "The architectural fragments which had been granted to the explorers by Baltazzi Bey were ultimately withheld by higher officials," should have been met by our Minister as it would have been by the Minister of any other Power, even Greece, and, if not corrected, the flag of the Legation should have been struck at once. The Porte chooses occasions like this to show its contempt for the civilized Powers, and no good diplomat submits to the insolence of the Pashas. Our legation has not, during the present occupancy, succeeded in obtaining redress for a single outrage or for a single violation of the firmans. It is pleasanter for the Minister to protest amiably, and not disturb his cordial receptions by the Sultan. He nurses his "influence" at the Sublime Porte lest he should blunt it by efficient use. The Institute might profitably try its hand at Italian work, where liberal measures and friendly coöperation would meet it. Fortunately the archæology of our own continent is untrammelled by stupid and malevolent officials, and we have always a field to work in. Bandelier's researches (which are here mapped and described in two very interesting letters) are worth all they cost, and are every year more valuable. The third annual report of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens is joined to the foregoing report.

—The sixteenth and seventeenth reports of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology at Cambridge, Mass., come bound together in a thick brochure, of which they form, however, but a relatively small part. What may be called the permanent value of the volume consists in papers by Professor Putnam's assistants, Mr. Lucien Carr and Miss C. A. Studley, and by Miss Alice C. Fletcher, the last-named contributing several important minute descriptions of various Indian festivals and ceremonies like that of the White Buffalo, the Elk, the Four Winds, the Shadow Lodge, etc., etc. Mr. Carr, with a light hand, but with a fulness of knowledge and citation that has a very satisfying finality about it, describes the female domination in the Indian tribes east of the Mississippi. The ideal overworked and abused squaw disappears under this treatment, and the woman stands clearly forth as the base and crown of aboriginal society. The picture will be a surprise to most readers. Professor Putnam tells of the continued exploration of Western mounds, in Tennessee and Ohio,

with very significant results, among which must be counted the numerous traces of wooden structures destroyed by fire. The Museum has acquired some of the prehistoric human footprints (in what is now solid rock), found last December on the shore of Lake Managua in Nicaragua. Miss Studley furnishes some exhaustive notes on human remains obtained from caves in Coahuila, Mexico. A well-known dental surgeon of Buffalo, who has examined the Museum's large collection of aboriginal American crania, is quoted as having found in them every species of dental disorder, except syphilitic, which now afflicts us. The mound-builders of Tennessee had better teeth than the Peruvians whose mummies are found at Ancon, and vegetarians will not be pleased to have this attributed to their larger diet of animal food. Reference is made to the discovery of a prehistoric quartz tool-shop in the gravel forming the modified glacial drift on the banks of the Mississippi at Little Falls, Minn., by Miss Franc E. Babbitt, and we will mention here that the beginning of this explorer's report will be found in the June number of the *American Naturalist*. It is a significant circumstance that the three ladies we have mentioned should figure so largely in a scientific pursuit of this character.

—The English Dialect Society have just added a volume to each of their series, namely, of original and of reprinted glossaries. Sir William H. Cope, who edits the 'Glossary of Hampshire Words and Phrases' (Trübner & Co.) explains the peculiarity of this dialect, such as transpositions of consonants (*e. g.*, *aks* for *ask*, *waps* for *wasp*, and the like), the invariable use of *his* or *hisen* for *its* among the elder people, and a preference for the masculine gender. "There is a saying that 'everything in Hampshire is called *he*, except a Tom-cat.' This is not strictly true. The cat, indeed, whatever its sex, is always *she;* but so is generally a wagon, and any sort of carriage, and invariably a saw." An American will be struck in this glossary with *allow*, in the sense of 'think, suppose, consider' (as, of distance, "I allow it to be so far"); *bang*, 'to puzzle' (as, "That *bangs* me"); *cusnation*='tarnation'; *hash*='harsh.' Quaint locutions are, *adapted*, 'versed in, experienced' (as, "A man adapted to pigs"); shirt-*craw*=the bosom of a shirt. "To *haunt* pigs or cattle in the New Forest is to accustom them to repair to a certain spot, by throwing down beans or fodder there when they are first turned out." "'*Up-along* volk' are the people of Surrey and Sussex, in opposition to the '*down-along* volk' of Dorsetshire and Somersets." An opprobrious association of locality is seen in *Isle-of-Wight parson*, meaning the 'cormorant,' and *Isle-of-Wight rock*, 'a particular kind of skim-milk cheese, extremely hard, only to be masticated by the firmest teeth, and digested by the strongest stomachs.' Finally, in Hants, *break* is used for *tear*, and vice versa, as "I have *a-torn* my best decanter," and "I have *a broke* my fine cambrick apron."

—A stouter brochure is 'English Dialect Words of the Eighteenth Century,' derived from Nathaniel Bailey's 'Universal Etymological Dictionary,' and edited by Mr. W. E. A. Axon, who gives in his introduction a more particular account of this worthy lexicographer than can be found elsewhere in print. Besides adding something to the scanty details of his life, by the discovery that he was a Seventh-Day Baptist worshipping at the Mill Yard Church in Whitechapel, Mr. Axon makes up a tolerably complete bibliography of the Dictionary, on which Johnson based his, and of his other numerous works. The thirteenth English edition of the Dictionary appeared in Glasgow in 1802; an eleventh German in Leipsic in 1810. Bailey's Hebrew scholarship, it seems, was slightly superficial. A Rabbinical quotation, introduced by him to illustrate the duty of Christians to forego retaliation, turns out to mean: "If one says to thee that thy ears are those of an ass, do not care for it; if two [say so] prepare for thyself a bridle." Most interesting, perhaps, is the showing, after Mr. Skeat, of Chatterton's use of Bailey to get up "the antique and sham-antique dialect of the Rowley Poems." The glossary here taken from the same source is very curious, embracing many proverbs and local customs. "As wise as a Man of Gotham: This Proverb passes for the Periphrasis of a Fool, as an hundred Fopperies are feigned and father'd on the Townfolk of *Gotham*, a Village in Nottinghamshire." *Kid* is defined as "formerly one trapanned by Kidnappers; now one who is bound Apprentice here, in order to be transported to the English Plantations in America." Remembering Mr. Darwin's residence in Kent, it is amusing to read, apropos of *Kentish long Tails*, that "the Kentish Men are said to have had Tails for some Generations; by way of Punishment, as some say, for the Kentish Pagans abusing Austin the Monk and his Associates. . . . Others again say it was for cutting off the Tail of Saint Thomas of Canterbury's Horse." So grows apace the material for "the future Dialect Dictionary," the necessary complement of the literary dictionary now in course of publication by the English Philological Society.

— 'The Dictionary of National Biography,' which Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co. have undertaken to publish, under the editorship of Mr. Leslie Stephen, will take rank with Dr. Murray's dictionary as one of the literary monuments of this century. It is being compiled with extraordinary thoroughness, all known sources having been ransacked for names of Englishmen in any way distinguished above their fellows, and lists of names having been published from time to time in the *Athenæum* with a request for additions or suggestions. An idea of this thoroughness may be gained from the fact that from Bonomi, Joseph, to Bythner, Victorinus (the end of B), there are over 1,300 names, A and B together furnishing 4,000. Probably at least four out of every five of these will be new to most readers. The size of the work will be octavo, and the number of volumes to which it will extend may be roughly inferred from the statement that the first volume, which will probably be issued in the autumn, will contain only a part of A. The name of the subject of each article will be given in two types, with dates of birth and death, and descriptive title, thus—

"**ACKERMAN**, JOHN YONGE (1806–73), numismatist and antiquary."

The initials of the writer will be given at the foot, and each volume will contain a list of the contributors whose initials appear in it. In every case references will be given as fully as possible to original authorities, and to previous biographies of any importance, and at the end of each article general authorities will be cited and bibliographical notices given. It is already evident that a feature of the new dictionary will be the large number of errors of earlier biographers which will be corrected in it. Mr. Stephen has enlisted the services of antiquaries in all parts of the country, and of officials in the various departments of the British Museum and the Record Office, and there will be few well-known English men of letters whose names will not be found in some of the lists of contributors. In many cases classes of biographies have been assigned to writers who are specially qualified to deal with the subjects of them: for instance, the chief Anglo-Indians will be treated by Sir Alexander Arbuthnot, K. C. S. I., the naval celebrities by Prof. J. K. Laughton, of the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, and many of the artists by Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse. Among the articles of special interest our readers will be pleased to hear of the following: Prince Albert and W. E. Aytoun, by Sir Theodore Martin; Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, by Mr. Theodore Walrond, C. B.; Akenside, Samuel Butler, and Mrs. Aphra Behn, by Mr. E. W. Gosse; Major André and Benedict Arnold, by Mr. Richard Garnett; Anstey and the Bewicks, by Mr. Austin Dobson; Burns, by Prof. John Nichol, of Glasgow; Walter Bagehot, by Mr. R. H. Hutton; Bacon's political career, by Mr. S. R. Gardiner, and his literary and philosophical career, by Professor Fowler, of Oxford; Anne Boleyn, by Mr. James Gairdner; Queen Anne, by Prof. A. W. Ward; Richard Bentley, by Professor Jebb. Mr. Stephen himself will write a large number of articles, among which will be Addison, Dr. Arbuthnot, Bishop Berkeley, Bishop Butler, the Brontës, and—one which will be of special interest in view of recent discussions—Byron. With regard to the length of the more important biographies it may be stated that Mr. Stephen's article on Addison covers eight pages of two columns each. The dictionary is intended to include all dead English, Irish, Scotch, Welsh, and colonial persons of any importance; several early American settlers will be found in it, but no one who was born on American soil. We have not yet heard of any plan by which American biographies are to be included, either in a supplementary work or by supplements to each volume, but it is much to be hoped that some arrangement of the kind will be made. The work will be one of the greatest value and importance—indeed, it may be considered in many respects the final undertaking of the kind. It seems, therefore, specially desirable and fitting that it should reach the highest standard of completeness by becoming the repository of the personal records of the whole English-speaking people.

— The new Museum of Classical and Genera Archæology at Cambridge, which was formally opened early in the present month, marks the beginning of a new epoch in the study of classical archæology in England, and has a special interest for us from the fact that the teaching of an American scholar has been the basis upon which the undertaking has rested in a great measure, and to which its promoters look for the results which shall justify their efforts. The originator of the scheme was Professor Sidney Colvin, while he occupied the position of Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum, with which the new institution is connected, and it is to him that the credit is due of having overcome the difficulties which beset the beginning of any new departure in such a conservative place as an English university, and of having developed it step by step to its successful completion. But as much, also, is due to the success with which Dr. Charles Waldstein, the present Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum, has taught classical archæology at Cambridge for the last four years, and thus gained for Cambridge the credit of being the only place in England where that study was pursued in the same scientific manner as in Germany. And Mr. C. T. Newton, in his eloquent speech at the inaugural ceremony, doubtless expressed the general feeling when he alluded to Doctor Waldstein's latest discovery (of which there is an account in the *Century* for May) as one of the grounds of confidence for the future of the study in its new home. The Museum, which stands at the back of Little St. Mary's Church, is classic in style, and was designed by Mr. Basil Champneys. It consists of a long central hall, with a smaller hall on each

side, a library, lecture-theatre, curator's room, and a series of rooms devoted to the collections of general and local antiquities—as, from the South Sea Islands and Central America, with fine remains of British and Roman pottery from Cambridgeshire — under the curatorship of Baron von Hügel. The casts are placed upon neutral-tinted pedestals, which run upon wheels to enable them to be drawn to the platform of the theatre as required for the illustration of the lectures, and the walls are tinted with dark buff and pale terracotta. The effect of the whole building is thus extremely pleasing. The collection, however, is disposed with the chief object of affording instruction by its scientific arrangement, and so well is this done that it is sufficient for a visitor to walk carefully through the rooms for him to obtain an intelligent notion of the sequence and characteristics of the periods of Greek plastic art. At the inaugural ceremony Mr. Lowell was the principal guest, and spoke in his best manner, provoking much amusement by his allusion to himself in his scarlet doctor's gown as a "flaming herald," bearing a message of filial respect and sympathy from the new Cambridge to the old. Mr. E. B. Tylor also made a hit by his humorous threat that if anthropology were not duly recognized by the teachers of art and classical archæology, the anthropologists would write a book on their subject and assign art to a sub-section of a chapter near the end. Lord Houghton, Sir Frederick Leighton, the President of the Royal Academy, Professor E. A. Freeman, and Professor Jebb also spoke, and a letter of congratulation was read from Professor Adolf Michaelis, of Strassburg.

EVOLUTION OF MIND IN ANIMALS.

Mental Evolution in Animals. By George John Romanes, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. With a Posthumous Essay on Instinct by Charles Darwin. D. Appleton & Co. 1884. Pp. 411.

It appears to be the inevitable fate of modern physiologists and zoölogists to develop into temporary or permanent psychologists. Wundt, Helmholtz, Fechner, Lotze, Haeckel, Stricker are prominent instances in Germany, Huxley and Lewes in England. Dr. Romanes, too, is rapidly moving away from comparative neurology to the more abstruse questions of human psychology. When he undertook, a few years ago, to write a work for the International Scientific Series on animal intelligence, he intended to devote one part of his book to statements of facts, another to their explanation with reference to the theory of descent. But, as in the case of most authors, the material grew so rapidly under his hands that the second part had to be expanded into the special volume which now lies before us. This, again, was to include a consideration of mental evolution in man as well as in animals: but, for the same reason, the human division has been reserved for a third volume; and as man is a comprehensive subject, there is no knowing where this process will stop. Perhaps, like the German metaphysicians, Dr. Romanes will ultimately evolve a twelve-volume philosophic system of his own—which may the gods avert! We do not want any more "systems" at present, but monographs on special elementary subjects; and it is to be feared that Dr. Romanes is entering a field where he can do less useful work than he has done heretofore. Already he finds himself hampered by the uncertainty which enshrouds a multitude of elementary facts; and until these are determined, it will be advisable to defer a discussion of first principles.

There is evidence in the present volume that the author has not prepared himself so carefully for the elucidation of higher psychologic problems as for the classification and explanation of those primary mental phenomena which are usually met with in the animal world. Dr. Romanes is thoroughly familiar with the theories of Herbert Spencer, Bain, Lewes, the recent works of Sully, Grant Allen, Preyer, Haeckel, and others; but he does not go back of the Mills, while the works of the great Continental philosophers—Descartes, Leibnitz, Spinoza, Kant, Schopenhauer—appear not to exist for him. It is true, these thinkers knew little or nothing of evolution; but there is a vast amount of subtle and genuinely scientific analysis in their works, to ignore which is to commit as great an error as was the contempt in which many of the old metaphysicians held zoölogical and physiological facts. In the chapter on Pleasures and Pains, for instance, it strikes one as very odd that Mr. Grant Allen and Spencer alone are considered, the former of whom, in the author's opinion, "has given in brief compass the best analysis of the philosophy of pleasure and pain that has hitherto appeared." We had supposed that Spinoza deserved this distinction in the eyes of those who are able to translate his antiquated phrases into terms of scientific psychology; and such appears to be the opinion of two of the greatest modern physiologists, Johannes Müller and Professor Huxley. Edward Hartmann, also, has written a chapter on pleasure and pain—the unconscious in feeling—which is quite as suggestive as anything in Grant Allen's 'Physiological Æsthetics.' And this brings us to a second and much more serious objection. Hartmann has earned an honorable place in the history of philosophy by the prominence he has given to the unconscious element in psychic activity, as first clearly pointed out by Kant *en passant*. Through the writings of Carpenter and Maudsley, this matter has also been brought home to English readers. It is most extraordinary, therefore, that Dr. Romanes should entirely ignore this (next to evolution), the most important principle introduced in modern psychology. Throughout the present work the word "mind" is used as synonymous with *conscious* mental action—as, for instance, in the following passage (p. 160): "Reflex action . . . is non-mental neuromuscular adaptation to appropriate stimuli; but instinctive action is this and something more: there is in it the element of mind. No doubt it is often difficult, or even impossible, to decide whether or not a given action implies the presence of the mind-element, *i. e.*, conscious as distinguished from unconscious adaptation," etc. If Dr. Romanes will consult the works of the writers just referred to, he will see how very small a portion of mental action is conscious—Dr. Maudsley, we believe, somewhere compares the conscious element to a small flame breaking through a mound of invisibly-burning charcoal—and to exclude all this unconscious element as non-mental is an error of definition which is sure to create all sorts of mischief, and does so in various parts of the book before us. "Mind" has been used and should be used as a generic term, including unconscious as well as conscious activity in the three customary divisions of mind—intellect, feeling, and will.

Dr. Romanes devotes the greater part of his space to the first of these divisions, including instinct, which might be called petrified or stereotyped intellect. The feelings are only considered in a short chapter on Pleasures and Pains, and in six pages devoted to the emotions, which we should have liked to see expanded into sixty, for no one would appear to be better qualified than Dr. Romanes to discuss such questions as the expression of emotions, so interestingly and yet somewhat inadequately treated by Darwin.

In regard to the third division, the will, Dr. Romanes involves himself in a peculiar difficulty. In the very first chapter he fixes upon choice as the objective criterion of mind—the first conclusive evidence of its existence. But on the last page (352) of this part of the book he classes the lower stages of volition with the very highest and latest developments of psychic powers in animals, and therefore reserves the consideration of them for his next volume. Now choice is commonly regarded as an activity of will. John Locke, *e. g.*, says that "the will signifies nothing but a power or ability to *prefer* or *choose*." This ability is found as low down as the microscopic Protista, among which, says Professor Haeckel, "there are some that love light and some that prefer darkness to light. Many also . . . select their food with great care." The classification of the lower stages of volition with the latest and highest intellectual powers is inconsistent with these facts and with the selection of choice as the criterion of mind. In the second volume of his principal work (pp. 224-276) Schopenhauer has a chapter on the "Primat des Willens im Selbstbewusstsein," which, he maintains with pardonable conceit, contains more suggestions for a science of the mind than is contained in many systematic treatises on psychology. In this essay he insists that whereas the intellect has countless degrees of perfection, the will is never imperfect, but is "complete and entire even in the smallest insect." To our thinking there is no such thing as a will at all, as a separate division or activity of mind, and the term should be discarded as useless and misleading, like the numerous metaphysical subtleties and quiddities of mediæval treatises. Will is simply the consciousness of a motor innervation, the passage of feeling into action, guided by motives which, as Schopenhauer says, are intellectual; and one of the best evidences for our view is that Dr. Romanes in his two volumes has hardly made any reference to the will, and apparently seems puzzled what to do with it.

Having thus disposed of a few obvious criticisms, it is with all the more pleasure that we recognize the admirable qualities of the book as a whole. It is full of interesting illustrations of the various phases of mind, and contains not a few original suggestions of great ingenuity. Such, in the chapter on Pleasures and Pains, is that in regard to the origin of consciousness, which we do not remember having ever seen made so clearly and definitely: "The *raison d'être* of Consciousness may have been that of supplying the condition to the feeling of Pleasure and Pain. Be this as it may, however, it seems certain, as a matter of observable fact, that the association of Pleasure and Pain with organic states and processes which are respectively beneficial and deleterious to the organism, is the most important function of Consciousness in the scheme of Evolution." Under the head of Perception, the results are given of the latest German experimental researches in regard to the time required by acts of perception in the case of different senses and different individuals. To these our author adds an account of his own experiments in regard to the power of rapid reading (silent and tested by writing a synopsis). He found that "in a given time one individual may be able to read four times as much as another"; and he was struck with the fact that "ladies nearly always carry off the palm." Lest, however, improper use should be made of this discovery by the advocates of women's rights, we may add that "there is no relationship between rapidity of perception, as thus tested, and intellectual activity, as tested by the general results of intellectual work; for I have tried the experiment with several highly-

distinguished men of science and literature, most of whom I found to be slow readers."

Dr. Romanes has, with great ingenuity, prepared a table showing at a glance the scale in animal life at which he has been able to discover the first evidences of the different intellectual and emotional activities. This table is of course only tentative, and the author himself points out the various objections to it. But it is convenient for general orientation, and for the benefit of those who may observe these phenomena at a lower scale than here indicated, and thus be induced to record their observations. Under the head of Products of Intellectual Development, the following order of evolution is given: protoplasmic movements; non-nervous adjustments; partly-nervous and nervous adjustments; pleasures and pains; memory; primary instincts; association by contiguity; recognition of offspring and secondary instincts (insects and spiders); association by similarity; reason (higher crustacea); recognition of persons; communication of ideas; recognition of pictures, understanding of words, and dreaming (birds); understanding of mechanisms, use of tools, indefinite morality. The Products of Emotional Development are thus arranged: surprise, fear; sexual emotion without sexual selection; parental affection, social feelings, sexual selection, pugnacity, industry, curiosity; jealousy, anger, play; affection; sympathy; emulation, pride, resentment, æsthetic love of ornament, terror; grief, hate, cruelty, benevolence; revenge, rage; shame, remorse, deceitfulness, ludicrous. The principal objection to such a definite arrangement is, of course, that these psychic activities do not arise full blown, but gradually, and have various stages of development. One of the best features of Dr. Romanes's treatise is the manner in which he takes care to indicate these steps, and draws useful lessons from them, as in the chapters on Reason and Imagination, the latter of which is the most interesting of all, and should be read even by those who have not time to read the entire work. It gives evidence of the existence in dogs and other animals of dreams, delusions, home-sickness, and a sense of the mysterious, akin to fetishism, which induced Dr. Romanes's dog to conceal himself in terror at the sight of a dry bone which suddenly became alive, apparently, through the agency of a thread, one end of which was in his master's hand; while on another occasion this feeling manifested itself at the mysterious disappearance of soap-bubbles, which exploded on being touched by the dog. Since the appearance of 'Mental Evolution in Animals,' Sir John Lubbock has made a very valuable addition to canine psychology by showing that a dog can be taught to read—to distinguish "Bones" from "Out," etc., and to bring a board bearing these words according as he feels hungry or wants to go out—the possible assistance of smell being carefully eliminated. In regard to the dog's sense of smell, we may add here, Dr. Romanes makes an error on p. 93. Speaking of the astonishing perfection of this sense in dogs, he gives his opinion that it is not merely our own sense of smell greatly magnified, because, "if this were the case, it seems incredible that highly-bred sporting dogs, which have the finest noses, should be those which take the keenest pleasure in rolling in filth, which, literally, stinks in our nostrils to the degree of being physically painful." He forgets the difference between physical and æsthetic refinement. Savages love noises and glaring colors which we abhor, yet physically their eyes and ears are better than ours. The Esquimaux's fondness for antiquated eggs is also well known; and, after all, the difference between the dogs mentioned, the Esquimaux, and the German professor eating his Limburger cheese, is not so very great.

Mr. Darwin's posthumous essay on instinct (30 pages), which is appended to the volume, is, on the whole, of more historic than scientific interest, although, like everything written by the great naturalist, it is crammed with interesting facts and suggestions. Part of it is antiquated, and some of it is incorporated in the 'Origin of Species.' Dr. Romanes not only had the privilege of using this essay, but all the MS. notes left by Darwin on psychologic subjects, which are incorporated in the text in their proper places. His own discussion of instinct takes up no less than 259 pages, and may without hesitation be pronounced the most satisfactory and complete treatise on the subject in existence in any language. Lewes's theory, that instincts are due to lapsed intelligence; Spencer's view, that they grow out of reflex actions; and the views of Darwin, are passed in review, and what is good in each is appropriated. Both Lewes and Spencer practically ignore natural selection as an agency, although in a letter published in the *Athenæum* of April 5, 1884, Mr. Spencer states, with reference to his 'Principles of Psychology,' that

"had that work been written after the publication of Mr. Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' instead of four years previously, I should probably have recognized the natural selection of favorable variations as one factor. . . . I still hold that inheritance of functionally-produced modifications is the chief factor throughout the *higher* stages of organic evolution, bodily as well as mental (see 'Principles of Biology,' § 166), while I recognize the truth that throughout the lower stages survival of the fittest is the chief factor, and in the lowest the almost exclusive factor."

According to Dr. Romanes, instincts are due either to habits, originally intelligent, becoming by repetition automatic, or to natural selection, or else to both of these principles in coöperation. Darwin recognized both these principles. In the 'Origin of Species' (1859) he says:

"If we suppose any *habitual* action to become *inherited*—and it can be shown that this does sometimes happen—then the resemblance between what originally was a habit and an instinct becomes so close as not to be distinguished. . . . But it would be a serious error to suppose that *the greater number* of instincts have been acquired by habit in one generation, and then transmitted by inheritance to succeeding generations."

The accent, of course, rests on the words here italicised, as pointed out by Dr. Romanes. Nevertheless, a Mr. Butler, author of 'Life and Habit,' is held up by the *Athenæum* as the author of the hereditary theory of instinct because he claims to have first made use of the term "inherited memory" in this connection. But even the phrase "inherited memory" is not original with this amateur, for Darwin, in a private letter to Dr. Romanes (p. 301), employs the term "instinctive," *i. e.*, memory transmitted from one generation to another; moreover, in the passage just quoted, he spoke in 1859 of an "habitual action . . . become inherited"; Canon Kingsley, in 1867, used the phrase "inherited memory," in *Frazer's Magazine* (not *Nature*, as erroneously stated on p. 296); and, finally, as far back as 1837, Andrew Knight used the phrase "hereditary fear" with reference to the habits of the woodcock.

The Woman Question in Europe. A Series of Original Essays, Edited by Theodore Stanton, M.A. With an Introduction by Frances Power Cobbe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884. Pp. xii.–478.

Mr. Stanton has produced a volume of interest, which by its arrangement alone will draw attention with emphasis to the fact that the "woman movement" is a live one in the countries mentioned, and that it is rapidly advancing all along the line in most of them. The plan of allotting the treatment of each country to a special writer—usually one who has been not only an observer but also an active sharer in the work—is felicitous in many respects. It gives an encyclopædic character to the whole, and, by the cumulative nature of the testimony it presents, impresses the reader with a sense that the forward movement is receiving almost universal support, not only from progressive women everywhere, but likewise from enlightened men.

The plan has its disadvantages, however, and they are not difficult to discover. The responsibility of each writer for the completeness of the entire work is but slight, and each one, having but a small field to cultivate, feels somewhat free to indulge in irrelevant discussions, and sometimes in remarks that are rather sentimental than solid. The editor himself has not entirely avoided this snare, and wastes precious space, in the interesting biographical sketches which introduce the chapters upon the various countries, now upon an explanation of the orthography of an author's name, and again on the fact that a writer is usually credited with one Christian name instead of two.

The countries are treated in the following order: England, Germany, Holland, Austria, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Belgium, Switzerland, Russia, Poland, Bohemia, Turkey, Bulgaria, and Greece. England has naturally the fullest treatment, and France comes next, in each of these cases several writers contributing information about the different branches of the subject. Thus, Mrs. Fawcett tells the story of the woman's suffrage movement in England; Mrs. Grey treats the educational movement; Mrs. Hoggan, medical education; Miss Boucherett, the industrial movement; and Mrs. Barnett, the progress of women in the line of practical philanthropy. In the chapter on France, Mr. Stanton has woven together contributions by Léon Giraud, on woman's legal status; by Mme. Émilie de Morsier, on the moral condition of Frenchwomen; by Mlle. Deraismes, on their religious character; by Mme. Bogelot, on their philanthropy; by Mme. Henry Gréville, on their place in literature; by Mme. Berteaux, on their work in the fine arts; by M. Foucart, on their industries; by M. Godin, on their part in socialistic movements; and brief papers by other writers on correlated topics.

It would seem that a book constructed in this coöperative fashion could not fail to present all the facts that the investigator would naturally wish to find, and yet we confess to a disappointment that the opportunity has not been more satisfactorily used. The book is undoubtedly well adapted to arouse an interest in its theme, but it lacks the definiteness and exactness which the student requires. The chapter on Switzerland furnishes an example. One would expect in it an account of exactly what opportunities for the higher education are offered at the University of Zurich, and yet, though the institution is mentioned a number of times (but not once in the index), there is no hint given which would serve the turn of a woman who might wish to go there to study. The essay on the educational movement in England also illustrates this point. It fails to give facts that were not already easily accessible, and it does not enable a woman who desires to enter one of the colleges at Oxford or Cambridge, to learn those details which she ought to know before taking a voyage over seas to add to her educational equipment. The article states that the movement has reached a point of "culminating success," but neglects to tell the uninformed reader just what constitutes that success. Quot

ing Lady Stanley of Alderly, the writer describes the relation of Girton College to Cambridge University, showing it to be that which the Harvard "Annex," so called, bears to Harvard College, and adds in a note that "this ceased to be true in February, 1881, as we shall see further on." Lady Stanley's words are worth quoting. She says:

"The University did not recognize, nor has yet recognized in any official sense, the existence of the women's college, but the help and favor of the individual members has never failed. The teaching has been Cambridge teaching; and Girton students have been yearly examined from the same papers and under the same conditions as the undergraduates, both for the previous examination and for examinations for degrees, with or without honors."

This could not have been more precisely stated if it had been written about the "Annex." We turn to page 56 ("further on"), and find that the "culminating success," mentioned on page 31, consists in allowing the Girton students to enter the examinations formally to which they had previously been admitted *sub rosa*. They do not even yet receive degrees, though the fact is not stated, but only (as we learn from other sources) "degree certificates," as they are euphemistically entitled, corresponding to those given graduates of the Harvard "Annex." We do not know how to explain the omission of any reference to the opportunities for the higher education of women at the Owens College of Victoria University, at Manchester.

The editor is inclined to generalize somewhat freely, as when he states in his preface that France has solved theoretically "the woman question, as she has *all the other* great problems of the nineteenth century"; and we are naturally surprised to learn, on page 266, that she has failed to solve one, at least, of the most important of all the questions that are connected with the well-being of woman. We suppose that it was a slip of the pen that made Miss Isala van Diest intimate, on page 371, that education might destroy a woman's energy; and we call the editor's attention to the somewhat unimportant fact that the Christian name of Dr. Sulsowa is differently spelled by Miss Hoggan, on page 69, and by the Russian contributor, who ought to be right, on pages 390 and 419. Regarding the oft-asserted "inferiority" of woman, there are two quotations worth repeating. On page 328, Mme. Doria d'Istria remarks: "Before pronouncing woman an inferior species, a simple transition between 'man and nature,' as Michelet has said, it would perhaps be better to wait and see if intellectual culture may not have on her the same effect as on the men of the 'good old time.'" On page 422 Montesquieu is quoted to this effect: "The powers [of the sexes] would be equal if their education were too. Test them [women] in the talents which have not been enfeebled by the way in which they have been educated, and we will then see if we are so strong."

It is to be regretted that a book so good as this should not have been made better. If the editor had arranged his facts in another form, he might have made a volume of smaller size, and it would have been of much greater practical use to the cause that he and his many able coadjutors have at heart. The present index, so called, is entirely unworthy of the book, being worse than valueless. An analytical index ought to be provided.

Oriental Experience. By Sir Richard Temple, Bart., late Governor of Bombay, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and Finance Minister of India. London: John Murray.

THE reports which Sir Richard Temple must have written upon Indian subjects of every conceivable sort during his official career would, if bound together, equal in bulk and magnitude the largest of our encyclopædias. To write a book, and a good book, about India, would, one might think, come as easy to such a man as marriage to a Kulin Brahmin—who can, if he pleases, marry a new wife every day in the week. 'Oriental Experience,' however, furnishes yet another illustration of that principle of perversity which is embodied in the nature of things, and which so incessantly gives the lie to our most legitimate anticipations. It is a book of extraordinary feebleness. Take, for example, Sir Richard Temple's method of replying to those who are bold enough to question "the soundness of Indian finance":

"You hear of deficits, annual deficits, year after year. But these are technical, nominal deficits, and are hardly deficits at all in the proper sense of the word. These merely arise because the sums spent by the Government upon the improvement of the country, upon canals and railways, are included in the ordinary finances. But in no other country in the world are such charges included in the ordinary finances; on the contrary, they are excluded; and that being so, there is in India no deficit whatever; on the contrary, there is an exact equilibrium established between income and expenditure. Upon the finances of the last twelve years there has been actually a slight surplus; and thus it goes on, a little deficit one year, with a little surplus another; and, when you come to draw out the threads of a series of years, there comes out a slight surplus."

Now, no one, so far as we know, who questions "the soundness of Indian finance," bases his conclusion upon so superficial a fact as the proportion of annual surpluses to annual deficits. They question "the soundness of Indian finance" because they doubt the permanent productiveness of the two main sources from which the Indian Government derives its revenues. They say that while the expenses of the administration are perpetually on the increase, the means of meeting that increased expenditure depend upon the enhanced productiveness of the soil and the continuance of the opium traffic with China. As regards the soil of India it is a fact about which there is no dispute among those best competent to judge, that all the best soil has been brought under cultivation, and although, in order to pay the state-demand, inferior soil is being broken up by the plough, this extension of cultivation is seriously encroaching upon the land hitherto set apart for the pasturage of the farm cattle. Again, as regards the better soil, its productiveness, so far from increasing, is steadily diminishing. Sir Richard Temple has himself testified to this fact. In his evidence before the Indian Famine Commission, he said:

"I believe that in many parts of India a gradual exhaustion of the soil is going on. . . . The yield of the crops is popularly supposed by the natives of the country in many parts of India to be gradually decreasing. Be that as it may, I am certain of two facts—first, that the soil in India does not produce nearly so much as the soil in Europe; and secondly, that virgin soil, broken for the first time, in all parts of India, yields very much more than it ever yields afterward. The difference on these two cardinal points I attribute to the exhaustion of the soil."

But if there be this steady deterioration in the fertility of the best land in India, it is obvious that the assessment on the land cannot be kept up at its present high level. In the Madras Presidency, not only has the assessment been stationary for many years past, but it has been saved from serious diminution only by the desperate expedient of assessing grazing lands which have hitherto been held rent-free by the villagers—in other words, by an enhanced tax to be obtained from an impoverished soil.

The other cause which threatens the stability of Indian finance is even more alarming, because likely to be more prompt and immediate in its operation. The Indian Government has always lived beyond its natural income, because it obtained a sum of eight millions annually from the Chinese in exchange for its opium. The solvency—one may almost say, the very existence—of the British empire in India depends upon the permanent continuance of this source of revenue. The Chinese Government has more than once attempted to emancipate itself—by force, as it were—from its bondage to the Indian opium monopoly; but two opium wars have convinced it that its strength is not sufficient to obtain deliverance in this way. It has, therefore, adopted the slower but safer method of growing its own opium. For a time, of course, this new method had no effect upon the market for India-grown opium. It needed that the generation of opium-eaters should pass away who had been educated upon India-grown opium. This has now been accomplished; the Chinese opium-consumers of the present day have taken to smoking and eating the home-grown drug in such increasingly large quantities, that already the Indian Government has been compelled to make a heavy reduction in the duty levied upon Malwa opium, and the revenue derivable from this source has already fallen away to the amount of more than a million sterling. Had war broken out between China and France, and had the French Republic blockaded the Treaty Ports, the traffic would have been entirely interrupted; and so strong is the feeling in England against this particular source of revenue that, once interrupted, it would be extremely difficult for any Government to reëstablish it. Under any circumstances, however, as the taste in China spreads for the home-grown drug, the more costly article provided from India must be displaced from the market. It is only a question of a few years more or less, and if Sir Richard Temple wishes to establish "the soundness of Indian finance," he will have to show what resources there are in the country to compensate for a failing land tax and a precarious and diminishing opium revenue. We know of none.

This passage on Indian finance is a favorable specimen of the contents of 'Oriental Experience.' The essays are, in the main, remarkable for observations which remind one of a certain patter-song that the elder Matthews was wont to sing at his entertainments. Each line contained a statement of fact, quite indisputable, but hardly worthy of being insisted upon with emphasis: for example—"Ham sandwiches are not made of tin." Sir Richard Temple may be said to revel in observations of a similar striking and original character. The essay on "Pan-Islamism" is a real treasure-house of them. This purports to be a kind of bird's-eye view of the present state of the Mohammedan world, and the following are a few specimens culled from its pages: "The Mohammedans," Sir Richard informs us, "have certainly got a general policy, which is this—to resist the further encroachments of the Christian states." Then he adds: "We must acknowledge that this is reasonable in theory." It would be interesting to know at what period of their history the Mohammedan Powers did not have this "general policy," and when it would be "reasonable in theory" for them to dispense with it. Of the Indian Mohammedans, we are told that they "will probably be found to entertain a profound veneration and a keen sympathy for the Sultan of Turkey." "They do not," adds Sir Richard, as though logically the one were the sequence of the other, "care equally for the Afghans." Concerning the Shah of Persia, we are told that he "must be rolling his anxious eyes first in this direction, and then in that." He has been brought to this distressing condition by the "stagnation" of Persia; for, as Sir Richard

Temple sententiously observes, "in a progressive age like this, nothing is more dangerous, nationally, than stagnation." Of Mohammedans generally we learn, a little further on, "that they will evince gratitude, if we succeed in giving them much to be grateful for." The Indian Mohammedans are possessed of this singular but obstinate perversity, that, "though willing to learn English, they insist on learning those languages also in which the history of their faith and nationality is written." "This," Sir Richard is good enough to add, "should be humored as much as possible." Then, a little further on: "It is also essential to render them all the loyal citizens of a world-wide empire, and the useful members of a vast society. We must do all this courageously, without fear of the consequences hereafter."

The foregoing may be taken as illustrating the ripe political wisdom with which this volume abounds. It also contains some curious conclusions of a speculative character, as in his Presidential address to a Social Science Congress. Herein Sir Richard supposes that the British colonies are exclusively dependent upon the population of the United Kingdom for all "light and leading"; and as the populations of the former are nine times as numerous as that of the latter, he deduces the astonishing conclusion that "each one at home who succeeds in improving, or neglects to improve, himself, will influence, for progress or for stagnation, nine other persons, his fellow-subjects abroad." Could there be more delightful reading than this for people of a cynical frame of mind who love to remark with how little wisdom the world is governed?

Beethoven's Nine Symphonies. Analytical Essays by Sir George Grove, D.C.L. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1884. Pp. 229.

Sir George Grove, whose Schubert researches and editorship of the 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' have combined, with various other labors, to give him a place among the foremost writers on music, appears to be endowed with a modesty as excessive as it is rare. In 1854 he became secretary to the Crystal Palace at Sydenham, and introduced, among other things, a series of daily concerts under the direction of Mr. Manns. Schumann and Schubert were added to the ordinary English repertory, notwithstanding the opposition of the conservative critics to the former. To assist the audiences in appreciating the various standard works, Mr. Grove wrote a series of analytic programmes, including Beethoven's nine symphonies. Mr. Georg Henschel has had the good thought to issue these as a volume, and in this form every concert-goer should add them to his library. In a preface Dr. Grove says that he is not a musician, and in many senses cannot even claim to be an amateur; and that these sketches "are written by an ignoramus for those of his own stamp." Whatever truth there may be in this declaration, it does not by any means show itself in the quality of his information, but only in the desire to make his remarks clearer than a professional musician would sometimes think it necessary to make them. In these essays the reader will find full accounts of the dates at and circumstances under which the symphonies were composed, together with analyses of the structure, including illustrations, in musical type, of the leading themes. The critical remarks of Berlioz, Wagner, Schumann, and others are occasionally quoted, but not so often as their excellence must have tempted the author to do. For perusal at home Berlioz's analyses of the nine symphonies can never be superseded; but for use in the concert hall Dr. Grove's work presents certain advantages in the greater amount of historic information and musical quotations.

In introducing this collection to the book-buying public, Mr. Henschel takes occasion to make some remarks on the subject of tempo and metronome marks, apropos of the fact that eight days before his death Beethoven sent the marks for the various movements of his Ninth Symphony to the Philharmonic Society of London. Mr. Henschel has been so frequently criticised for his tempo in conducting orchestral works, that he was probably eager for this opportunity to explain his views. His opinion is, that "the interpretation of a musical work can as little be measured by the degrees of a metronome as can the delivery by a reader or an actor of a poem, a monologue in rhythmical verse"; and he refers to the facts that Bach rarely denoted even the *character* of a movement, allowing his themes to speak for themselves; that Wagner found his best guide in regard to the tempo of Beethoven's symphonies in the *singing* of Schroeder-Devrient; and that Brahms wrote to Henschel in reference to his "Requiem": "I am of the opinion that metronome marks go for nothing. As far as I know, all composers have as yet retracted their metronome marks in later years. Those figures which can be found before some of my compositions, good friends have talked them into me; for I myself have never believed that my blood and a mechanical instrument go very well together." For musical pupils who are not highly gifted, a metronome has its value; but those to whom music is an instinct do not need one. They will never commit a serious error in tempo, although in accordance with their varying moods they will play the same passage somewhat slower or quicker. This is true of creative as well as of merely executive artists, and it shows how much dogmatic presumption there is in the assertions so often made that a certain piece was taken too fast or too slow at a concert.

Roadside Songs of Tuscany, translated and illustrated by Francesca Alexander, and edited by John Ruskin, LL.D. Part I.—The Story of Lucia. John Wiley & Sons.

Accustomed as the world of art is to Professor Ruskin's eccentric judgments, there was not a little surprise in store for students of art in reading the laudations of the drawings of Miss Alexander in his Oxford lectures. The antipathy of years to American art, on account of its newness and want of the ripe estimation of the higher artistic qualities, seems to have melted before a work which is probably more peculiarly American in its character than anything else he ever saw; for while it is entirely indifferent to everything like grace of composition, or composition properly so called in any form, and shows not the slightest trace of any influence of old art or even of modern art such as Ruskin has found worthy of commendation, it has the peculiarly American virtue of mechanical and manual exactitude in great perfection. The figure-drawings of Miss Alexander are simple portraiture, of an artlessness, in every sense of the word, carried to its extreme. Her flower drawing, where nothing but the most literal portraiture is wanted, is quite unsurpassable in line work, for all she does is done with the pen. That her flowers should excite Ruskin's admiration does not in the least surprise us, not only on account of their exquisite fidelity and refinement of execution, which is like the most careful etching, but because they are work in the vein which Ruskin himself has tried with less success; but that he should consider her St. Christopher as the most noble rendering of the legend as he expresses himself in his lecture on Miss Alexander's work, is simply confusion to any one who credited him with perception of the higher artistic qualities. As we have never done so, however, his acceptance of the naïve and absolute *pose plastique* of Miss Alexander's figure-drawing as genuine art, only makes clearer what we have always believed, that Ruskin's opinions in art are a mixture of an acquired and traditional respect for the work of certain great painters like Tintoretto (who never painted detail with any zest, and the admiration of whom is, like Ruskin's religious ideas, so grounded in his nature by his early education as to be ineradicable), and a genuine and intense appreciation of purely superficial qualities of execution, chiefly of extreme minuteness and gem-like brilliancy of color. He showed himself capable of appreciating Meissonier, and used to keep a magnifying glass hung by the picture of that artist which he owned, to show with what exquisite minuteness the bridle of the horse was painted; but he has never found a word to say for Millet or for Rousseau, the greatest artists of France in our day, and in the veins which Ruskin particularly affects.

As for the literary interest which Ruskin has found in Miss Alexander's records of the poetry and life around her, there can be no surprise; for in these days of folk-literature the charm of such fidelity as hers requires no commentator, and can have no better or more sympathetic admirer than Professor Ruskin, whose love of what is pure and true in life and thought is as strong and genuine as his admiration of art is complexed and perplexed. Miss Alexander's books (she made another, previous to her acquaintance with Professor Ruskin, which now belongs to Mr. Quincy Shaw) are works of a kind which, from their fidelity to the inspirations and character of the peasant life in which she has found the inspiration of her own, merit perpetuity.

To those who read the book for the literary interest, the reprint of Messrs. Wiley is of course as good as the original edition; but for the appreciation of Miss Alexander's art it is absolutely useless, and worse: for the reproductions of the photographs of the original edition give no conception of those qualities of the drawings which are admirable, while betraying the faults of composition, *pose plastique*, etc., without any redemption. They constitute the worst form of photographic caricature. Professor Ruskin's antipathy to American methods will probably be greatly intensified by this reprint.

Bound Together: A Sheaf of Papers. By the author of 'Wet Days at Edgewood,' 'Reveries of a Bachelor,' etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

Mr. Mitchell could not have chosen a more appropriate title, for his collection of papers has no more unity than is given by juxtaposition between two covers. Some of them are speeches delivered many years ago at the second centenary of Norwich (Conn.), or at the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Alpha Delta Phi, or at the celebration of the hundredth birthday of Irving, of whom he gives a few reminiscences that lend a touch of life-like humor even to the elegant memory of that august figure; but most of the papers, and all that have the original charm of the writer, are on country subjects—old school days, farm life, gardening, winter furnishings, Fourth-of-July festivities, and the like. But the sentiment that first won Mr. Mitchell his audience—the quiet suggestion, the vague half-regret, half-hope, the cheerful out-door loneliness of a younger heart—forms a much slighter element in his work than was once his choice. Now

he does not fail to tell us what season is best to transplant the evergreens, which strawberry or radish to choose, and how to mix the salad dressing for our White Coss lettuce; but he has plainly given up inquiring what song the Siren sang. The solid comforts of a pleasant home, however, are something more substantial than the reveries of a bachelor, and perhaps the literary result, if less ethereal, is more to the purpose. It is certain, at any rate, that the present volume appeals to a different class of readers from the old ones, unless, indeed, they have grown old with the author. Here and there is a bit of sentimental trifling, a beautiful outdoor scene of quiet English-looking upland or downs; but the book seems meant for those who, with an eye cast back on the past and observant of local anniversaries, are mainly employed in taking care of "their grounds." At long intervals, to be sure, there is a bit of literary criticism, but it is sometimes puzzling: such is the eulogy of Bryant as the one "who wrote of Ulysses as Homer might have written, if he had lived at Roslin and edited the *Post*." To the author's old friends the volume will be a pleasant renewal of acquaintance; it will hardly make new ones for him.

Preparatory Latin Course in English. [The After-School Series.] By William Cleaver Wilkinson. Phillips & Hunt. 8vo, pp. 331.

THE "Preparatory Latin Course in English" is a companion to the "Preparatory Greek Course" of the same editor, which we noticed a few months ago. It has the same general character, and the same excellences in execution, while it shows a readier and more experienced hand, and appears free from some defects which we noted in the earlier work. In one respect, however, the present volume falls below the standard of its predecessor. The two courses differ markedly from one another in that the Greek course is essentially literary, the Latin course historical. Xenophon—if he was a soldier and an historian—and still more Homer, interest us chiefly as writers; Cæsar and Cicero interest us chiefly as statesmen. Xenophon's 'Anabasis,' as Mr. Wilkinson points out, was a mere incident in Greek history, and hardly that in the history of the world. But the conquest of Gaul, the conspiracy of Catiline, and the later careers of Cicero and Cæsar, are events of the first importance in universal history. Now, it is no disparagement to Mr. Wilkinson to say that his aspect is rather that of the student of literature than of the historian; and that, while the literary parts of this work, as well as of the other, are excellent, the historical treatment is quite inadequate. It is not that we differ materially from him in his views. We, too, think that Trollope's 'Cicero' presents a truer aspect than Froude's 'Cæsar'; and we cannot share Mommsen's unqualified worship of success. It is rather the incompleteness of the picture presented, both of the political world in which these two great men lived, and of the work which they did in it. It is well enough to point to the crime in Cæsar's career; but, after all, what we need still more is a just appreciation of his creative statesmanship, of the Constitution of Rome as he found it, and of the political ideas which he bequeathed to his adopted son.

In his selections from Virgil, Mr. Wilkinson was fortunate in having a wide range of excellent translations to choose from; and he appears to regret, when citing Mr. Choate's fine version on page 224, that he had not more of the same quality. Bohn's translations are certainly very insipid by its side; for which reason we wonder that he followed Bohn in his selections from Sallust when he had at hand so fine and idiomatic a rendering as that of Pollard.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. A Brief Handbook of American Authors. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Axon, W. E. A. English Dialect Words of the Eighteenth Century. London: Trübner & Co.
Bartlett, G. H. A Commercial Trip with an Uncommercial Ending. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Beale, S. Profitable Poultry Keeping. George Routledge & Sons.
Benham, Rev. W. Letters of William Cowper. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Benton, Rev. A. A. The Church Cyclopædia. A Dictionary of Church Doctrine, History, Organization, and Ritual. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.
Blackburn, C. F. Hints on Catalogue Titles, and of Index Entries, with a Rough Vocabulary of Terms and Abbreviations, etc. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Blackmore, R. D. The Remarkable History of Sir Thomas Upmore, Bart., M. P. A Novel. Franklin Square Library. Harper & Brother. 20 cents.
Burnham, Clara Louise. Dearly Bought. A Novel. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1.
Clouston, Dr. T. S. Clinical Lectures on Mental Diseases. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Son & Co.
Cope, Sir W. H. Glossary of Hampshire Words and Phrases. London: Trübner & Co.
Crocker, Lucretia. Methods of Teaching Geography. 2d ed. Boston: School Supply Company.
Fetridge, W. P. Hand-Book for Travellers in Europe and the East. 3 vols. Harper & Brothers.
Forbes, A. Chinese Gordon. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Fulton, Rev. J. D. Rome in America. Funk & Wagnalls.
Gautier, Judith. The Usurper: an Episode in Japanese History. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Gordon, C. G. Reflections in Palestine. 1883. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Grove, Sir George. Beethoven's Nine Symphonies. Analytical Essays. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Hartmann, E. von. Philosophy of the Unconscious. 3 vols. Macmillan & Co. $9.
Hatton, J. Henry Irving's Impressions of America. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.50.
Hawkins, R. C. The Books and Printers of the Fifteenth Century. J. W. Bouton.
Hazen, M. W. Complete Spelling Book for all Grades of Public and Private Schools. Ginn, Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Hodgson, J. E. Academy Lectures. Trübner & Co.
Howells, W. D. Three Villages. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.25.
Holloway, Laura C. The Mothers of Great Men and Women, and Some Wives of Great Men. Illustrated. Funk & Wagnalls.
Huntington, L. S. Professor Conant: a Story of English and American Social and Political Life. R. Worthington.
Inwards, R. The Temple of the Andes. London: Vincent, Brooks, Day & Son. $1.25.
Kellerman, Prof. W. A. Plant Analysis. A Classified List of the Wild Flowers of the Northern United States. Philadelphia: J. E. Potter & Co. $1.00.
Kerr, Orpheus C. There Was Once a Man. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.50.
Lincoln, Mrs. D. A. Boston Cook Book. What to Do and What Not to Do in Cooking. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $2.00.
Lotze, Hermann. Logic, in Three Books: of Thought, of Investigation, and of Knowledge. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Lotze, Hermann. Metaphysic, in Three Books: Ontology, Cosmology, and Psychology. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
McCarty, L. P. The Annual Statistician, 1884. Calif.
Mallock, W. H. Property and Progress, or a Brief Inquiry into Contemporary Social Agitation in England. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Miss Toosey's Mission, and Laddie. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 75 cents.
Molinari, G. de. L'Évolution Politique et la Révolution. Paris: C. Reinwald.
Mosler, H. Die jüdische Stammverschiedenheit. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Newport, D. The Pleasures of Home, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Newton, Rev. R. H. The Book of the Beginnings. A Study of Genesis, with an Introduction to the Pentateuch. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Peabody, Rev. A. P. Translation, with Notes, of Cicero de Senectute. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Peep of Day; or, a Series of the Earliest Instruction the Infant Mind is Capable of Receiving. Thomas Whittaker. 20 cents.
Roberts, E. H. Government Revenue: Especially the American System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Roosevelt, R. B. Superior Fishing; or the Striped Bass, Trout, Black Bass, and Blue Fish of the Northern States. Illustrated. Orange Judd & Co. $2.
Ruskin, John. Roadside Songs of Tuscany. Part I.—The Story of Lucia. John Wiley & Sons. 75 cents.
Satow, E. M. Handbook for Travellers in Central and Northern Japan. 2d ed. London: John Murray.
Schoenhof, J. Wages and Trade in Manufacturing Industries in America and Europe. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Sherwood, Mrs. John. Manners and Social Usages. Harper & Brothers.
Son of Monte-Christo. Sequel to the Wife of Monte-Christo. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.
Stirling, A. At Daybreak. A Novel. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.25.
Tetlow, John. A Progressive Series of Inductive Lessons in Latin. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.25.
Toppan, R. N. Historical Summary of Metallic Money. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Fine Arts.

EXHIBITION OF THE SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

IT is difficult to conceive, from anything we can see in the present exhibition of the Society of American Artists, why they should have seceded from the Academy or organized a separate exhibition, if it be not that that dignified institution would certainly have rejected a great proportion of the eccentricities which we find in the places of honor in the present exhibition. Certainly no such balderdash as Mr. Chase's "Young Orphan" would have been hung even in the corridor, and the appellation given it by a morning paper, "a symphony in brick red painted on oil-cloth," only gives the best side of it. It is a pointless, indolent muddle of color, without an element of genuinely artistic feeling in it, in which respect most of the painter's other contributions resemble it more or less. The cod-fish in No. 26, "still life," is his high-water mark and worth all the rest put together, but even that is far from the best-known still life.

The several hundred pictures rejected in favor of these eighty-eight admitted might, if they were conscious, thank heaven that they did not get in; for certainly of all the exhibitions of shallow affectation, empty ostentation, and wasted ability we have ever seen, this seventh annual exhibition of the Society of American Artists is the crown of folly. What is good in it should in charity come first—it will not take long to deal with it. Mr. Alexander's portrait, No. 3, is an altogether admirable work, superb in color, subtle and masterly in character and expression, and without an affectation of any kind—as noble a piece of portraiture as the year has brought forth. It would be difficult in common-sense terms to praise it too much. Mr. Porter's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 65, is not quite so successful as a whole as the portrait in the Academy exhibition. The shadows are somewhat hot; but it is dignified, full of character, a grave and sober work, and one wonders what it has to do in such company as it finds itself in here, while Mr. Lafarge's two little water colors may well wonder for themselves why they should have got lost in this waste of oils and canvas. Mr. Millet's contribution is not up to his Academy mark, though, as always, earnest and classic in feeling as well as form. Mr. Baker's landscape, No. 8, is in every respect up to his prize picture at the Academy, which it much resembles—honest, vigorous, and uncompromising, if not intense study from nature. "A Favorite Model," No. 11, by Mr. Bell, is just what it pretends to be, a naïve study of a model and good work without ostentation. Kenyon Cox's "A Rose," No. 32, is, we believe, a mistake in its way of looking at art; but that is a matter of opinion, and Mr. Cox's may be better than ours. His "Rose" is ugly; her anatomy, if true, impresses the ordinary eye as not so, and the right hip, both in outline and modelling, puzzles the eye of a student, though we will not say that an anatomist might not reconcile it with the skeleton. It is painful as subject, which no work of art ought to be, but it is painted with genuine power and very great refinement of modelling. There is no shirking study in it, and the color, though to our taste not agreeable, is subtle and in harmony with itself. The key once admitted, it is in keeping throughout. The little picture by Mr. Low, "Narcissa," No. 57, is by far the best that we have ever seen of his, and is painted with simplicity and good taste and in a good method. Charles Warren Eaton has an unassuming "still life," No. 41, which, in its way, is by far the best in the gallery. Mr. Lippincott's little portrait, No. 55, is in a happy vein both of color and execution, painted with entire frankness and a facility which does not in the least tend to flippancy. Mr. Volk's "Accused of Witchcraft" is, if anything, slightly theatrical, but not offensively so, and it is really dramatic, which theatrical work very rarely is. A little more earnestness in the carrying out of the idea, and a little less glibness in the painting of the

accessories would have strengthened the picture, which is, with all its qualities, the one subject picture of the exhibition. Mr. Maynard has a small and unobtrusive picture, "The Bride," No. 58, which is charming in color and composition, and, moreover, has the delightful qualities of modesty and refinement, and might easily be passed over.

Mr. Alden Weir contributes two studies of flowers, more than usually elaborate, but in his peculiar subtle and artistic vein of still life, as refined in color and treatment as the scent of the originals of his roses. The best realistic flower study, in a very different vein from Mr. Weir's, however, is the work of women—Miss Clara Stillman ("Laurel," No. 73) and Ellen Stone ("Chrysanthemums," No. 75). The former is painted in a firm and precise manner, but without being in the least over-labored, and the latter with a bold and solid execution well adapted to the class of subject. Mr. Dow also contributes two studies of roses, which are distinctly excellent painting without being at all *hors ligne*, Nos. 38 and 39. A "Sketch," a child and dog, by Eleanor E. Greatorex, No. 47, deserves all the commendation it is likely to get, and its excellences are those which will strike the general public as well as the severer critic. The drawing is spirited, color solid and veracious, with an execution free and simple—an *ensemble* which makes it one of the most satisfactory pictures in the exhibition.

If Mr. Frank Fowler's "At the Piano," No. 44, were one-fourth its size, it would gain four-fold, for a subject of this kind will not bear extension to life-size or anywhere near it without loss of interest. There are certain subjects to which the life-size is indispensable for the full effect of their dignity, but nothing is more unfortunate in a subject of this intimate, familiar character than to be spread over a canvas which requires a gallery to see it in. The ambition to do big things is not a motive for a serious artist, and such Mr. Fowler is; and it is quite impossible, unless we have Rubens or Velasquez to work for us, to get the same completeness of treatment on the large as we get on the small scale. What then can be said for Mr. Donoho's "Mauvaise Herbe," No. 37, which has the most trivial of all subjects —a mere medley of foreground weeds, with a poor and poorly drawn peasant girl wading through them, or, strictly speaking, posing in them, as rigid and rooted as if she were growing out of the soil! It is difficult to conceive that in the hundreds of rejected pictures there were not many better worth seeing than this huge canvas, over which is spread in tenuous dilution so frivolous a theme. As landscape or figure it is equally unimportant, and as treatment not at all above commonplace; but perhaps in the "Society of American Artists" it is accounted a merit to be huge even in failure. Certainly Mr. Chase takes the lead in this competition, his "Portrait of Miss Dora Wheeler" being the most extraordinary vagary in life-size in the collection—crude as color, flimsy as execution, with an intolerable pretence of masterliness which can express itself with nothing smaller than a palette-knife, and which probably required a trowel and shovel in its background and simpler accessories. It is a picture which baffles rational criticism, because it defies all the decorum of serious art—it is the insanity of *chic*, sacrificing the real excellence of execution to the shallowest pedantry of the palette. "The Garden of the Orphanage, Haarlem," No. 25, is only better as it is less harsh and garish in its color. Crude and discordant enough it is, and the near foreground is painted with a liberty, both with art and nature, which is inexplicable in a man who has seen good art. It is not cleverness—it is weakness gone daft, which has poured its mediocrity over these four huge canvases. What bad things the Committee must have rejected! J. Carroll Beckwith, again, has a huge canvas with two little children astray on it—a landscape background raw and unaerial, without any clue in its composition or unity in its impression—if it was intended to be impressionist. The head of the larger child is not without merit in its drawing and a certain intensity of expression, but is painted in a light which contradicts the other child's head, and even its own hands and legs.

Mr. Thayer's "Portrait of Two Ladies," No. 76, has power enough in it to make its frivolous execution and flimsy method inexcusable. The portraits are fairly good, though far from the refinement of type of the originals. The color of the heads is solid, the values, as between the black of the draperies and the flesh, are very true, and the pose of the nearer lady's hands is easy and natural; but where is the arm of the intruding hand of the further lady? and what is gained by the flimsiness of the painting of the hand itself? Mr. Thayer evidently can paint well, but this affectation of the *petit maître* to whom painting is only legerdemain, and better the more flimsy the trick is, to whom the most important thing is to show how little he cares for the sound methods and sincere study which were not beneath Raphael or Titian, is no indication of genius, as so many of our young painters seem to think, but of their own frivolity and insufficiency for the work they have undertaken.

A piece of genuine power and admirably facile painting is a slight sketch by Mr. Turner, No. 82, "An Autumn Day," very suggestive in execution, and perhaps a little studiously insufficient, but excellent in color and in effect. It is well worth comparing with the work of Mr. Chase to show the difference between affectation of slightness and genuinely suggestive execution. Walter Palmer has a landscape, No. 63, which, with too much of the vice of affectedly nonchalant execution which seems to be *en règle* in the Society, has a very remarkable sense of color; and if he would but throw off this fad and acquire a sincere and straightforward method of painting, he would do valuable work. Mr. Brush's "Picture Writer" deserves the commendation due to sincere and manly work, which, if it has not the attraction of poetical associations, has those of honest realization of a subject which has interested the painter, and strikes one with the air of verity due to good realism, in which the painter has put his heart. We are disposed, however, to question the anatomy of the writer's right shoulder. These are not the Indians of romance, but such as the painter saw and studied, and the picture belongs to a class of work of which we have too little and ought to encourage much more, holding solid ground on the historical side of art.

Of Mr. Blakelock's landscapes, which ought not to be passed without notice, it is not easy to decide what to say. That he has great poetical feeling and a strong sense of the unity of landscape subject-matter, is as clear as that he has allowed certain theories of execution to interfere with freedom and the variety of treatment which the varying material of nature demands. The manner of Mr. Blakelock is not new, and the theory of the stained-glass method of using color has had many (and worse) adherents before him, but it has never succeeded in gaining as much as it has lost. Applied to a head, as Page used it, it is at its best; but Titian, who mastered it most completely, never allowed his hands to be tied to that method alone; and Turner's use of it, if sometimes excessive and morbid, shows it at its best in landscape. Mr. Blakelock, and still more Mr. Ryder, push it to an extravagance and to his own weakness.

Bolton Jones sends a landscape, No. 51, of a simpler and more manly style of execution than his contribution to the Academy, and, on the whole, vigorous and luminous work, but the light green in the middle distance, and more or less throughout, is too intense. The high green lights in landscape always tend more to gray, and only in the middle tints is the intense green of spring so visible. Of the remaining pictures we may have missed two or three worth study. The impression of the exhibition as a whole is painful, and not encouraging to return for further study.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 5, 1884.

The Week.

THE nomination of Powell Clayton at Chicago for the temporary Chairmanship of the Convention, by a combination of the Blaine and Logan men in the National Committee, is something for which the friends of good government cannot but be sincerely grateful to "the Blaine crowd." Clayton is a disreputable Arkansas carpet-bagger, who was the "pal" of Dorsey in all the operations which disgraced the politics of that State in the evil days between 1865 and 1873. A worse type of the corrupt political adventurer is probably not to be found in the United States. He cannot have been selected for the temporary Chairmanship for any other reason than the belief that he could be relied on for any ruling however shameless or unscrupulous. In selecting him, therefore, the friends of Blaine make one more display of their disregard of the moral sense of the Republican party, and of their readiness to resort to any means whatever in order to secure a nomination for their champion. In fact, we could not have desired a better illustration of the truth of what we have been saying in these columns, during the past three months, as to the nature of what may be called the Blaine influence in politics. It is thoroughly corrupt and corrupting, has been so from the beginning, and must remain so to the end. This open display of it in the very first stage of the proceedings at Chicago is, however, likely to be extremely useful. We believe it will put the friends of other candidates more than ever on their guard. It will satisfy them that no compromise of which Blaine is to be the outcome is open to anybody who cares for the continued existence of the Republican party. It will, moreover, prepare the voters, in this State at least, in case the Blaine tactics should be successful at Chicago, for the imperative and solemn duty of once more punishing successful knavery at whatever cost, by an overwhelming defeat at the polls. Those who buried Folger under the great majority of 1882, on account of the trickery and fraud of his managers at Saratoga, will, we are sure, do as much and more for any Presidential candidate who comes into this State next fall as the product of unscrupulous dexterity.

If any other proof of the indifference of the Blaine managers to public opinion were needed, it would be found in the fact that the leader of his boom in Chicago, and the probable inventor of the Clayton device, is a Star-route contractor. In fact, it is not too much to say that all the really corrup element in the Republican party is now ranged under the Blaine standard, and is looking eagerly for his nomination. We do not mean to say that it is only this class which desires it, but it is undoubtedly this class which desires it most and is working hardest for it. President Arthur has on his side some of the most prominent enemies of all reform, but it is safe to say that Blaine has all or nearly all those who, besides disliking reform, expect to make money in any way which comes to hand—out of the Treasury if possible, but if not possible, by some evasion or perversion of the law. Blaine's selection for the mission to Peru, during his short term of office in the State Department, of a man who had been convicted while in high command in the army of bribery, forgery, and false dating of letters for purposes of fraud, is a fair specimen of what we might expect were he armed with the Presidential powers. If he did this in the green tree, what would he not do in the dry?

One of the most amusing, but most characteristic, attempts to put a good face on the Clayton nomination was made by Mr. Carr, of Illinois, who warned the Convention "not to put down a man who carried an empty sleeve," Clayton being a one-armed man. The truth is, however, that Clayton shot his own arm off while out hunting, during the very thick of his Arkansas thievery, and the time he was in the hands of the surgeon was probably the only tolerably innocent period of his political career.

One of the humors of the situation at Chicago is to be found in the appearance on the scene of a delegation of three from Typographical Union No. 6, armed with a large number of copies of the *Boycotter*, a weekly journal of this city devoted mainly to the task of persuading people not to read or advertise in the New York *Tribune*, and to hate and despise Mr. Whitelaw Reid, the editor. The work does not seem to have been very successful; so now, as a last resource, the Union is making an appeal to the National Convention to "disown Reid," and not to "admire" him, or "heap honors on him." Should the Convention turn a deaf ear to this appeal, 10,000 votes are to be thrown against the Republican candidate in this State next fall, particularly if he should be Reid's candidate. Some of the members of the Convention are said to consider the affair really critical, but they see no way out of it. Reid refuses to compromise, or go to Europe, or stop the publication of his paper. The end, it is said, is not yet.

The Knights of Labor have held a meeting in Chicago to urge the claims of labor on the attention of the Convention. They are apparently not content with the usual platform declarations about labor, or with the usual promise of a tariff which is to satisfy both labor and capital. They want the Convention to go into particulars and declare for an eight-hour law, a law incorporating trades-unions, a law forbidding the employment of minors under fourteen, a law giving the mechanic or laborer a first lien on the product of his labor, a law forbidding the importation of foreign labor under contract, an employer's liability law, and a law establishing a national bureau of statistics, for all of which there is, of course, much to be said. But what they seek more than all else is the repudiation by the Convention of "the New York *Tribune* and Whitelaw Reid." They demand that the Convention shall in some manner stigmatize the said Reid, and threaten it, if it fails, with the votes of a million of workingmen "throughout the length and breadth of the land." In fact, the Reid problem seems uppermost in the minds of the Knights. At present it looks insoluble. Reid is not a member of the Convention, and refuses to leave Chicago until it suits his convenience, and it would take at least an act of the State Legislature, which is not in session, to get him out of the city. Moreover, the act would probably be unconstitutional, and he would defy it with a habeas corpus. Altogether, he seems likely to cloud the future of labor for some little time yet.

The National Republican Convention of 1880 met at Chicago on Wednesday, June 2. On that day Mr. Hoar was elected temporary Chairman, committees were appointed, and credentials were received. On Thursday the permanent organization was completed, and the chair affirmed the right of delegates to vote contrary to the unit rule. On Friday the contested seats occupied the attention of the Convention. On Saturday General Garfield reported the rules, the platform was adopted, and in the evening the candidates for the nomination for President were presented. On Monday 28 ballots were taken without a choice, and on Tuesday General Garfield was nominated on the eighth ballot of that day, or the thirty-sixth ballot of the Convention. On the first ballot Grant received 304, and Blaine 284 votes, with 93 for Sherman, 31 for Washburne, 34 for Edmunds, and 10 for Windom. Grant gained one on the second ballot, one more on the eighth, and two more on the ninth. On the tenth he fell back to 305, on the twelfth to 304, went up to 305 on the thirteenth and to 309 on the fifteenth, returned to 306 on the sixteenth, and varied only one or two votes until the last five ballots, which stood 308, 309, 312, 313, and 306. Blaine started with 284 votes on the first ballot, fell off to 280 on the sixth, recovered to 285 on the thirteenth, fell off to 279, 276, 276, and 275 on the nineteenth to twentieth ballots inclusive, went up to 281 on the twenty-fifth, and on the last five ballots had 270, 276, 275, 57, and 42. Garfield received one vote on the second ballot and did not get more than two until the thirty-fourth. Then he got 17, which grew to 250 on the thirty-fifth ballot, and he was nominated on the thirty-sixth by a vote of 399.

As a devout Presbyterian, Mr. Blaine must have been deeply pained when he saw by the morning newspapers what a tremendous day's work his friends did for him in Chicago on Sunday. They not only created an uproar which drowned everything else in the city, but, in their official accounts of the day's proceedings, they scoffed openly at the Edmunds men for keeping their headquarters closed out of respect to New England Sunday traditions. In the almost innumerable authorita-

tive announcements which have been made during the past few months concerning Mr. Blaine's religious opinions, he has always been pictured as a devout Presbyterian, who passed all the Sundays of his youth in giving instruction in a Sunday-school. This exemplary conduct has been held up as a "bait" for the Presbyterian vote and the Quaker vote in Pennsylvania, and to this constituency as well as to Mr. Blaine himself the news of last Sunday's work will come as a painful shock.

One of Butler's friends explains his plan of Presidential campaign, and the scheme is Butlerish enough to be genuine. He says Butler wants the Anti-Monopoly and the Greenback nominations simply to give him strength as a candidate before the National Democratic Convention; that he will go into the Convention with a large following who will cling to him as long as there is any hope; when his own nomination is seen to be impossible he will use his forces to name the candidate, and thus establish a basis for a claim; that he will then publish a card withdrawing as the candidate of the Anti-Monopoly and Greenback parties, advising them to vote for the Democratic candidates, and will have himself nominated again as the Democratic candidate for Governor of Massachusetts, in case Blaine or some other weak man is nominated at Chicago this week.

The "Irish vote" appears to be the subject of more or less speculation at Chicago. Many of the prophets assign it to Mr. Blaine, because his mother was a Catholic, because if he were President he would make things lively for England, and because as an ardent protectionist he is opposed to the admission of British goods to the American markets. The President of the Irish National League when questioned on the subject, however, declined to say more than that "Phil" Sheridan would be a good man to catch the Irish vote. President Arthur, on the other hand, is held by many to be more likely to get it than Blaine, being of Irish descent, while Blaine's descent is Scotch, and being a secret sympathizer with the Irish cause, which Blaine is said not to be. The Arthur men, however, probably do not place too much reliance on this last item, for there is hardly any cause with which Mr. Blaine does not sympathize secretly. He is one of the most successful sympathizers on the continent.

Defaulters and thieving bank officers in all parts of the country are, with much unanimity and heartiness, cursing Grant & Ward for failing and precipitating a panic before they had time to gather in their margins and make good their deficits. But it may be doubted whether the officers of the Penn Bank of Pittsburgh could have saved themselves even in the calmest financial weather. The affairs of this institution are most gloomy, but not peculiar. One report says that the liabilities reach $2,500,000, and that there is not sufficient money left to pay the fees of the receiver. It is even hinted that criminal proceedings may be instituted by parties who deposited a few dollars in the bank last Friday, the presumption being that the officers knew at that time that the bank must fail. It looks as though this theory might be sustained before a jury, and, while the trial is going on, evidence may be obtained to warrant some sort of prosecution for the balance of the $2,500,000. Meanwhile it is encouraging to note that "the directors have decided to make a thorough investigation," and that they have put the cashier under police surveillance. More unhappy than the Penn Bank officials is Mr. Bruon, the absconding President of the Hot Springs (Ark.) Bank, who has been arrested at St. Louis in company with a woman not his wife, and whose feelings were outraged by the spectacle of her arrest and imprisonment.

Looking at these numerous betrayals of trust, we are apt to conclude that we have fallen upon exceptionally evil times, and that the world is going to the bad altogether. The truth is that a panic merely uncovers whatever rascality is going on by forcing an immediate settlement of accounts. It proves nothing to the disadvantage of one year or period of time as compared with another. The panics of the past have been equally prolific of suddenly discovered but old-standing frauds. Moreover, in times like these, we are apt to lose sight of the countless array of the honest and faithful who hold our money and property secure at all times, and whose fidelity to their trusts keeps business going and holds society together. Of the hundred or more banks in New York, only four have been victimized by breach of trust, and only one has been actually ruined. Yet every one of the hundred has been exposed to the danger of being disembowelled every day of the year, and many hundreds more of fiduciary institutions and corporations have been all the time at the mercy of somebody. If we strike a balance between the good and the bad, we shall find that the preponderance of the former is so vast and overwhelming, that the latter becomes perfectly insignificant by comparison.

The story told by the Civil-Service Reform Association of Brooklyn about Secretary Chandler's recent doings at the Navy-yard, shows how wise it was for the President not to let him go out to "take the command of his forces" at Chicago. The story is, substantially, that last autumn a veteran of the war who had been put in the place of the chief clerk of the Equipment Department, suspended for irregularities, was ousted to make way for one Biggs, a nominee of "Al" Daggett and "Mike" Dady, the two well-known local politicians; that an efficient messenger was removed without cause to make way for the brother of the President's messenger in Washington; that Mike Dady asked Commander Watson for two places, and was informed that one of them was filled and the other was superfluous; that Mike thereupon remarked that the Secretary said "they might as well have both places," and the places were soon after filled by appointment from Washington; that Commander Watson was relieved from the charge of the Equipment Department, and the Commandant was directed to conduct it without assistance; that when the Commandant declared that this was impossible, he was informed that he might employ any naval officer except Commander Watson; and that more recently extensive dismissals of civil employees were made to make room for appointments from various wards of the city in which Al and Mike had to "fix" the primaries for the Utica and Chicago Conventions. The light which these things throw on the sincerity of Mr. Arthur's pretensions as a civil-service reformer is very painful. That he should venture at such a crisis in his political fortunes to give Chandler full swing is certainly extraordinary, though it is not so audacious as his allowing him to go to Chicago to represent him would have been.

A correspondent of the *Commercial Bulletin* has taken pains to collate the new Pension Bills now pending in Congress, which have been reported or considered favorably by the committees of the House and Senate, and which will probably pass unless stopped by the indignant protest of the taxpayers. The ingenuity of claim agents, so far from being exhausted by the Arrears Bill of the Hayes Administration, was only stimulated by that vast largess. It appears that bills have already been favorably reported which will take $150,000,000 out of the treasury in addition to the regular pension appropriation, including arrears already allowed by law. One of these bills proposes to allow arrears for all persons whose names have been put on the pension rolls by special act—that is, those who could not obtain pensions under the laws and regulations of general application, but who had "influence" at Washington. Another "revives and indefinitely extends the notorious Arrears of Pension Act of January 29, 1879. The latter Act applied only to claims filed on or before June 30, 1880. The pending bill proposes to remove this limitation, and to extend the benefits of the Act to all claims filed since June 30, 1880, and to all claims which may hereafter be presented and allowed." It is estimated that this bill, if passed, will add fifty per cent. to the Arrears Bill, and call for $60,000,000. The most reckless measure of all, and the most dangerous, because it marks a clear departure from all the principles governing pension legislation, is a bill which provides pensions for all soldiers who were confined in Confederate prisons during the war, whether disabled in any manner or not—so that in any future war it would only be necessary to be taken prisoner in order to secure a pension—and also grants pensions to all soldiers who are now in any way disabled or incapacitated for earning a livelihood, whether the disability resulted from military service or not. From this the transition will be easy to pensioning the Home Guards and all those who at some time thought of entering the service, and who were exposed to the danger of being drafted.

The Grand Army of the Republic has been very busy for months past sending petitions to Congress in support of pension, bounty, and back-pay legislation. We have already provided pensions and back pay for everybody who was hurt in any way while in the army. There remain now only two things to do.

One is to pension everybody who ever served in the army, and who has grown older and less active since he left it; the other is to pension everybody who would have liked to serve in the army, but was prevented by physical disability, or the pressure of private business, or who sent a substitute who was killed or has since died. After the public has been familiarized for a while with all this, doubtless a proposal to pension every American citizen, not a criminal, will be received with a certain amount of favor. Much of the existing prejudice against pensioning is due to the fact that in monarchical countries they were in times past bestowed on the privileged few. It would rapidly die out if the pensioning system were, so to speak, democratized, and every citizen got his pension as of right on attaining his twenty-first birthday. Moreover, this is really the only satisfactory way of disposing of the surplus. Every other suggestion would, if adopted, leave somebody out in the cold. This one would give a certain amount of happiness to the humblest individual.

Mr. John C. Eno was brought before the Canadian authorities at Quebec on Monday, and released on account of the insufficiency of the warrant for his arrest. It charged him (under an English statute) with the crime of having stolen money in his possession, but failed, probably from oversight, to add the gist of the offence—that he knew it to be stolen. On his release he was rearrested on a new and correctly drawn warrant. There is some reason to doubt whether Eno has committed any such offence as that charged in the warrant. He has never been charged here with actually stealing money, or with having stolen money put in his hands. On the other hand the code of this State makes a criminal breach of trust such as he is said to have committed "larceny" (Sec. 528), and if he committed larceny in the State of New York, and is found in Canada with the proceeds of his crime in his possession, and the Canadians will punish him for it, it will be a fortunate thing for every bank and trust institution in the United States. The sympathy said to be felt for him in Canada is founded, apparently, on a belief that he is to be kidnapped under pretence of extradition. Nothing could be more unwise than any attempt of the sort; but if he can be punished, notwithstanding the defects in the treaty, by the Canadian courts under Canadian laws, so much the better.

The first day's examination of James D. Fish makes it impossible to look upon him as being in any way an innocent victim of Ward's duplicity. The admissions which he made about his business methods, his profits from the firm of Grant & Ward, and his discounts of his own notes, were sufficient to condemn a man who was under much less suspicion than Mr. Fish has been from the moment of the Marine Bank's failure. He, like all the other men who were receiving their enormous profits from Ward's contracts, never took the trouble to inquire into the real nature of those contracts—what they were for, or how they were obtained, or how they were executed. If a contract was for ten thousand bushels of corn, Mr. Fish did not even take the trouble of comparing the price alleged to be paid and the profit claimed with the actual price of corn on the Produce Exchange. He took his share of the profits, amounting to $407,973 within about four years, on an original investment of $100,000, and asked no impertinent questions except those which he put into his private letter to General Grant.

We presume most newspaper readers will find some difficulty in discovering what was the occurrence at Mr. L. P. Morton's ball in Paris, over which the Paris press and London *Truth* have been making such a fuss. What happened was, apparently, that the Comte de Paris was present, and Mr. Morton asked his permission to introduce a lady to him, instead of asking the lady's permission to introduce him to her, which is what ordinary usage would have required. Somebody seems to have construed this as an offer to the Count, on Mr. Morton's part, of royal honors, and somebody else magnified it into an acknowledgment of the Orleanist monarchy by the American Republic. The Orleans family are watched so closely now in Paris that any little incident that will help, however remotely, to show that their presence is dangerous to the Republic, is eagerly welcomed by a portion of the press.

The proposal of Sir William Harcourt that a large sum of money should be placed at the disposal of the English police, to be used in rewarding informers against the dynamiters, may be a wise one, but its publication can hardly be called judicious. We had always supposed that the British Government had at its disposal plenty of secret-service money, which it could use without announcing the fact in the newspapers. One probable result of the news that there is money to be made by informing, will be that dynamite will be put in all sorts of places by the informers themselves, in order that the police may find it, for it would appear that dynamite may be put almost anywhere without detection. O'Donovan Rossa naturally claims the credit of the latest explosions, and no wonder, seeing how much money they bring him in. If he could get himself denounced more by the English press, or a demand made on the American Government for legislation against him, he would do better still.

In so far as the dynamite policy is intended to affect Irish affairs, there can be little doubt that one of its main objects is to frustrate the attempt at pacification and conciliation which the Gladstone Ministry is making, by disgusting the British public with it. If dynamiters can get the English press to treat them as the representatives of the Irish people, and the explosions as a distinct national refusal to be satisfied with the land laws, they will have carried their first point. There have been signs in one or two of the London papers that they were making some progress in this direction, but nothing serious after all. The majority have been calm and rational. But as a revelation of the extent to which life and property are at the mercy of miscreants, in spite of the utmost police vigilance, the explosions are profoundly alarming, and the alarm is spreading through every civilized country.

Mr. Broadhurst, the working-class member of the House of Commons, has obtained a heavy majority for a bill introduced by him, making another attempt to permit marriage with a deceased wife's sister. The working-class opinion in favor of the change is, in fact, stronger than that of any other class, as it suffers more from the existing law. The inability of poor men to marry their sisters-in-law often produces immense inconvenience and damage to the children. The Bishop of Lincoln, apropos of this, is amusing the scoffers by his explanation of the meaning of the late prolonged series of bad harvests in England. He says they are intended by Providence, among other things, to warn the public to make no change in the marriage law.

The signs that the excitement about Gordon and the Sudan is largely confined to London society, continue to multiply in England. Mr. W. E. Forster, who made a long and elaborate attack on his old colleagues, in the vote-of-censure debate, and even indulged in some personalities toward Mr. Gladstone, has been hauled over the coals for it in very strong language by the Liberal Four Hundred of Bradford, or, in other words, the managing caucus of his constituency. He defended himself on the ground that he only did it once, and that anyhow he must follow the guidance of his conscience. But then his enemies doubt whether conscience has so much to do with it as personal pique.

The London *Truth* has, apropos of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, an amusing illustration of the way the London journals arrive at the conclusion that "the country" is on their side on questions like these. The *Pall Mall* became furiously Jingo in 1879–80. Its editor left it to establish the *St. James's Gazette*. Then it became Liberal under Mr. John Morley, then he left it, and it remained Liberal for a while under his successor, but there has been another change, and it is now Jingo again. Every one of these editors was sure he had the country behind him about foreign politics. The boroughs, however, and the working-class voters especially, are evidently disposed to look on the agitation about the Sudan as simply a Tory device for distracting attention from the County Franchise Bill and other domestic questions. The Sudan and Gordon are in fact just now "the bloody shirt" of British politics.

Baron Tennyson and Mr. Matthew Arnold have joined the movement for international authors' copyright, and the American Authors' League will, no doubt, welcome their offer of alliance. The battle, however, will have to be fought out on American ground, and must be lost or won at Washington. English authors' motives are always suspected by a large number of Congressmen, who, on hearing that Tennyson and Arnold are in favor of protecting authors' rights, will only be hugely delighted, and point to the fact as additional evidence of the corrupt designs of all English advocates of copyright.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 28, to TUESDAY, June 3, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE National Republican Convention at Chicago has been the engrossing political topic of the week. The delegates did not arrive in large numbers until Friday and Saturday. Political headquarters for the leading Presidential candidates were then in full operation. The most noise and boasting was made by the Blaine men, a strong delegation having arrived from the Pacific coast with banners, brass bands, and anti-Chinese arguments. The Blaine men were still more elated by rumored splits on Saturday in the Southern delegations which had presumably been solid for Arthur. The National Republican Committee voted on Saturday evening, 31 to 10, in favor of seating the Mahone delegates from Virginia. This vote was subject to the future action of the Convention. The Indiana delegation voted on Sunday 18 for Gresham and 14 for Harrison, and then resolved unanimously to cast the vote of the State for Gresham. This was a serious back-set to the Blaine men, who counted on a number of votes from that State. The Blaine men, however, claimed the following on Monday as probable figures on the first ballot: Blaine 330, Arthur 290. Their serenity was not increased by a meeting of the Edmunds men on Monday, at which about ninety delegates were present. The meeting was attended by all the Vermont, nearly all the Massachusetts delegates, and part of those from New Jersey and New York, including Andrew D. White, Theodore Roosevelt, John I. Gilbert, and George William Curtis, and portions of the Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan delegations. They believed that their numbers would insure them the balance of power in the Convention.

The Republican National Committee voted on Monday afternoon to present Powell Clayton's name for temporary Chairman of the Convention. The ballot stood 27 for Clayton, 13 for Hoar, 2 for Grow, and 2 for Horr. Clayton is an Arkansas carpet-bagger of unsavory reputation, who led his delegation from Arthur to Blaine. The offer of the Chairmanship was supposed to be his reward. George William Curtis was elected Chairman of the New York delegation on Monday.

Clayton's nomination excited great indignation among the Independents and many of the Arthur men. Early on Tuesday morning a scheme was crystallized for running ex-Congressman Lynch, colored, of Mississippi, as an opposition candidate.

At a meeting of the Indiana delegation on Tuesday morning, twenty-nine voted to present Harrison as a candidate, and it was understood that twenty-five of them will surely vote for him. This action created intense excitement, and promised to upset calculations of the Blaine men.

At noon on Tuesday the great hall of the Chicago exhibition, seating more than 8,000, was filled with a vast audience waiting for the opening exercises of the eighth Republican National Convention. The 820 delegates were seated immediately behind the press, who occupied seats next the platform. The rest of the building was given over to spectators. At 12:24 the Chairman of the National Committee announced that the hour having arrived for the meeting of the eighth Republican National Convention, it would be opened with prayer by the Rev. Frank Bristol, of Chicago. Prayer was then offered. When the Chairman announced Powell Clayton for temporary Chairman, Mr. Lodge, of Massachusetts, put in nomination John R. Lynch, of Mississippi, and thereupon a debate sprang up which lasted over an hour, when the previous question was demanded and the Convention proceeded to vote. The roll was called and each delegate responded to his name. It took about two hours to get through the vote. It was very close, and intense excitement prevailed. Lynch was elected by a majority of 42, the vote being Lynch 427, Clayton 385. The nomination was made unanimous.

The election of Lynch revealed the fact that the Arthur, Edmunds, and Sherman forces outnumbered the Blaine, Logan, and part of Hawley's Connecticut vote by 42, and that of the majority party Arthur controlled less than 300 votes. The leaders in the movement which resulted in Lynch's election were Theodore Roosevelt and Henry Cabot Lodge, representatives of the Independent Young Republicans and of the Edmunds men. On Tuesday evening the indications were that a combination would probably be effected by that wing of the Convention which nominated Lynch on some new candidate. There was a quiet movement for Robert T. Lincoln, supported by good men, and another quiet movement for General Sherman. It is expected that the Committee on Contested Seats will report on Wednesday, a permanent organization be effected, and the presentation of candidates be made. It is not probable that a ballot will be taken on that day.

A committee of one hundred prominent men of this city, appointed under a resolution passed at the Cooper Institute meeting, held on May 20, left on Thursday evening for Chicago, where they will advocate the renomination of President Arthur.

The National Greenback Convention at Indianapolis on Thursday nominated General Butler for President and Gen. A. M. West, of Mississippi, for Vice-President.

The Senate on Thursday disagreed with the House joint resolution appropriating $100,000 for the relief of the sufferers by the overflow of the Mississippi, and adopted a resolution appropriating the unexpended balance of the Ohio flood appropriation, about $40,000.

In the House of Representatives on Monday, Mr. Hiscock moved to suspend the rules and pass the bill repealing taxes on tobacco and fruit brandy, and allowing the use of alcohol free of tax in the arts and manufactures. The Democrats staved off a vote by adjourning the House. Mr. Hiscock will have the floor when this matter comes up again on the first Monday in July, and the Democrats will have to dodge again or vote on the bill.

The Legislative Appropriation Bill came before the House of Representatives on Wednesday. The amount appropriated is $20,736,876, being an increase of $88,190 over the appropriation for the current year, and $938,626 less than the estimates. A motion to strike out the appropriation for the Civil-Service Commission was defeated. A motion to increase the appropriation for the travelling expenses of the Commission from $3,000 to $5,000 was lost.

A Sub-Committee of the House Committee on Agriculture on Wednesday reported to the full committee a bill to establish agricultural experiment stations in connection with the various State Agricultural Colleges. The bill provides that it shall be the duty of those in charge of the experiment stations to conduct original researches or verify experiments on the physiology of plants and animals, and such other researches or experiments bearing directly on the agricultural industry of the United States as may be deemed advisable, having due regard to the varying conditions and needs of the respective States.

The Memorial Day services in this city and Brooklyn on Friday were more than usually successful. The chief feature in both cities was a fine military parade. The procession in this city was reviewed by President Arthur and General Hancock; in Brooklyn by Generals Grant and Sheridan. The day was observed with the usual ceremonies throughout the North.

It was discovered on Thursday that J. O. P. Burnside, Superintendent of the Post-office Building in Washington and Disbursing Clerk, was short in his accounts to the amount of $45,000. The Postmaster-General immediately removed him from office, and he was arrested. It has been asserted that Burnside was a frequent investor in the oil syndicates conducted by the broker Levis, who recently absconded, and that he lost heavily in such ventures. The amount of his bond is $90,000.

J. Nelson Tappan, Chamberlain of the city of New York, on May 22 resigned his office on account of ill-health, to take effect on the appointment of a successor. Mayor Edson on Thursday appointed Henry B. Laidlaw to that position. The Grand Jury recommended the removal of Mr. Tappan on account of the financial entanglements in which he has been recently involved. The resignation was not made public until the day of the Grand Jury presentment.

John C. Eno, the late President of the Second National Bank in this city, was arrested on board a steamer at Quebec on Friday evening, when about to sail for Liverpool. A Pinkerton detective effected the arrest. It is believed that he cannot be extradited, as he is charged with embezzlement, which is not covered by the treaty with Canada.

The affairs of the Penn Bank of Pittsburgh, Pa., are in a very involved condition. It is now thought that the depositors will not recover more than five per cent. The liabilities are believed to reach $2,000,000.

D. W. Middleton & Co., bankers of Washington, made an assignment on Saturday. About $500,000 are involved in the failure.

Three receivers were appointed on Monday in Philadelphia, for the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad, and Coal and Iron Companies.

J. Edward Simmons was elected President of the Stock Exchange of this city on Monday, to succeed A. S. Hatch, resigned.

The decrease of the public debt of the United States during the month of May was $4,763,241 20.

The upper floor of a warehouse in Baltimore filled with cotton collapsed on Friday, burying a number of men. Six of them were killed.

A severe frost on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday nights damaged the crops in various parts of the country. The losses were especially severe throughout New England.

Charles O'Conor's will bequeaths to the New York Law Institute all the bound volumes in his library marked "My Opinions," and all those marked "My Own Cases," $20,000 in money, and two silver testimonials. There are no other public bequests.

The Rt. Rev. Benjamin Bosworth Smith, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of Kentucky, the senior and presiding Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, died on Saturday at his home in this city. He was born in Bristol, R. I., on the 13th of June, 1794, and was graduated from Brown University in 1816. His consecration as Bishop took place in this city, at St. Paul's Chapel, on October 31, 1832.

Samuel M. Shoemaker, ex-Vice-President of the Adams Express Company, one of the pioneers of the express business in this country, and a prominent citizen of Baltimore, died on Saturday.

Gen. Mansfield Lovell, who for a time commanded the Department of the Gulf in the Confederate army, died in this city on Sunday at the age of 62.

Brevet Major-General Henry W. Benham, formerly of the Corps of Engineers, United States army, died in this city on Sunday.

General O. E. Babcock and Levi H. Luckey, with a gentleman from Washington

named Sutter, were drowned on Tuesday off the Florida coast while trying to cross Mosquito Inlet bar in a small boat during a high wind. Both Babcock and Luckey were at one time President Grant's private secretaries, the latter being the former's assistant. General Babcock has been for some time light-house inspector of the fifth district. He was a distinguished officer during the war in the engineer corps, and rose from Second Lieutenant to Brevet Brigadier-General in four years. He was closely associated with General Grant after the war. In 1875 the Grand Jury at St. Louis indicted General Babcock for complicity with the Missouri whiskey ring. He was tried in February, 1876, and was acquitted.

FOREIGN.

The dynamiters were again at work on Friday in London. At 9:20 o'clock in the evening an explosion took place in the basement of the Junior Carlton Club-house, in Pall Mall, by which that part of the building was shattered and four female servants seriously injured. The dynamite was carried down the iron steps leading to the kitchen and cellars. It was placed in the cellar under the pathway, with a lighted fuse attached. The explosion was most destructive on the west side of St. James's Square. The windows in the Duke of Cleveland's house and in the War Office in Pall Mall were shattered. A few seconds later another explosion occurred near by, in front of the Army and Navy Club-house. The lights throughout that building were extinguished and the windows were blown in. The residence of Sir Watkin Wynn, M. P., was seriously damaged by it. At St. James's Theatre, a hundred yards distant, the explosions sounded like two claps of thunder. The audience was seized with alarm, which came near resulting in a panic. They were reassured by shouts bidding every one to sit still, as no harm had been done. Two persons tried to arrest a man who was hurrying along Pall Mall away from the scene of the explosion in St. James's Square. But four men suddenly emerged from a dark corner and released the man, whereupon the whole party hastened away.

An explosion of dynamite occurred outside of the detective office in Scotland Yard fifteen minutes after the two above mentioned. The corner of the building, which was composed of thick brick-work, was blown off to a height of thirty feet. A brougham standing opposite the point of the explosion was wrecked and the coachman injured. A policeman was blown across the yard and was injured. Another explosion in Scotland Yard was averted by the failure of the fuse to burn. Thirteen persons in all were injured by the three explosions, five of them seriously.

At 10:30 o'clock sixteen packets of dynamite, with fuses attached, were found under the Nelson monument in Trafalgar Square. They had failed to explode owing to a defective fuse. Had the attempt been successful the loss of property and life would have been very great.

More dynamite packages were found in Scotland Yard on Saturday. It is of the American make known as Atlas powder.

The Paris *République Française* published an article on Monday severely condemning the United States for allowing dynamiters to complete organizations and plan outrages in America. Henri Rochefort, in his Radical paper, *L'Intransigeant*, offered encouragement to the dynamiters. He called the explosions of Friday night the explosion of 600 years of suffering and misery. James Stephens, the ex-Fenian head-centre, now in Paris, regards the explosions as a dastardly outrage. He says no true friend of Ireland had any part in bringing them about.

The Paris *Matin* has published a letter signed by a group of Irishmen who reside in that city, justifying the London outrages. They say they have no other means to combat England. They insist that Ireland is fighting for independence, and they solicit the sympathy of the French people.

Irish Nationalist meetings were held on Sunday at Mulligan and Newry. The latter meeting had been prohibited, but Messrs Biggar and O'Brien addressed the people as they were leaving the church, advising them to come to terms with the landlords in order to secure their farms.

Mr. Trevelyan has introduced a bill in the House of Commons to enable tenants in Ireland to acquire their holdings from the landlords, assisted by state loans at 3¼ per cent. Mr. Parnell is satisfied with the measure, and it will receive the support of the Irish party.

The Governor of Dongola telegraphed on Monday to Cairo that the rebels to the northward of Berber have completely submitted to his authority. The prospects of Kassala are much brighter. The rebels continue their night attacks upon Suakim, but the Egyptian troops are behaving well, and the rebel attacks on Sunday and Monday were repulsed.

Advices from Kassala, dated April 12, report that town to be completely isolated. The 3,000 Egyptian troops of the garrison had no difficulty in keeping the Hakendos away from the city, as they are great cowards. Ammunition was still plentiful, but the food-supply was rapidly running out.

News has reached Cairo that a new black false prophet has appeared before Darfur and defeated El Mahdi's troops. The new Mahdi says that El Mahdi was one of his former dervishes. He claims the power of becoming invisible at will. A story is told by the natives that El Mahdi sent soldiers to capture the new prophet; but when the soldiers had surrounded the divan in which he was sitting he suddenly vanished in the air.

The Catholic Bishop of the Sudan arrived at Cairo on Wednesday from the south. He reported that seven Italian priests and four Sisters of Mercy had been massacred at El Obeid, and that three priests were exposed naked to the sun for four days and died.

It was reported on Sunday that Berber had fallen into the hands of the rebels. This was denied on Monday, and it was asserted that the siege had been raised, and that General Gordon was successfully holding his own at Khartum.

Germany's colonial policy has formed the subject of frequent letters which the Crown Prince Frederick William has been addressing to Prince Bismarck of late. Apropos of this Emperor William has said: "The last great work of my reign is to establish Germany's social policy. Her colonial policy will be the duty and the glory of my son."

Prince Bismarck opposes the pardoning of Krazewski, who was recently convicted at Leipsic of treason, on the ground that when the Polish parties desired to show their sympathies with Germany Krazewski acted as a spy in favor of France. He was playing the double game of a Polish patriot and a Russo-French emissary.

The Berlin papers contain bitter attacks upon England apropos of the action of the Earl of Derby and Earl Granville in ignoring German rights in the Angra Pequeña country, Africa.

It is again affirmed that Prince Jerome and Prince Victor have quarrelled, the father having desired the son to take a tour and abandon politics. *Figaro* asserts that the ex-Empress Eugénie has given Prince Victor a liberal income, and has declared that she will leave him the greater part of her fortune, thus acknowledging him as successor to the Prince Imperial.

It is officially announced in Paris that M. Patenôtre, the French Ambassador to China, who is now on a special mission at Hué, has telegraphed that the Emperor of Anam has expressed his acceptance of the principle of the proposed treaty with France.

M. Henri Rochefort, the revolutionist and editor of the Paris *Intransigeant*, is making violent editorial attacks on General Grant, charging him with hostility to France during and since the Franco-Prussian war. He also charges that Minister Washburne was the active agent of Bismarck during the siege of Paris, and twice a week sent advices to Emperor William of the condition of affairs in the besieged city.

Comte d'Haussonville, a French statesman and writer, is dead at the age of seventy-five. In early life he was a diplomat, but was driven from public life by the Revolution of 1848. He devoted himself thenceforth to historical and political literature, and published a 'History of the Foreign Policy of the French Government, 1830 to 1848,' in two volumes, in 1850; a 'History of the Annexation of Lorraine to France,' in four volumes, in 1854-9; 'The Roman Church and the First Empire,' in four volumes, in 1868-70. He was elected to the French Academy in 1869, and was made a life Senator in 1878.

It is asserted that the Czar, Czarina, and Czarevitch will soon make a journey into the interior of Russia.

Placards were posted on Wednesday throughout the province of Moscow, warning the Czar that in order to escape his father's fate he should grant a constitutional amnesty to political offenders.

The damage caused by the floods in South-eastern Spain is very great. Four hundred and nine dwellings have been destroyed and 514 injured in the province of Murcia alone.

South African advices state that the Boers have crowned Cetewayo's son Dinizulu King of Zululand. The chiefs Oham and Usibepu have paid him homage.

The Vienna correspondent of the Paris *Gaulois* asserts that there are symptoms of a break-up of the triple alliance, that the courts of Berlin and Vienna are not so friendly, and that there are indications of a secret understanding between Russia and Germany, which may possibly be strengthened by a marriage between the Czarevitch and the Princess Sophia Dorothea, granddaughter of the Emperor William.

News has been received that a violent shock of earthquake occurred May 19 on the island of Kishm, near the mouth of the Persian Gulf. Twelve villages were destroyed, 200 persons killed, and many others injured.

The Newfoundland sealing brig *Confederate*, of Harbor Grace, with a crew of seventy-nine men, was caught in the ice in Notre Dame Bay on April 28, and thrown completely on the floe. On May 20 five of the crew volunteered to travel to the land, distant nearly twenty miles, and report the situation. At imminent peril to their lives and in an exhausted condition they reached Twillingate, boarded the steamer *Hercules*, and arrived at St. Johns on Friday evening. They reported that all provisions except bread were exhausted when they left, and there was no fuel. The ice floe is drifting out to sea and the remainder of the crew, seventy-four men, are in danger of starvation. A powerful steamer was immediately sent to the rescue.

The English Derby on Wednesday resulted in a dead heat between Major F. E. Brace's St. Gatien and Sir John Willoughby's Harvester; time 2 minutes 46 1-5 seconds. The race was not run off, but the stakes were divided.

Lawrence Barrett gave his farewell performance in London on Friday night, in "Yorick's Love." He made a speech returning thanks for kindnesses received in London.

Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere, Bart., died in London on Thursday. He was sixty-nine years of age, and for many years has been prominent in English political and colonial affairs.

THE PRESS AND THE NOMINATIONS.

THE New York *Times* has given notice, in answer to the inquiry of a correspondent whether it intends to support the nominee of the Chicago Republican Convention, that it will support him "if he is a man worthy to be President of the United States"; but that "if he shall be a man who personally or politically, in office or out, represents principles or practices which it abhors," it "will watch with great interest the efforts of those responsible for such a nomination to elect their candidate, but can give them no help." We believe that this is the only sound position at any time for a newspaper which professes to be independent, and that it is a position which now more than at any time since the war it behooves independent newspapers to take. Nothing does more to diminish the influence of the press and to enable even knaves to despise its criticisms, than the too common editorial practice of agreeing beforehand, in return for circulation, to eat every dish, however nauseous or injurious, a political convention may prepare. It is of course open to any man to decide for himself that he will, on grounds of public safety or expediency, vote for a candidate who does not come up to his standard either of integrity or capacity, provided he does it in silence, or, if he defends it, defends it on the true ground. A public journal, however, can discharge no duty in silence. Its function is to talk about what men are thinking most about, and above all to furnish its readers with reasons for doing this or leaving that undone. When a nomination is made, it has either to commend or condemn it, and its first duty to its readers is to make its commendation or condemnation sincere and truthful. This it cannot do if it be under any sort of obligation to applaud the action of a party convention under all circumstances. This it must do if its applause is in the long run to be worth much. A journal which is known to be ready to eat its own words, to make black appear white and white black, to recommend in the strongest terms for the highest office this year a man whom it last year described as unfit even for the lowest, cannot render a party much service except as a spreader of news. Its opinions can hardly have any great influence on the fortunes of a canvass. Readers who seek from a newspaper any assistance in forming a judgment on public affairs are generally among the first to be disgusted by undisguised unscrupulousness, tergiversation, or venality.

These considerations are more than ordinarily important just now. In one way or another the graver issues which divided the American people almost from the foundation of the Government have been disposed of. The party organizations remain, but they are separated far more by temperament and traditions than by ideas or aspirations. Almost in spite of itself, almost for want of any more exciting work, the party in power has begun to turn its attention to the improvement of the administrative machinery, to the infusion, in short, of more honesty and capacity and efficiency into the management of public business. This change gives to the character of our public men, of those who are to give the public service its tone and impulse by standing at its head, and seeing that the laws are faithfully executed, an importance it has hardly ever had before.

The next President will represent more distinctly than any President who has gone before him the idea that public servants must be competent, honest, and faithful business men, and must stand for the national morality in its highest aspects. The heart of the people is set, as it probably never was before, on having in the White House a simple, sober-minded, clean-handed man, who is above reproach both in his public and private life, who has no antecedents which need disguise or oblivion, and who is not likely to involve the Government in scandals and adventures, or build up his own fortunes on public shame or disaster. We believe the Convention will nominate such a man, but we all know that as conventions are now made up, it may not. The nominating machinery has become so elaborate; the Convention itself has become so large, so cumbrous, so excitable, so exposed to great gusts of passion and panic, that there is a chance—it may be only a chance in a thousand—that it may give us a candidate whom it will be impossible for a great many journals to support without dishonesty and degradation, and impossible for tens of thousands of voters to vote for without sacrificing to party the very things which parties are intended to save. For that chance, however remote, it behooves all honest journalists to be prepared. The *Nation* certainly is prepared for it.

QUESTIONS IN THE ENO CASE.

IT seems very doubtful whether it will be possible to hold Eno under the extradition treaty with England. The only plausible ground for an extradition demand thus far mentioned in connection with the case is that he may be surrendered on a charge of "forgery in the third degree." Under the statutes of New York any falsification of accounts by an officer of a corporation, or by any person, with intent to defraud or to conceal any larceny or misappropriation, is forgery in the third degree, punishable by imprisonment for not more than five years (Penal Code, Secs. 515, 525). The treaty with England makes forgery an extraditable offence, and it is now said to be the intention of Eno's captors to test the question whether its provisions cover forgery in the third degree. The difficulty in the case is that a similar point with regard to the crime of burglary seems to have been raised and decided adversely to the claim of extradition in the Lagrave case. Lagrave was extradited from France on a charge of burglary in the third degree, the treaty only providing for extradition in the ordinary case of common-law burglary—*i. e.*, breaking and entering a dwelling-house by night, with felonious intent. When Lagrave was once here, an attempt was made by his creditors to hold him on civil process. He was accordingly arrested, and obliged to give bail. The Court of Appeals decided that this was proper, on grounds which have furnished lawyers ever since with much food for argument, but not because they thought the original arrest lawful under the treaty. Chief Judge Church declared that an indictment for burglary in the third degree was not within the treaty (Adriance v. Lagrave, 59 N. Y., 110). This is because the names of the crimes in extradition treaties mean things, and neither of the contracting parties can, without the consent of the other, by merely local legislation, change the nature and character of the things which are the subjects of the stipulation.

The peculiarity of the law in this State has been, however, that some of the judges have undertaken to lay it down that the prisoner himself cannot raise the question whether he is being tried for a crime different from that for which he was extradited, and not in the treaty. Thus in the Lagrave case Judge Church said that the question was one of good faith between the two governments, and not one for the prisoner to raise on his own behalf. In Caldwell's case (8 Blatchf., 131) Caldwell was extradited from Canada on a charge of forgery, and indicted, tried, and punished for bribing an officer of the United States, which was not an extraditable offence. He raised the question of the jurisdiction of the Court to try him, and Judge Benedict took the same view of the law as that laid down in the Lagrave case, that the prisoner could not take advantage of the defect. The same view of the subject was taken by the same judge again in U. S. v. Lawrence, 13 Blatchf., 295. Other courts, *e. g.*, the Kentucky Court of Appeals, Com. v. Hawes, and Judge Hoffman of the United States District Court in California, and we believe one other Federal judge, have taken the ground that the prisoner must be held under the treaty or not at all, and that if any attempt is made to proceed against him for an offence outside the treaty, he can obtain his release.

It will be seen from this that if Eno were actually in New York, it would probably require a good deal of protracted litigation to determine whether the judges here would adhere to the old and (as we believe) the erroneous view laid down in the Lagrave, the Caldwell, and the Lawrence cases, or abandon it in favor of the later view that the jurisdiction of the courts over an extradited prisoner depends wholly upon the treaty.

But Eno is in Canada, and there the English view of the subject presumably prevails. The English Government has steadily maintained for many years that the New York view of the subject, which was taken up and advocated by Mr. Fish in the Winslow correspondence, was wholly wrong, and they would, therefore, like nothing better than an opportunity to refuse the surrender of a notorious criminal like Eno. They have prepared themselves for such a case by the passage of an act, which we believe is in force in Canada, providing that a fugitive criminal shall not be surrendered to a foreign state unless provision is made "by the law of that state, or by arrangement," that he shall not, "until he has been restored or had an opportunity of returning to her Majesty's dominions, be detained or tried in that foreign state for any offence committed prior to his surrender, other than the extradition crime," etc. (Act of 1870, Sec. 3).

It looks therefore as if Eno would escape, and as if the Queen would have the benefit of his presence in her dominions for the remainder of his valuable life. His crimes are just those which are most dangerous to the prosperity of modern commercial communities, and he is just the kind of criminal that the whole Anglo-Saxon race has the least interest in having at large. The case will evidently further demonstrate the immense importance of an enlargement of the list of crimes covered by the Ashburton treaty, so that there may be hereafter as little room as possible for either diplomacy or litigation in such cases.

SAVING THE PENN BANK.

THE story of President Riddle, of the Penn Bank, published on Tuesday, is perhaps the most remarkable of all the various financial statements put forth since the recent tumble in stocks. As in the case of so many other presidents, his own intentions were the very best, and he proved his sincerity by staking his whole fortune on the success or failure of the bank. To quote his own language, "I was wedded to it always. To me my own pleasure was a second thought to its prosperity. I kept all my money there. I bought its stock whenever I could spare the money. I kept everything I had there and even gave up my health to its service." Yet with all this devotion he has not a cent left, the bank is fairly gutted; and the air is thick with charges and counter charges of fraud. What was the trouble? Just what it is in every other case, "collaterals."

The Penn Bank, according to the ex-President, was based on oil. It had a good business and carried a large amount of oil paper or certificates. Sometimes these were up and sometimes they were down. In 1882 oil was high, the bank was safe, and Mr. Riddle, who appears to have been cashier at the time, told the assistant cashier to see that all the oil accounts were "made up," but this apparently was not done. Returning to the bank after a holiday, the President of the bank resigned, and Mr. Riddle was urged to take the place as "one of ease." With foolish good-nature he took it, and found it not a place of ease, but a place of very onerous responsibility, especially as he discovered that his directions as to the oil accounts had not been carried out, and that the loans were $100,000 or $200,000 more than the collateral, oil having meantime gone down, as oil will do.

Now we come to the great crisis in the bank's history. What was the President to do? He might have called in the loans, and insisted that the directors should make good whatever losses had occurred. But he had a much deeper plan than this. The trouble was with the collaterals; and the trouble with them was the price of oil. The way out of the scrape was plain. It was to bull oil, so that the price should rise sufficiently to make the collaterals good for the losses. He told the directors that he did not see what was to be done unless he could "by personal exertions get a lot of people to buy oil enough to put the price up." He accordingly went to work with a will, with the usual result.

"Many of the individuals who had received information to buy at low rates sold at high rates and took money to the credit of their own accounts. At the time this oil was bought it was currently circulated at the Exchange that this was only a little pool to make up some bad accounts at the Penn Bank, and this was the case. It was work enough to have attempted to do such an act and try to make this money for these accounts, and particularly so when the price had reached the limit of our intention. That I might keep faith with others I insisted upon all whom I had to do with not selling; but many of the individuals did sell in spite of their promises not to do so."

This is, we believe, what happens in almost all bull pools got up to sustain a falling market, and reveals the weakness of Mr. Riddle's plan for saving the bank. When the end came the bank suspended, tried to resume, failed a second time, and is now in a state of chaos; the President, the Cashier, and the oil broker who helped them to save the bank, are all under arrest.

The curious part of Mr. Riddle's story is that it is published for the purpose of exculpating him, and the public are expected to sympathize with him because he has lost his money in trying to save the bank. "If," he says, "the loss of all the money I had, the labor of a life, the loss of a health never robust at the best, is proof of wrong-doing on my part, then am I guilty of wrong-doing." No one would undertake to prove a bank-president guilty of wrong-doing on the strength of such facts as these. The view of such transactions taken by those who think they are very wicked and dangerous is, we believe, this: In the first place, Mr. Riddle's money being all in the bank, his most obvious motive was not his alleged desire to save the bank, but his determination to save himself. To save himself he engaged in transactions which every bank officer knows to be wrong. Failing in his scheme, he makes up a long story in which he figures as benefactor and intending saviour of the bank. It is not by bulling oil or stock that the business of banking is carried on, and it is out of the question to conceive of any bank in which an honest president would resort to such a device out of a mere desire to bring the bank out all right. Consequently, to the cynical or worldly-minded (and most depositors are in this frame of mind just now) what Mr. Riddle calls the attempt to save the bank, looks like the act of a gambler masquerading as a banker, and his "statement" the production of a hypocrite.

AFFAIRS IN RUSSIA.

A YEAR has elapsed since Alexander III. was solemnly crowned as Emperor of all the Russias in Moscow. In a certain sense this year has been the most successful of the three which he has spent on the throne. In the deadly duel between autocracy and the Nihilists, autocracy has decidedly had the upper hand. Its foes have succeeded in striking only one heavy blow during the year, slaying the chief of the gendarmerie, Lieutenant-Colonel Sudeikin, and baffling all attempts to seize the assassins. A Siberian Governor also fell a victim of their vengeance. But their repeated threats directed against the Czar himself and the leading members of his Cabinet, though proclaimed with awful earnestness in the official organ of Nihilism, have proved *brutum fulmen*, while the Government has been again and again filling its horrible prisons with real or presumed conspirators, and emptying them only to send the inmates to Siberia. The number of the deported is immense, and new monster trials are announced. Nihilist conspirators are everywhere—in the schools, in the army, in the navy, in the surroundings of the court; but the secret police, treason in their own ranks, and the numberless accidents which generally foil plotting combinations, have been too strong for them. With all their fanaticism and martyrlike determination, and with all the skill acquired in a decade of secret warfare, they have of late been even more impotent than the Irish avengers in their blind and coarser fury. Whether the serious accident which befell the Czar while returning from a hunt about the beginning of this year, was owing to an attempt on his life or not, has not become definitely known, but he has shown considerable freedom in his movements between Gatchina and St. Petersburg, during a visit to Copenhagen, at the celebration of the Crown Prince's coming of age (at sixteen), and on other occasions. Domestic animosities and suspicions have been smoothed away, and even Grand Duke Constantine Constantinovitch, a corrupt father's more corrupt son, has been restored to grace.

In its doings abroad the Czar's Government has, on the whole, been decidedly successful during the year. It is only in the Balkan Peninsula that its diplomacy, there mismanaged by over-zealous and indiscreet tools like the envoy Yonin and Generals Soboleff and Kaulbars, has suffered a reverse. M. Giers, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, took the defeat with tolerably good grace, and by so doing considerably blunted its effect. In the heart of the Continent the same statesman succeeded in ending the painful situation into which the indiscretions of Skobeleff and other Panslavists had forced Russia, while Prince Bismarck was strengthening and vastly extending his "peace coalition." Russia herself, though the coalition was mainly formed against her ambitious designs and pro-Gallic proclivities, may now be said to have been admitted to it, and it thus really means peace, durable peace, perhaps—in spite of the unnaturalness of a combination which unites in one fold two Powers as antagonistic and as dangerous to each other as are the Empire of the Czar and Austria-Hungary. All danger of a speedy collision being over in Europe, and England finding herself inextricably entangled in the Nile countries, Russian diplomacy availed itself of the favor of the moment to make another rapid advance in Central Asia. The seizure of Merv, a prey long coveted and long jealously watched by the British, was executed with a precision and a firmness of grasp of which St. Petersburg and Tashkend may be proud. There was more in it than revenge for Beaconsfield's Cyprus *coup*. After Merv, Herat is the expectation of the Moscow chauvinists, and the dread of the Anglo-Indian Russophobists. Sarakhs, which lies between, is considered to be already virtually in Russian possession. A brilliantly achieved new loan offers means for fresh enterprises.

More closely regarded, however, the affairs

of Russia, at the beginning of the fourth year of Alexander III.'s reign, are far from wearing a bright aspect. The warfare against the Nihilists has not been brought to a close, either by their submission or by crushing defeats; it is still to be continued with the old fury and with uncertain success. The spirit of disaffection may have lost something of its wild intensity, but it is apparently spreading. And to prevent its spread the Government, besides using merciless repression, has done absolutely nothing. Not a single important measure of reform has been enacted, not a single step in the direction of freedom taken. Every liberal utterance—whether the voice of a provincial assembly (*zemstvo*) or of leading public men, like that of the late Mayor of Moscow, has been violently or contemptuously silenced. The schools, purged and circumscribed, continue to be hotbeds of hostility to the reigning system, students and teachers being equally infected. Fifteen million Christian dissenters are still looking in vain for the removal of their grievous disabilities. The Jews continue to be oppressed by the Government and hunted by mobs. Moslem agitation is rife in the Caucasus. Poland is subjected to new rigors of denationalization. And, what is worse than all, fresh evidences of unbridled corruption or flagrant faithlessness in every sphere of the public service are daily coming to light. "All the employees of the Baku Railway have been arrested on the charge of collusion with Nihilists" is the latest piece of news.

GERMAN COMMERCIAL AND COLONIAL SCHEMES.

BERLIN, May 18.

THE telegraph will have informed you that to-day week the bill for the prolongation of the exceptional law against the Social Democrats was passed by a majority of thirty-two, viz.: 189 yeas to 157 nays. Since the Conservatives and National Liberals were unanimous in their policy of favoring the measure, and since those members of the Centre who belong to the landed aristocracy had joined them, the question was only how large the majority would be. This was increased by some twenty-five Liberals, who apprehended that with such a war cry as that raised by Bismarck the dissolution of the Reichstag would lead to a heavy loss of seats on their side, that higher interests were at stake than a mere party triumph, and that the right course in this instance was to defeat Bismarck with his own weapons. For this reason the Mayor of our city, Mr. von Forckenbeck, a truly Liberal deputy, voted with the majority, and about seventy followed his example.

It is true, Bismarck has attained his end in his warfare against the Reichstag so far as he has succeeded in demoralizing it and in lowering it in the eyes of the people, but his victory is of no practical consequence. Things will go on as they did before: the Social Democrats will be patronized and called out when an attack on the "bourgeois" and the government of the large cities is planned; they will, however, be kept back and suppressed when the existence of the so-called conservative classes is threatened. The old Emperor can no longer be frightened by the insinuation that his life is endangered by the attempts of Social Democrats, backed by the German Liberal party.

I have never seen a more reckless demagogue than the Chancellor. He plays with the fire which must some day consume his own house, and for temporary results sacrifices all other considerations. If the whole socialistic movement had been left to itself it would never have assumed such large proportions, and the ordinary course of justice, if properly administered, would have sufficed to suppress any act of violence or rude passion. But now these men have, so to say, been artificially raised into importance, and trained to imagine that the welfare and prosperity of the country depend on their conduct. They consequently act as if they had to manage our public affairs. Can it be otherwise when Bismarck, in defending his home policy, solemnly declares that every German citizen has an inalienable natural right to employment (*Recht auf Arbeit—droit du travail*)? Can there be a greater satire on the conservative principle which forms the existing basis of society than the proclamation of a so-called revolutionary principle, which must uproot the groundwork of the whole social fabric, and lead to utter ruin? And our squires and squireens, our landed and financial aristocracy, who more than once have been threatened that the next revolution would not stop before their castles and palaces, heartily applaud their master's socialistic utopias as if they would be expressly benefited by them. It was the same right of employment, as you will remember, which in April, 1793, was first proclaimed by Robespierre, then adopted by Babœuf and his followers, to reappear again in Paris in 1848, when the Provisional Republican Government, at the impetuous demands of the workingmen, was compelled to carry it into execution. It is notorious with how little success the so-called *Ateliers nationaux* tried to realize the idea: how hundreds of thousands of workmen were suddenly thrown out of employment when the French Republic became tired of them—that is, as soon as the unproductiveness of these ateliers became manifest; and how, finally, the insurrection of June, 1848, gave the finishing stroke to that measure. Bismarck in his speech, of course, did not mention the origin of his new creed, but referred to the Prussian civil law (*Landrecht*) which, as he interprets it, binds the Government to provide for the subsistence of every man who cannot find work, or is too weak to perform it. The legal article in question, however, only means to institute poor-houses, and to give board and shelter to paupers.

The Chancellor argued that a German general law, frankly acknowledging the right of each citizen to employment, would take the wind out of the sails of the Liberals and Social Democrats, whose objects and alleged pernicious influence he treats as quite identical. The latter, he explained, would be paralyzed in their most powerful attacks on the Government; and the former, by the decrease of sheriffs' levies and executions, would lose a standing weapon of agitation. Bismarck, therefore, wound up his remarks with an appeal to the country not to elect any more Liberals, against whom he felt bound to fight to the last gasp, as their mere existence was irreconcilable with monarchical institutions. On the whole, his speech is worth reading. It abounds in sharp and unjust criticisms, historical comparisons, and views, in demagogical inuendoes, wilful and unintentional distortions of truth, bitter sarcasms and badly-concealed anger against his opponents. The only thing which is new in it is the fact, hitherto unknown, that immediately after the assassination of Czar Alexander of Russia, Emperor William wrote an autograph letter to his Chancellor for the purpose of concerting international measures against murderous attempts with dynamite, blasting powder, and other like processes. The plan was frustrated by England, which positively refused to join in it only a few days before the Phœnix Park assassinations took place in Dublin.

The Reichstag has adjourned for an indefinite period, as all its work was disposed of that could be. Several bills are, however, still pending in special committees, and probably will not be reported before the middle of June. Whether they will be passed during the present session, in accordance with the Chancellor's wishes, is very doubtful. In my opinion, no result will be reached, at least in the case of those which are characterized as the most important, viz.: the bill against shareholders and corporations, and that in relation to accident-insurance companies. Meanwhile, some new bills have been prepared which look to the support of our shipping and manufacturing interests. First, a new colonial bank is proposed, with a capital of some fifty millions of marks (about twelve millions of dollars), for the purpose not only of assisting our exporters by advances on their shipments, but also of making Berlin a financial world's centre, which can be drawn on in marks and compete with English pounds. As far as I am able to judge, such measures are not determined by German statutes, but obey the law of trade, and depend on a great many circumstances over which we have no control. Merchants of middling ability know that much better than I do, and can appreciate that London cannot so easily be superseded in its monopoly. The second measure is the creation of two new German steamship lines, with a yearly subsidy of about a million of dollars for a period of fifteen years. One of these lines is to ply between Germany and eastern Asia, and the other between Germany and Australia. Hitherto our shipping merchants and companies—to their honor be it said—have kept free from state support and refused all offers made to them. This time, however, the largest, best-managed, and best-conducted German steamship company—the North-German Lloyd—wants to have a hand in the pie. It could not resist the temptation of being supported by the Government, and of asking a consideration of two to four millions a year.

According to the plan submitted to the Bundesrath, which, as Bismarck's obedient tool, unanimously passed it without loss of time, the imperial Postmaster-General is to institute and control the proposed enterprise. Mr. Stephan is an excellent officer, and will do what he can to make it pay; but Bavaria and Würtemberg, having reserved to themselves all postal rights, and consequently not contributing a cent toward defraying the common German Post-office expenses, will be free of any contribution, and gain post-office accommodations without footing the bill. In this way majorities are manufactured! Our communications with eastern Asia and Australia have until now been quite sufficient. The Hamburg lines of steamers are perfectly competent to do all the freight business. Our trade with these countries is still small. In order to freight their steamers fully in going out, they have to call at London, Antwerp, and Lisbon, and must often wait nearly a week before obtaining a full load. By competition with the Government they will lose heavily, if they are not driven out of the market. The postal service has thus far been attended to by English and French steamers via Suez, and they have never been complained of. It would, therefore, be a lavish expenditure of money if we should pay four millions a year in order to have a probably quicker and independent mail line for a few dozen German firms in the East. The game is not worth the candle. I apprehend, nevertheless, that the bill will obtain a majority. There is at present a vague and obscure notion

in the German mind that we must have colonies, and keep the emigrated Germans in constant contact with the mother country. So-called colonization societies are springing up like mushrooms; some 20,000 unsophisticated Germans pay three or even six marks a year to have a colony of their own, and so turn the tide of emigration away from the United States. The most ludicrous schemes are floated, that will not bear the least scrutiny. The enthusiasm among the smaller manufacturers for the new colonial bank is quite wild. They manifestly imagine that if it be established they will obtain money more easily and cheaply.

Let me, in conclusion, report a very gratifying fact. Dr. Robert Koch, the celebrated physician, has safely returned from his trip to Egypt and India, where he discovered and examined the bacilli which transport the virus of the cholera. It was a scientific conquest, undertaken with great danger and hardship to himself, but beneficent to humanity at large. Koch was of course wined and dined by his colleagues and friends; but the Government, too, was not behind in acknowledging his great merits. Apart from the crosses with which he was decorated, as if he had distinguished himself in battle before the enemy, the Government asked for Koch the more substantial reward of 100,000 marks, and for his followers of 35,000 in all. The Reichstag of course passed the bill unanimously, in the shortest possible time, and without debate. † † †

Correspondence.

THE ELECTION OF ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 29th inst. you say:

"The action of the Democratic majority in Congress on Thursday, in voting to admit a contestant to a seat to which on the previous day they had voted that he had no right, was a very scandalous performance."

These remarks have reference to the English *vs.* Peelle contested election case, and clearly imply that the *same* Democrats who voted against English one day voted for him the next; and also imply, when read in connection with the closing sentence of the paragraph from which they are taken, that the Democrats of the House voted for Peelle one day and for English the next. This would, indeed, have been "a *very* scandalous performance."

Is it possible, however, that the writer of the paragraph referred to really believed the facts to have been such as he intended his readers to suppose them to have been? Did he not know that *not one* Democrat who voted for Peelle one day voted for English the next? If he did not know this, why was he wilfully ignorant of facts so easy to ascertain? It will be a painful surprise to many who, irrespective of party, have admired the candor and fairness of the *Nation* in the discussion of political questions, to find that in this Presidential election year it can descend to the level of its "esteemed contemporaries," and be guilty of what they cannot but regard as "a very scandalous performance."

Very respectfully, G. W. Dargan.

House of Representatives U. S.,
Washington, D. C., May 30, 1884.

CIVILIZING AGENCIES IN KENTUCKY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remark in last week's issue, that "the tenacity with which traditions of savagery hold their own in States like Kentucky, in spite of the church, the press, and the railroads, is a curious subject which it would take Herbert Spencer to investigate," suggests inquiries regarding the potency of these and other agencies in neutralizing such traditions, or in any manner producing social changes. As Mr. Spencer may not be able to give his attention to the study of social phenomena in Kentucky, it is desirable to have observers upon our own soil.

The church in Kentucky doubtless helps, as it does everywhere, to keep up the struggle against evil, and does much to prevent society from becoming worse than it is. No statistics can indicate the power or value of the wholesome influences exerted by religion, but there are in all communities many persons who are not in any considerable degree affected by these forces.

The area of Kentucky is about 40,400 square miles. The population in 1860 was 1,155,484, and there were 570 miles of railroad, or one mile of railroad for seventy-one square miles of area, and for 2,027 inhabitants. In 1880 the population was 1,648,690, and there were 1,807 miles of railroad, or one mile of railroad for twenty-two square miles of area and for 912 inhabitants. In 1860 there were seventy-seven periodicals of all kinds in the State, and last year there were 208. It appears to me doubtful whether there has been time for either the press or the railroads to exert an appreciable influence upon Kentucky traditions of any kind. Is there evidence that either of these agencies has anywhere extirpated or modified traditions of similar character or vitality? Railroads may produce such an effect if they bring into any region enough people with new traditions to form a new community, especially if they carry away and disperse in other lands a large proportion of the inhabitants holding the old traditions. Such traditions have often been modified and displaced by great wars, pestilences, famines, and tribal emigration.

I think the influences connected with business are sure to destroy these and all other distinctive Kentucky traditions. Whatever is gained, some things will be lost. There will be fewer homicides of the kind referred to; there will be less courage and less truthfulness in the new types of character than in the old. Social vitality or enjoyment, and the sense of personal honor, will decline, and avarice will in increased degree control social and public life. I think the good people in the State of Kentucky are as good as can be found anywhere, and as numerous in proportion to the whole population. Personal quarrels are more homicidal than in New England. The degradation of a blow and of an accusation of falsehood is intolerable to Kentuckians, while here it is often but slightly felt. The new business civilization is likely to develop its own type of homicide. Whether Kentucky or another part of our country is the more desirable as a home, is a question which people of different tastes will naturally answer differently. Judge Reid's martyrdom is a very sad one. It may help to develop a stronger feeling against such brutality as produced it. The method of social growth by martyrdom is costly and seems clumsy and wasteful, but, apparently, it has always been necessary.—I am, very truly yours,

J. B. Harrison.

Franklin Falls, N. H., May 29, 1884.

THE ABUSE OF BANK PROXIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Recent events have so emphasized attention to the checks and safeguards provided by the National Banking Law, that I venture very briefly to point out what I think is one of its most serious defects.

I allude to the fact that no provision of the law opposes the use on the part of bank officers at annual elections of *perpetual proxies*—a custom prevailing very extensively, and, I believe, almost universally. I am myself conversant with cases where proxies of sixteen years' standing, carelessly given, are still annually used at elections without the knowledge of the maker; and I know of one case where a general proxy was used for a number of years, then laid aside for two years, during which the maker ceased to be a stockholder, and then again used on the maker's name again appearing on the stock list.

I am not unmindful of the readiness with which proxies are given to those in control; but there is a conservative influence in the very fact of an annual application to the stockholder for an expression of confidence and approval. The want of confidence will often be expressed, not so much by affirmative and organized opposition as by the withholding of proxies; and this in itself calls attention to the fact, and works silently the remedy. I speak from some extended experience in corporate administration, and find but one expression on the part of prudent men as to the value of a provision in the banking law which would limit the use of a proxy to a period of sixty days succeeding its date.

Perhaps if such a provision were embraced in our railway laws, we should have less of underhanded leases, consolidations, and bond issues than we have been accustomed to have. L.

St. Louis, May 29, 1884.

"I ALLOW."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reference in the note on the 'Glossary of Hampshire Words and Phrases' (No. 987, p. 468) to the use of the word *allow* reminds me of a peculiar use of the same word in some parts of Ohio, notably in Hardin County, where I spent a few weeks in 1862. It was almost universally used instead of *intend*: thus, "I *allow* to go home to-morrow." A little girl watching her brother dawdling over some work in the garden, warned him of paternal intentions in these words: "Pap 'lows to whip yĕ if yĕ don't pitch in." If the little girl had lived in Maine she would perhaps have expressed herself thus: "Father is goin' to give you a good lickin' if yĕ don't work smart." The word *smart* would be reserved by the Hardin County people for the combination *right smart*, and one might hear a farmer boast of raising "right smart of oats."

Chas. G. Atkins.

Bucksport, Me., May 29, 1884.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Company publish this month 'Lal,' a novel with a tendency, as the Germans say, by Dr. Wm. A. Hammond.

Funk & Wagnalls have in press 'Pastoral Theology,' by Professor James M. Hoppin; and a popular 'Life of Wycliffe,' by John Laird Wilson.

S. W. Green's Son announces for early publication 'The Evolution of a Life,' being the memoirs of Major Seth Eyland, sometime Captain of the First New York Mounted Rifles.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready 'The Labor Value Fallacy,' a discussion of Socialism and of Henry George's Theories, by M. L. Scudder, jr.; and 'The Times of Alchemy,' the sixth and concluding volume of the "Surgeon's Stories."

The Olmstead collection of Joel Barlow's literary remains, described at length in the *Evening Post* last winter, has come into the possession of Mr. Charles Burr Todd, and will be incorporated in a life of the poet on which he has been engaged for several years. The work will probably be published next winter.

Cassell & Co. are the publishers of 'Greater London,' by Edward Walford. The first volume is in all respects conformed to the series of 'Old and New London,' and those who are familiar with the latter work can form a very just idea of the present. The literary quality of Mr. Walford's writing is not remarkable, and it would be tiresome to read these chapters continuously, so crowded are they with facts and so little alluring in style. As a book of reference which may be agreeably consulted on occasion, this antiquarian and topographic survey of the outer zone of the Metropolitan Police District—the part of London not yet solidly built over with brick and mortar—is to be commended, especially to the owner of 'Old and New London.' One sojourning in the British metropolis for a few months would also find 'Greater London' a valuable upper-grade guide to places of interest. The illustrations are numerous, and many are from old designs and prints; but the engraving even of those which represent existing scenes has a crudeness that speaks of a bygone age, and not a few must have done service in other publications for many years.

The same publishers send us their new 'Illustrated Guide to Paris,' a handy volume in which the dictionary plan is successfully combined with general discourse of a practical kind. Full attention is given to the various routes from England, and several short excursions in and about the city are described for the benefit of tourists pressed for time. There are woodcuts, plans, etc., and a folding map which indicates the main features of Paris; it would have been well also to insert a number of maps occupying a page, to show on a large scale the more important sections. The index is sufficient if not generous.

Mr. Walton Van Loan, Catskill, N. Y., has issued a very pretty and helpful 'Bird's-eye View of the Mountain Resorts of New York State,' in which the lakes and rivers stand out in white from a drab ground. The view embraces the Thousand Islands, Ottawa, and Montreal on the north.

Root & Tinker send us a lithographic portrait of Col. Richard M. Hoe, which makes one of their series of "Men of Mark." Without being a work of art, this appears to us to be a very satisfactory likeness.

The eighth volume of Gardiner's 'History of England,' revised edition, contains the years 1635 to 1639, ending with the troubles in Scotland which preceded the Bishop's War. The two most important subjects treated in this volume are Wentworth's government of Ireland, and the Ship-money controversy. In regard to the Irish question, we have the sagacious remark (p. 65) that Wentworth's "life work was contention, not so much for the Royal authority as for the supremacy of intellect," and yet, he adds, "if Wentworth saw things to which the Irish people were blind, they too, in their turn, saw things to which he was blind, with all his wisdom." The chapter upon "The Constitutional Opposition" (chap. 84) contains the conclusion of the Ship-money affair. The tax was a necessary one, he holds, and the money was honestly devoted to the purposes for which it was raised; but it was levied in a way which was subversive of the liberties of the country, and this for the reason that Charles dared not summon a Parliament. To do this "would be to endanger the success of his ecclesiastical policy, and he had no mind to run the risk" (p. 269). This volume contains no material alterations, except that it begins with a chapter (Ireland under St. John and Falkland) which is expanded out of a few pages in the earlier edition.

A privately printed monograph on the medals of Giovanni Cavino, by Richard Hoe Lawrence, is an exhaustive study of one of the best sixteenth-century imitations of ancient coinage, and is sound testimony of the growth of specialistic culture of the arts among our men of leisure and means. Studies like this have a peculiar value as leading to a larger and more human interest in the bewitching study of numismatics than that of classical coinage in general would develop, fascinating as it is; and this monograph does Mr. Lawrence great credit.

In 1825 Angelo Mai, the celebrated philologist, published his catalogue of the Oriental manuscripts in the Vatican library. Since then, until lately, the work of cataloguing has been suspended. Under the pontificate of Leo XIII. a new state of things has prevailed, and by this Pope's direction, as a part of his liberal plan of opening the treasures of the Vatican to scholars, the cataloguing has been resumed, and it is announced that the Greek and Latin manuscripts are in great part catalogued, and that two volumes devoted to the Palatine Greek and Palatine Latin will be published in a short time.

The first annual report of the Wharton School of Finance and Economy in the University of Pennsylvania has just been published. It appears that detailed courses have been offered during the past year in the political and constitutional history of the United States, in theoretical and applied political economy, in public finance and administration, and in mercantile law and practice. Special attention has been paid to the practical questions of American finance—national, State, and municipal—and of American administration. It is interesting to note that the senior class, though small, is made up entirely of college graduates. It includes four graduates of the University of Pennsylvania (one having graduated in 1871 and being at present a member of the State Senate of Pennsylvania), and one graduate of the University of Tokio, Japan. Of this class, one intends to devote himself to politics, one to journalism, and one to the civil service of Japan, while two are undecided as to their future careers. Dr. E. J. James, Professor of Public Finance and Administration, is engaged in preparing an elaborate work on 'Taxation and Other Sources of Public Revenue,' which is expected to appear before the close of the year.

— In view of the positions taken by Professor Adams in the *Contemporary Review*, and by Professor Rogers in the *North American*, on the subject of international obligations for the suppression of dynamite plots, it is interesting to observe the facts in regard to the traditional policy of England as given in the second volume of M. Paul Bernard's work on Extradition—a work of so much importance that it was last year crowned by the French Academy. This author shows with what consistency England has adhered to the doctrine formulated by Palmerston in 1853, that "England has never undertaken to provide for the internal security of other nations." The apparent exceptions to this rule appear to have occurred either from reasons of friendly comity or from political reasons, and not from any acknowledged international obligations. The obligation, for example, to prevent enlistment in an army of a foreign Power with which England may be at peace, is regarded as a municipal rather than an international obligation. The doctrine of Bynkerschoek, "that the common law of nations does not impose upon a neutral state any obligation to prohibit the agents of a foreign Power which is at war with another foreign Power from enlisting men within its territory," is the international doctrine accepted by the English Government. At the same time it is held, in accordance with the same eminent authority, that "a neutral state *has a right, if it thinks fit*, to prohibit such raising of men for warlike purposes." In the exercise of this right England passed her Foreign Enlistment Act, and theoretically the Government tries to prohibit such enlistments. But her efforts are theoretical only. In 1860 Lord John Russell declared in the House of Commons that, at the moment when he was speaking, recruiting was going on in one part of London for Garibaldi against the Pope, and in another part for the Pope against Garibaldi. And yet the Government held that in this failure to enforce the law there was no infraction of international obligations, but simply, if we may so express it, something like a failure to enforce a Maine Liquor Law, in regard to which no foreign Power had any right to complain. The same view is held in regard to the extradition of conspirators, and in regard to the punishment of persons engaged in plottings against the people of a friendly Power. England has sometimes arrested and brought persons accused of such conspiracy to trial, but far more frequently the Government has declined to do so. But the question whether such arrests should or should not be made has been settled on national and political rather than on international grounds.

— M. Bernard (ii., 292-5) gives a very interesting and suggestive array of instances in proof of England's traditional attitude. In June, 1852, the police of Paris discovered a factory that was devoted to the making of infernal machinery for a general carnage in the following August. The correspondence that was seized showed that the inspiration came from London, and that the chief conspirator had been sent out by the "Democratic Committee," of which Ledru Rollin and Mazzini were the chiefs. In 1854 Magen received asylum at London. In the same year Déron, the instigator of a plot to blow up a train on the Northern Railway in France, found safe refuge in the English capital. A still more notable case was that of Pianori, who was condemned for having fired two shots point blank at the Emperor, but who succeeded in escaping to London, where he received hospitality, and was rewarded for his daring by Mazzini. The "Democratic Committee" caused a medal to be struck in honor of the attempt to assassinate the Emperor in the Champs Élysées, and, in a public meeting held to consider the event, orators commended the assault and deplored the death of the assassin as a martyr. When the police got wind of the plot concocted by Tibaldi, Grilli, and Bartolotti, the assassins sought and found a safe retreat in the great northern asylum. The notorious Pyat, just before the attempt of Orsini, hurled his warning defiance at the Emperor from London. In that "Manifesto of Assassination" he said: "In spite of all your precautions, in spite of your Chinese walls, your ports of entry, and your sanitary cordons, we shall come into your streets and shall appear before your eyes. You know that it is from London that we issue our thunderbolts and our water-spouts. Yes, the instigators of your woes live in England. England is the guilty one, the receiver of stolen goods, who at once protects us and goads us on." After the affair of the Rue Lepelletier, in which ten persons were killed and a hundred and fifty-six wounded, this same devil's advocate published a "Letter to Parliament and the Press" in glorification of such infernal methods. Another orator called out, "When will some heroic hand close the bloody account? Is it not time to avenge the dead and save the living? When a man raises himself above public justice he ought to fall before private vengeance." Even in 1871, when several of the Communists who had committed indiscriminate murder and arson succeeded in escaping to London, the Eng-

lish Government refused to depart from the line of conduct they had hitherto followed. Again and again the French Government, while admitting the right of political asylum, asked whether the English Ministers did not confound political crimes with violations of moral obligations that are universally binding. The answer was invariably either a denial or an evasion. In the light of these facts, as given by M. Bernard, we can hardly fail to appreciate the remark of the *Saturday Review* for April 19, when it says: "Nothing can be more natural than the wish generally felt here to see the agitators crushed, but it shows a certain want of imagination to suppose that the American Government is likely to undertake the task. To make the proposal would indeed be simply asking it to do what we have steadily refused to do ourselves." The same paper, after referring to the encouraging shelter given to Mazzini, "who," it says, "defended political assassination as heartily as any Irishman, and who did his best to practise it"; and after remarking that Hertzen was allowed to publish his infamous *Kolokol* in London, further says: "No request for its suppression would have been listened to a moment."

—The progress of a great American collection, even if it be temporarily housed abroad, should interest all of us. We have already had occasion to speak of the remarkable, almost unrivalled, Petrarch library of Prof. Willard Fiske, now a resident of Florence. The catalogue published on the eve of his departure was quickly made imperfect by fresh acquisitions, and among the very latest are some that deserve recording. Professor Fiske has purchased two more fine MSS. of the 'Rime,' an utterly unknown printed edition of 1523 (Venice, Gregorius de Gregoriis), the rare Valgrisi *duodecimo* edition of 1558 (Venice), the rarish folio edition of Albertino da Lissona (Venice, 1503), the uncommon Soncino (Fano) edition of the same year, with the sometimes-omitted dedication to Cesare Borgia, a second copy of the first Aldine edition (1501), printed on vellum; the first edition of Petrarch's treatise 'De vera sapientia' (Zwolle, Holland, *circa* 1485); a quarto edition of the 'De remediis utriusque fortunæ,' without place or date, and wholly unknown to the bibliographers; the oldest known specimens of Petrarch *centoni* by Valerio da Bologna, printed in 1520 (Professor Ferrazzi, in his 'Bibliografia Petrarchesca,' states that none existed before 1530); the original autograph MS. of a commentary on Petrarch by Peregrinus Moratus, a Ferrarese professor, written about 1520, which Tiraboschi and others speak of as lost; the Spanish version, by Peña, of Petrarch's 'De vita solitaria,' printed at Medina del Campo in 1553—an exquisite copy, bought at the Hamilton sale just concluded in London; a copy of the German version of 'Griselidis' printed by Zainer at Ulm in 1471, consisting of eleven folio leaves illustrated by ten remarkable woodcuts and engraved marginal arabesques; an edition of the 'Trionfi' printed at Florence in 1507, *a petitione di Ser Piero Pacini*—an edition of which the bibliographers were ignorant until the publication in 1874 of Hortis's catalogue of the Rossetti collection of Petrarchiana, so that now two copies are known to exist, whereas, curiously enough, of the previous Pacini edition of the 'Trionfi' (Florence, 1499) only a single copy, viz., that in the Victor Emmanuel Library at Rome, is extant. Both these editions have illustrations ascribed by some to Botticelli, by others to Baldini or Mantegna. Professor Fiske has also had the good fortune to receive as a gift from Professor D'Ancona, of Pisa, all his duplicates—among them several brochures hard to get. A new catalogue would still seem to be premature, yet Professor Fiske had hoped to have one issued before now, and only the state of his health has, we regret to say, prevented it.

—It must be a very narrow literary taste that would fail to find the revived *Mélusine* of MM. Gaidoz and Rolland enjoyable in a high degree. The first two numbers (April 5, May 5) are before us, and are simply charming. The very name of this monthly presents a fascinating problem for the philologist, and has occasion to be discussed in noticing Dr. Desaivre's 'Le Mythe de la Mère Lusine (Meurlusine, Merlusine, Mellusigne, Mellusine, Mélusine, Méleusine).' For the present, M. Gaidoz tell us that one may choose for himself among all these forms, in default of a documentary pedigree. If there is variety in the name, so also is there in the contents of *Mélusine*, beginning with a hint on the importance of popular juridical usages. The ordeal is cited as in point by a correspondent, who tells of the late prevalence of the trial by water for witches among the Montenegrins and Herzegovinians: to sink is to be innocent; to float, to be condemned. Two bits of folk-lore follow, one, from the Haute-Loire, concerning the origin of fleas. The good God, walking with St. Peter on the banks of that stream, sees a dreadfully bored, as well as ragged, young woman basking in the sun; and perceiving that her *ennui* comes from her idleness, he draws a handful of fleas from his pocket and throws them on her, saying, "Idleness is the mother of all the vices: there is something to occupy you." The rainbow is next made the subject of an exhaustive comparative study—as to its names in different languages (an amazing list); as to the notion that it draws water, which is confirmed by many extracts; as to its having a treasure buried under its ends; as to its being a ladder, a bridge; as to its ominous qualities, its transmuting objects into gold, its changing the sex, etc., etc. The subject is continued in the second number, where also the Great Dipper is treated in a similar manner. Folk-songs are still another feature, and very taking specimens are "La Légende de Pontoise," "La Magicienne," and one quite characteristic of the manners of its age, "Germaine." Most interesting of all, for some readers, will be M. Anatole Loquin's "Notes and Notelets on Our Popular Melodies," of which the thesis is: "In our MS. as in our printed collections of the 15th, 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, and even of the 19th, are to be found a vast majority of the melodies published nowadays as indigenous and peculiar to this or that province." M. Loquin gives as an example "The Devil's Surprises," music and words, assigning the former to the second half of the 16th century; and he promises others. We might say more, but we have said little if we have not shown that a franc's worth of pleasure is to be got from each number of *Mélusine*, and that the editors know how to give a literary allurement to their special science. The office of publication is at No. 6, rue des Fossés Saint-Bernard, Paris.

—There is an alluring mysteriousness about the origin and composition of the Song of Songs—about its authorship, character, unity or complexity, and the class of poetry to which it properly belongs—which, inside and outside of the sphere of Bible students, provokes constant attempts at analysis and exposition. The latest attempt of the kind—a very attractive but not very learned one—is by an amateur in this critical field, but a veteran in others, Professor Friedrich Bergmann, of the University of Strassburg, who now, after almost half a century's wanderings through northern and western domains of literature, returns to Semitic studies, with which he began his career. His translation of the Song, with introduction and notes, appears jointly with a similar reproduction of Ecclesiastes in a little volume bearing this rather queer double title: 'Eine Kette von Liedern (bisher das Hohelied Salomos betitelt) und Der Greis Salomo (bisher der Prediger Salomo benannt)' (Strassburg). We soon learn that 'Chain of Songs means to be a literal rendering, on new etymological grounds, of the Hebrew words generally rendered Song of Songs—just as 'The Old Man' is substituted as a new rendering for The Preacher, or Ecclesiastes. The first title also shows that the author does not believe in the dramatic unity of the charming idyllic work ascribed by the fancy of collectors to King Solomon. He goes, in fact, to the very opposite extreme in breaking it up into as many independent little songs, more lyric than idyllic in character, as can possibly be discovered in it. He considers the songs to have been severally composed during the Macedonian period, in the third and second centuries B. C., and the 'Chain' to have been formed by collectors without a plan. We thus get, in a free and pleasingly rhythmic translation, brief erotic pieces, headed "Geheimer Mädchenwunsch" (Cant. i. 2-4), "Die Ziegenhirtin und der Schafhirt" (i. 5-8), "Der Ægyptische Rittmeister und seine Braut aus Engeddi" (i. 9-16), etc. This last heading, and the note attached to the piece, show how large a share the author's fancy has had in his critical work. The admirer of the Palestinian girl, who compares her (according to this translator) to his "mare in Pharaoh's cavalry," appears to him an Idumæan captain in the Egyptian service, speaking a dialect similar to that of his betrothed, who lived in Engeddi, where the Ptolemies held a garrison. The King, whose surroundings the fragrance of her spikenard penetrates, is an Arab emir, the commander of the squadron of auxiliary cavalry in which the captain serves. Equally lively flights of fancy can be discerned elsewhere, but some of the remarks are much sounder, and the book is, on the whole, very enjoyable.

—The continued deciphering of the collection of papyri with which the literary zeal of Herr Theodor Graf and the munificence of Archduke Rainer have enriched the Imperial Austrian Museum, more and more reveals the vastness of that antiquarian treasure. The scientific examination is carried on in the Egyptian division by Dr. J. Krall; in the classical, by Dr. K. Wessely; and in the Irano-Semitic, by Professor Karabacek. The twenty papyri belonging to pre-Christian times include a letter in hieratic style almost three thousand years old, a funereal tableau containing the well-preserved image of the dead Amasis, with hieroglyphic legends, and a mathematical writing in demotic characters. The Coptic pieces number about one thousand, all the three dialects being represented. There are some interesting new fragments of the Bible version in the Central-Egyptian dialect. A masterpiece of Alexandrian calligraphy contains a hitherto unknown speech against Isocrates—not *of* Isocrates, as a much-blundering report of the London *Times* has it. There are fragments of poetic, dramatic, philosophical, and patristic writings, and a "Metanoia" ("Repentance"), of the beginning of the fourth century, which is perhaps the oldest Christian manuscript in existence. Official documents issued under the Roman and Byzantine emperors, from Trajan to Heraclius, are exceedingly numerous. The hundreds of documents in Pehlevi, written on papyrus, parchment, or skin, are still more interesting. One of them, composed during the Sassanian occupation of Egypt in the time of Heraclius, is expected to furnish

an important key for Pehlevi decipherments. Of the Arabic papyri, upward of a thousand have been read by Professor Karabacek. The oldest dates from the 54th year of the Hegira, another from the 90th. No equally ancient Islamic documents, supplied with dates, have hitherto been known. The Arabic collection also embraces upward of 150 writings on cotton-paper, some dating from the beginning of the eighth century—that is, from the very time of the invention of this writing material.

—Dr. Robert Pöhlmann, Privat-docent in Erlangen—a writer of rising reputation in the field of history—has made a valuable contribution to the study of primitive institutions in a little pamphlet entitled 'Die Anfänge Roms' Its value consists not merely in the inquiry into Roman origins, but in the comparison made with the early history of other nations. The subject treated is not institutions, but mode of settlement, and the argument is mainly directed to disprove, at least for the Italians, the theory presented by Mommsen, and worked out more fully by Emil Kuhn, in 'Die Entstehung der Städte der Alten,' viz., that the original occupation was by districts, the city being a later product of *synoikismos*. In the general introduction Pöhlmann lays especial emphasis upon the sanitary and military advantages of the situation of Rome, considering the commercial considerations presented by Mommsen as of comparatively little weight in the early period. The discussion is mainly directed to establishing the thesis that the original settlement of the Italians was the city rather than the district, and that the territorial occupation was not according to patriarchal groups, but that these were wholly subordinate to the political organization. His arguments afford an interesting point of comparison with those of Mr. Ross, in his recent 'History of Land-holding among the Germans,' each writer aiming to disprove a generally accepted theory. Dr. Pöhlmann, however, assumes the correctness of the village theory, and uses it as an argument to disprove Mommsen's view, holding (p. 59) that the occurrence of Gentile names of districts would prove a system of settlement by isolated homesteads (*hofmässige Siedelung*), in this agreeing in the main with Mr. Ross and Mr. Seebohm.

—It is generally known that in 1879 Privy Counsellor Otto von Struve, director of the observatory at Pulkova, near St. Petersburg, visited America and contracted with the Messrs. Clark for the construction of an object-glass thirty inches in diameter. It was completed last year and accepted by Dr. Struve, who came to this country to examine critically its performance. The mounting for this great glass is now making at the shops of the Repsolds, where many cardinal improvements in the mounting and mechanical accessories generally have been devised. It may be expected that this telescope will be set up at Pulkova, and ready for work, at some time during the present year. A section of Professor Newcomb's late report relates to the new equatorial *coudé* at the Paris Observatory, a refractor in which the rays of light are brought to the object-glass after reflection from two plane mirrors. The chief advantage of this construction is that the observer does not have to follow the eye-piece of his telescope, but always sits in a given position in a comfortable room. This form of instrument is not suitable when the highest optical power is sought; but it surpasses all others in convenience of use. The French astronomers have lately devised a new method of supporting a revolving dome, wherein the base of the dome will be an annular caisson, floating in a similarly shaped trough filled with water so treated as to prevent its freezing. This novel construction will be applied to a dome of about sixty-five feet diameter, which will cover a great refracting telescope now in the hands of French opticians. Writing of observatory buildings, Professor Newcomb remarks: "It is a common feature of all or nearly all the Continental observatories, that quarters are provided for the astronomers generally in the building itself. This offers the great advantage that the astronomers are nearly always near their instruments, and may be regarded as absolutely essential to the efficiency of any large observatory, especially if it is not in the midst of a city."

BRAZIL AND SLAVERY.

O Abolicionismo. Por Joaquim Nabuco. London, 1883. 12mo, pp. 256.

THE fate of slavery in Brazil is seldom discussed among us, and, indeed, rarely enters our thoughts. The little work whose title we give above would, considering its object, hardly find an audience in the United States, or, if translated, a publisher. We can recommend it for its own sake, but we have read it with the deepest interest for its reflected light on that irrepressible conflict which ended, some would say, in April, 1865; others, in March, 1876. First and above all, it inspires a sense of profound thankfulness that there never existed in this country a party or a policy or a measure of gradual emancipation—we mean, of course, as directed against that purely Southern slave power which dictated the compromises of the Federal Constitution. The organized moral sentiment of the North rejected it; the logic of the South equally rejected it even as a refuge from the demands of immediatism—witness John Quincy Adams's futile proposal in 1839. Never, consequently, was there a time when agitation could be checked and disarmed by the plausible cry that the cause was already won ("a causa já está vencida—está moralmente ganha"). Our compromises over slavery extension had, it is true, this deadening effect upon the free-State conscience, and were followed by breaches of the public faith similar to those by which the slave-trade power in Brazil maintained itself in defiance of international conventions and domestic statutes. And it was precisely the state of mind which succeeded the Missouri Compromise—when everybody admitted the sin of slavery, but denounced the wicked abolitionists who would not stay quiet till "God in his own good time" should put an end to the system—that answered to the present condition of Brazil as described by our author.

"Yes," he says of his cause, "it is won, but before a public opinion disunited, apathetic, intangible, and not before Parliament and the Government, the concrete organs of opinion; before religion, but not before the Church; . . . before science, but not before the learned bodies, the professors, the men who stand for science; before justice and right, but not before the law which is the expression of it, nor before the magistrates, the administrators of the law; . . . before parties, but not before the ministers, deputies, senators, provincial governors, candidates all, who direct those parties, nor before the electors who form the plebs of that aristocracy; before Europe, but not before the Europeans established among us, who either in great proportion own slaves, or disbelieve in a Brazil without slaves, and fear for their own interests; before popularity, but not before the people; before the Emperor as a private person, but not before the Chief of State; before Brazilians in general, but not before Brazilians individually; in a word, to sum up, before virtual jurisdictions, political abstractions, eventual forces, generous and impotent sympathies, but not before the one tribunal that can execute the decree of emancipation for the black race—I mean the constituted Brazilian Nation."

The advantage which our federal system gave the abolition sentiment, by furnishing it a grand section of the country, free from the presence of slavery, as a basis of operations, has not been overlooked by Mr. Nabuco. No such condition exists in Brazil, where, on the other hand, the press has curiously maintained its constitutional right to be free even in opposition to slavery. This fact is the more noteworthy because our so-called republican government was absolutely powerless to protect free speech in one-half the country. Had the attempt ever been made by the Federal Executive it would either have failed signally or precipitated the rebellion. But, as every one knows, our slave power was, what Mr. Nabuco calls the Emperor in the sham parliamentary government of Brazil, the permanent prime minister, tolerating no administration that would not do its bidding.

In the Empire, as at the South, the Church has been hostile to emancipation, holding slaves and never denouncing the making merchandise of men. Prelates have been ready to go to prison at hard labor for their opposition to masonry, never to take the penalty of offending the slave power. The Church has done nothing for the marriage relation or for moral instruction among the slaves. It has not discouraged, or at least it has not been able to prevent, a cross between fetishism and Christianity *pari passu* with that between the races; the converted fetish-worshipper being, in our author's pithy definition, one who has simply exchanged hells. It has, of course, done nothing to hinder amalgamation, the great pursuit likewise of our Southern slave-owners, and their affected horror. But (a point hardly considered by Mr. Nabuco) Catholicism, to which the negro pew is unknown, has doubtless prevented the color prejudice which was of such great political importance to the South that never would a black representative from the North have been allowed to sit in Congress; and even the reception of a black Minister from Hayti, as the consequence of recognizing that country's independence, was declared incompatible with the further existence of the Union. Very exceptionally, indeed, as in North Carolina down to Nat Turner's insurrection, the free negro was allowed to vote, but in general he was absolutely disfranchised, and without exception socially kept at the bottom of the scale, whereas in Brazil no career or station is closed to him. The influence of the Church in this direction may be thought more humane than that of the Protestant sects at the South (as well as at the North), but it is questionable whether the logic of color prejudice with us—negro slavery being conceded to be a divine appointment—was not more serviceable to the opponents of slavery, and so in the end of greater benefit to the slaves themselves. The more sharply the line was drawn the simpler became the moral issue, the more shocking the inconsistency between the daily practice of the American people and its Christian and democratic professions. And, under the circumstances, for all the ends of government not pertaining to slavery, one must think it better that the white and not a mixed race conducted affairs at the South. The old Southern passion for politics, by the way, owing to the impossibility of any career in letters or the mechanic arts, finds a parallel in Brazil in the eagerness with which Government employment is there sought after.

We need hardly dwell on such inevitable points of likeness as the dearth of schools and the dread of enlightenment, the absence of a genuine public opinion, the ruin of the soil by shiftless methods of cultivation, the bankruptcy of great estates, the decay of provincial cities, and their failure to serve as centres of life and growth to the surrounding neighborhood—all forcibly described in a melancholy chapter on

the influence of slavery on the territory and population of the interior. Of greater interest is the attempted identification of Brazil with slavery, and of support of the latter with patriotism. "Whoever assails it is immediately suspected of connivance with foreigners, of enmity to the institutions of his own country. . . . To attack monarchy, the country being monarchical—or religion, the country being Catholic -is permitted to all; but to attack slavery is national treason and felony." In the United States, Mr. Nabuco goes on to say, the same confusion was fostered, and was carried to its logical development in the rebellion to preserve slavery. On other sides the resemblance can be traced from the very beginning—in the compromise with slavery for the sake of independence, just as, with us, for the sake of Union; in the careful exclusion of the shameful word slaves or slavery from the two constitutions; in the constant periphrastic avoidance of these terms, as when the Emperor (whose responsibility for the continuance of slavery shines forth in these pages) refers to the "elemento servil," and our statesmen used to talk of the "peculiar institution" and the "patriarchal institution." In Brazil this fastidiousness has been carried so far that the consolidation of the statutes officially ordered in 1855 appeared without any article relating to slavery, the legislation in regard to which was expressly set apart, on sentimental grounds, in a Negro Code—"all which," comments our author, "would be very *patriotic* if it ameliorated in any degree the condition of the slave."

We should be led too far if we undertook to summarize those portions of the work under review which argue the question of the legality of slavery at the present time in Brazil. Convincing as Mr. Nabuco's reasoning is, we feel (and probably he feels) that it will not prevail otherwise than by stimulating afresh the anti-slavery zeal of his countrymen, on whom the economic appeal is likely to make a far more powerful impression than the legal or the humanitarian. Here the example of the revival of the South (which, as he happily says, was forcibly saved by the North from committing suicide), under freedom, stands him in good stead, and the survivors of the little band of Northern abolitionists may rejoice to think that their work, finished at home, is still "marching on" in the Southern continent through the instrumentality of our author and his associates. In general we may remark that Mr. Nabuco exhibits a great and mostly accurate familiarity with the course of the anti-slavery conflict in the United States, to which he frequently alludes. Like his predecessors, he is a man of "one idea" to slaveholders and their apologists, but in reality possesses a broad and statesmanlike intelligence, well calculated to inspire the admiration of his readers. Slavery, he justly says, in his preface, is the enemy of all social and administrative reform, and must first be removed before anything else can be taken up. For that reason he makes it the subject of the first volume of a series which will in its entirety embrace the measures necessary to redeem Brazil from its low estate, give it an honored place in the family of civilized nations, and permit it to compete with its South American neighbors, behind which it now so disgracefully lags. The subject of the second volume, of whose appearance we are not advised, is economic and financial reform; and in the nine months since Mr. Nabuco's preface was written, the financial situation of his country has grown undeniably worse, not to say alarming.

THE LOGIC OF PROTECTION.

Government Revenue, especially the American System. An argument for industrial freedom against the fallacies of free trade. By Ellis H. Roberts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THIS book contains the substance of a course of lectures delivered at Cornell University. The students of that institution are to be congratulated upon the privilege that they have enjoyed. The arid deserts of political economy are made to blossom with gorgeous metaphors, and the author, shaking off the tiresome restraints of British logic, soars aloft into the limitless realms of American poetical license, or wanders waywardly among the "multiform mysteries of commerce." The treatment of the science, far from being dismal, is provocative of joyous laughter. In spite, too, of the embittered controversies that are associated with his theme, Mr. Roberts contrives with a wonderful skill to avoid all argument upon disputed topics. The free-traders are notorious logic-choppers, and with a quiet contempt that illustrates his largeness of mind, he leaves them to buffet with their own sophistries. Taking his stand upon American common sense, he points out the hard facts of our busy workshops and teeming millions, and, disdaining to reply to theories, boldly bids the Briton first answer these.

The avowed purpose of these lectures being to exhibit the logical grounds upon which the protective policy rests, we have examined the method employed with especial care. It is wonderfully simple and expeditious. It consists in drawing a conclusion from one premise instead of two. The difficulties removed by this improvement in method, which is, we believe, a characteristic and indeed an essential feature of the American system, are enormous. Thus, Mr. Roberts, having with great research established the position that all the nations of the earth except two have laid burdens upon commerce, is able immediately to infer that protection is the only wise policy. The population of the European states that have clung to the old system being eight times as great as that of England, he triumphantly concludes that it is at least eight to one that England is wrong. This is not the method of Aristotle, but it is the method of Alexander with the Gordian knot, and saves an inconceivable amount of labor. In this instance Mr. Roberts greatly understates his case, for, as he observes that the Asiatic governments are, and always have been, "solid on the side of the industrial system," he could easily have proved that an Englishman knows only one-twentieth as much as any one else.

The effete British theory of rent our author, with much judgment, treats as so thoroughly exploded as to need no mention. Taxes upon land, he shows, are paid not by the landlord but by the consumers of the produce of the land. This truth, we trust, may dispel the mischievous delusion under which our Eastern farmers labor. Instead of whining about high taxes and Western competition, they should raise their prices and let the consumers sweat for it. Still, it would be better to do away with all taxation of land. It is highly objectionable, according to the American system, that the people should know how much they are taxed. As Mr. Roberts feelingly observes, "The plea is akin to the terrible examples of crime and degradation that are paraded before those whom we would control in the right way," while the true system of revenue "should be like the sun, appreciated for its light and fructifying power." Moreover, the tax upon land "is the sound of fetters and of shackles." Although not paid by the landlord, it is paid by the tenant or lodger. But when revenue is derived from duties on imports, no one contributes to the revenue unless he chooses to do so. If he is opposed to the duty on sugar, he can abstain from the use of sugar. If he objects to the tax upon woollen clothing, he can wear cotton; and if he objects to the tax upon that, he can go naked. As Mr. Roberts says, "Food, and perhaps fuel, are the only articles of first necessity, for clothing may be reduced to great scantiness and shabbiness without real suffering, such as hunger and intense cold will involve." The American system, therefore, "affects in no way the choice of vocation by its people. It leaves every man absolutely free to employ his industry as he chooses." We trust that these convincing statements will put an end to the idle talk about the oppressiveness of our duties. "No other branch of our statutes shows less of blundering, less of tendency to change, less of crude and ill-meant work. There is no mystery about our tariffs, save that which comes from the variety of our commerce, the diversity of our industries, and the vast sums of money which our continental growth and our foreign wars and the great civil strife have entailed."

But it is in dealing with the "balance of trade" that Mr. Roberts's powers are displayed at their best. The partisans of free trade, lulled to security by their confidence in their guides, have ceased to concern themselves much about this doctrine. The midnight awakening of the Turk, as described by Mr. Halleck, we should judge to be "not a circumstance" to what will happen when it is discovered by the nations of Europe that "against that danger of utter bankruptcy and disgrace Say and Mill have taken no precaution." It will not be the fault of our author if the necessary safeguards are not erected in our country. His researches have disclosed a depraved propensity among our citizens "to be squandering their patrimony on foreign commodities, or running into ruinous indebtedness to foreign merchants." The American system is designed to correct this propensity. The only possible way to prosper, for nations as well as individuals, Mr. Roberts shows, is to sell more than you buy. The nation whose imports continually exceed its exports is surely destined to ruin. To the casuist who points to the steady adverse balance against Britain, Mr. Roberts is ready with a reply that illustrates the boldness of his stand, and that will stagger the stolidest Anglomaniac. Britain is really ruined. Her apparent prosperity is not real. It is but a hollow shell which the first rude blow will crush to powder. We can imagine no more impressive subject for a Congressional painting than Mr. Childers in the act of pointing out to the members of Parliament, with all the complacency of British free-trade conceit, the fact that a penny of income-tax now yields £2,000,000, while less than twenty years ago it yielded but £1,250,000; and in the background this stern American statesman writing upon the wall — The balance of trade is against you!

Since no great work is faultless, we do not hesitate to criticise the work before us in one or two respects. Mr. Roberts might have, no doubt, easily replied to the objection sure to be raised by free trade theorists, that if the only way to prosper is to sell more than you buy, one-half the world must be ruined if the other half is to succeed. Under the Aristotelian logic this conclusion necessarily follows, as it is impossible for all mankind to sell to themselves more than they buy from themselves; and we think that Mr. Roberts might have decidedly strengthened his case by pointing out the fallacy of this argument. We should have been glad, too, if he had shown how it happens that countries that have rejoiced for long periods in protective tariffs have at the same time been afflicted with this

terrible blight of adverse balances; our own country, even under the American system, has not been exempt. Again, after proving that the domestic taxes upon our products amount to 22 per cent. of their value, and that duties upon imports should be at least as much, in order to put our manufacturers on an equality with foreigners, he neglects to show that foreign manufacturers do not have to pay any taxes. There is still another omission that we had hoped to see supplied in this book. American statesmen have frequently pointed out that when a protected manufacture is established, it stimulates surrounding industries, so that, in fact, all other occupations share in the advantage of the duty. But they have uniformly failed to show why these stimulating influences can never follow the establishment of an unprotected industry. Mr. Roberts's explanation is ingenious, but it seems to us to be not wholly satisfactory. Still, it will be better to lay it before our readers and let them judge for themselves:

"The petty pleas based upon a classification which assumes that the ocean of our industry is made up of painted cards, piled up by fancy, and lacking cohesion and vitality, are not worthy of the authors or of our subject. Our production is one like the deep, over which winds may sweep, and for the moment terrible depths may appear, and monstrous waves may arise; but its true surface is more level than earth presents."

On the whole, we can commend this book to our readers as one from the perusal of which they may derive much pleasure. The conscientious reviewer, however, to whom it is not permitted to skip, can hardly be blamed for wishing it had been more condensed. The number of words is out of all proportion to the quantity of thought that they embody, and upon observing that there were twelve chapters in the book, we were reminded of a story from 'Greville's Memoirs,' with which we shall close our review:

"A bishop in the House of Lords rose to speak, and announced that he should divide what he had to say into twelve parts, when the Duke of Wharton interrupted him and begged he might be indulged for a few minutes, as he had a story to tell which he could only introduce at that moment. A drunken fellow was passing by St. Paul's at night, and heard the clock slowly chiming 12. He counted the strokes, and, when it had finished, looked toward the clock and said, 'D—— you; why couldn't you give us all that at once?'"

GALLENGA'S IBERIAN REMINISCENCES.

Iberian Reminiscences: Fifteen Years' Travelling Impressions of Spain and Portugal. By A. Gallenga. Two vols. London.

WHILE Charles Albert, after his accession to the Sardinian throne, was sending his former fellow-Carbonari to the dungeons and scaffolds of Piedmont, Jacopo Ruffini, a friend of Mazzini, sent by him on a conspirator's errand to Genoa, was there arrested, and, fearful lest lack of courage might lead him to the betrayal of his accomplices, he put an end to his life in a terrible manner. "A young fanatic," we read in Gallenga's 'History of Piedmont' (London, 1855), "weary of an exile's life, and nurtured in the classical ideas of Alfieri's patriotism, was with the chief of 'Young Italy' when Ruffini's mother, after the bloody catastrophe at Genoa, together with her family, sought refuge in Switzerland. Affected by that exhibition of acute sorrow, the would-be Brutus and Timoleon offered to avenge the desolate mother by taking the tyrant's life. Supplied with a passport, money, and letters by Mazzini, he proceeded to Turin, in August, 1833, under the false name of Louis Mariotti. Mazzini's partisans at Turin had, however, either fled or lived in fear and concealment. There was no one to give the stranger advice or direction. . . . For nearly two months he watched for an opportunity to strike a blow. The attention of the police was at last awakened, and he was spirited away by a few friends, who had partly guessed his secret."

When the historian of Piedmont wrote this brief account of an attempt at regicide of which he had himself been guilty—for Mariotti was then the pseudonym, and afterward the English *nom de guerre*, of Gallenga—he had long ceased to be a fanatic. "The would-be Brutus and Timoleon," after roaming about in Corsica, Naples, Malta, northern Africa, and the United States, had settled and married in England, where he became professor of Italian and journalist, and had made his peace with "the tyrant" of Sardinia, who in 1848 and 1849 himself twice attempted to become the liberator of Italy. He had served Charles Albert during his campaign in Lombardy—which he described in his 'Italy in 1848' (1851)—and had entered the Sardinian Parliament, under the reign of his son, as a candidate of the Cavour Government. The story told by him of Mazzini's connection with regicidal plots roused the followers of that patriot to such a degree that Gallenga prudently withdrew to England; but he subsequently returned to his native country, and entered the Parliament of United Italy, though acting at the same time as correspondent of the London *Times*. A personal difficulty, arising out of a parliamentary debate, rendered his stay in Rome disagreeable, and, abandoning the political career, he devoted himself exclusively to journalistic pursuits, and, as one of the representative correspondents of the *Times*, successively visited the great theatres of warlike events or diplomatic complications: the United States, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Greece, Turkey, Russia, South America. His correspondence and notes he generally collected and shaped into books of travel. The volumes before us describe the Spanish Peninsula as he saw it in the latter years of the reign of Isabella (1865–6), during the revolutionary period of 1868–9, toward the end of the Carlist war and in the beginning of the reign of Alfonso (1874–5), and again in 1879–82. The work is dedicated to his second wife, also married in England, who shared with him "the good and bad" of the tours, and had shared with him a fortune. When he revised it he was seventy-two years old; but most of its pages are marked by the same vigor of thought and expression which characterized the author's début as an English writer. Witness the following summary *in nuce* of modern Spanish history:

"Having asserted their rights over their own land by their Moorish wars, the Spaniards looked abroad for a wider field of enterprise. They fought the Old World; they subdued the New; and so exhausted their energies in deeds of war as to unfit themselves for the work of peace. They depopulated Spain in their vain efforts to colonize America. They exercised so stolid a tyranny over Italy and the Netherlands as to become incapable of freedom for themselves.

"From the expulsion of the Moors to the downfall of the First Napoleon, Spain was the only guide of its own destinies. Its Kings and its priests sprang from the soil; they were typical of the national idiosyncrasies. For a long time the people here showed their preference for a sovereign who showed himself 'Muy Rey' and 'Muy Español.' And their saints and founders of monastic orders, their Dominics and Loyolas, imparted to their religious faith an earnest and savage zeal, which shocked Rome itself as too officious, excessive, and dangerous. The Spanish nation was a too willing horse; it bade its rider jump into the saddle, suffered it to rein it hard, to urge it on ruthlessly, to ride it to death. . . .

"Excess, however, even in Spain, could not fail to lead to reaction. The nation rebelled against tyranny and bigotry; it stood up for its rights and vindicated its liberties; it overthrew its ministers, banished its dynasty, proclaimed republics; it spilt its blood and exhausted its energies and resources in senseless civil wars; it condensed in a few months all the follies and repentances, the revolutions and restorations, which France had spread over a lapse of as many years."

The last lines show that the author is no great admirer of the republican experiments under Figueras, Pi y Margall, Salmeron, and Castelar. In reality, he has the greatest possible contempt for these experiments, and little regard for the successive Presidents of the short lived Spanish Republic. According to him, Castelar was neither the wisest nor the best of them, but, on the contrary, "the most irrational of them all." He, of course, was the most eloquent, and "he rehearsed history as the devil quotes Scripture." With all the enthusiasm of Mazzini, he lacked his "depth and earnestness, his narrow bigotry, his immeasurable and implacable self-conceit." Gallenga still loves the sun of the South, and admires the works of art treasured up in the monumental collections of its cities, but he has little desire now for its enervating Edens, little sympathy for its beggared and superstitious populations, and nothing but ridicule for all Latin attempts at founding commonwealths on the "simple plan of absolute freedom and unbounded mutual love and trust." He sees at the bottom of all the radical movements "in Spain, as well as in France and Italy, . . . a morbid, envious, and rancorous spirit of 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity,'" madly hostile to all independence of position and character, to honorable traditions and associations—such as an aristocracy nurtures—and destructive of all stability. With excessive acerbity he shows "how ignorant, how indolent and supine, a race of men" the modern Spanish politician—such as Sagasta, whom he detests—has to deal with; "how absolutely politics in this country are a matter of persons; how frequently and unblushingly parties change ideas; how causelessly they fall out and are reconciled; and what egregious misnomers are the various designations with which they distinguish themselves."

Next to Sagasta, Gallenga is severe on Montpensier, considered in his attitude toward his sister-in-law, Queen Isabella. The misrule and vices of the latter are mentioned with charitable allowance for fatalities of situation. Her reactionary guides, political or intimate—such as Narvaez, Gonzalez Bravo, Marfori—are branded as they deserve. Prim is treated with some personal sympathy, and Serrano rather harshly, while Cánovas del Castillo is almost the only Spanish statesman who is mentioned with respect. Alfonso himself—well, he is a reigning monarch. And the Spanish people? They are much better than their rulers. But there is little new in what Gallenga tells us of the Spaniard's personal dignity, loftiness of bearing, grace and courtesy, deference and punctiliousness, reserve and formality, fastidiousness in appearance, simplicity of habits, abstemiousness and endurance; or of his less amiable traits, which, with exceptionable charitableness, he derives from an exaggeration of their good qualities. "Disdain of everything base and mean tends to the development of conceit and vainglorioussness. Depth of conviction degenerates into narrow obstinacy, indocility, and intolerance. Indifference to comfort and luxuries makes man unenterprising and slothful," etc. He is somewhat more original in the view he takes of the Andalusians, specially considered, whom he is so far from deeming the light hearted people they are generally said to be, that he describes them as "a bilious race, with more than a dash of Oriental blood in their composition, with something gloomy and almost savage in their amusements. . . . Their levity is only frenzy." We might quote equally strong expressions concerning the Basque, the Catalan, the Portuguese; but for these topics, as well as

for a vast variety of others, interesting in themselves or from the way in which our author depicts them—things ethnographical, topographical, or social—we must refer the reader to the book itself. Without being either profound or gossipy, it is instructive and amusing throughout, in spite of the author's superciliousness in judging and criticising, of his British propensity for grumbling and caricaturing, and his journalistic habit of preferring to look on the dark side of things.

KEYNES'S FORMAL LOGIC.

Studies and Exercises in Formal Logic. By John Neville Keynes, M.A., late Fellow of Pembroke College, Cambridge. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. ix.-414.

THE chief advance in methods of education in recent years has been in the direction of training the student to do actual work in whatever subject he takes up, instead of being content to pour into him a knowledge of its theory. The two subjects which have been most urgently in need of this reform are geometry and logic, and they have been the chief gainers by the change. The school or college which has not introduced some such thorough drill in logical praxis as is given by Jevons's 'Studies in Deductive Logic,' or by the book before us, has omitted to make use of an important means of mental discipline. The two books are very similar in plan. In both there is first an exposition of a point of doctrine, and then a list of illustrative examples and test questions. That of Jevons is more elementary, but comes nearer to covering all the ground; in that of Keynes, the discussion is more exhaustive and usually more satisfactory: there is no shirking of difficult points, and there is a praiseworthy avoidance of metaphysical subtleties. If one has occasion to refer to a brief and perfectly clear statement of the view held on any subject by the English writers on logic (the author makes almost no allusion to German writers), he cannot do better than to take up this book. Admirably clear, for example, are the discussions of connotation and denotation, and of the extent of a negative term. There is an excellent criticism of Jevons's very weak treatment of contraposition, and of his unfortunate answer to the question, What is the precise meaning of the assertion that a proposition is false? On the subject of the implications which propositions make as to the existence of their terms, the author is much less satisfactory. The numerous examples are very well chosen and very instructive. The book has too much the air of being intended as an examination drill-book, but it answers that purpose to perfection. Any young aspirant for a certificate or an honor, who had conscientiously worked through all this "book-work" and all these problems, would be reasonably sure of making a good show before his examiners. It cannot be denied, by the way, that the art of examination has reached in England its highest possible state of development. A large percentage of the books published every year are books whose object is to promote "cram." Enough ability is expended in this way to give England a respectable rank among the makers of science, if it were reserved for legitimate uses. As it is, it does not perhaps altogether fail of a useful purpose. A man cannot be fitted to answer every conceivable question which it can occur to an examiner to put to him without incidentally getting a good deal of useful information.

Mr. Keynes's satisfactory treatment of the preliminary matter of logic does not prevent his book from containing a serious blemish, and that is the very large amount of space which is given to the syllogism. If all the work on logic done by Boole and his successors has had any effect at all, it should have clearly demonstrated the utter foolishness and weariness to the flesh of harping upon all the variations of the syllogism. All reasoning, where it is not immediate inference, is syllogism—exactly that and nothing more; but it does not follow that every one of the thirty-two possible forms of syllogism needs to be treated as if it were an independent species, totally unconnected with all the other forms. By the work of Boole, or of any one of his later followers, the thirty-two forms are shown to consist of two only which are essentially distinct—one universal, and one particular. To reduce them all to these two is no more violent a proceeding than to reduce every proposition to the form subject, copula, predicate, instead of getting up separate rules of logical procedure for each different verb in the language. It would be incomparably better to train a boy for a cram examination in chess, or even to make him learn by heart all the possible combinations in the game of tit-tat-too, than to drag him through the tiresome round of the scholastic moods and figures—for the reason that he could be trusted to find out for himself, in the former case, that he was engaged in a very foolish and useless piece of work.

The part of his book in which Mr. Keynes claims for himself originality is the fourth and last. In this he solves the complicated problems of symbolic logic without symbolism, as he says, but in fact he has not kept himself entirely free from that taint. He permits himself to write, with Jevons, a for the negative of A, and AB for A and B, but he draws the line at A+B for A or B. It is only a very little less symbolical to say that the negative of AB is a or b, than to say that it is $\bar{A}+\bar{B}$. His method of solving problems does not otherwise differ from that of Mr. McColl or Mr. Peirce (neither of whom he mentions), except that he uses the word *is* instead of a sign for the copula. Writers on symbolic logic (at least since Boole, who greatly overestimated the importance of the new method) have been aware that all their processes could be translated into words. They have not attributed any deep and mystic meaning to their symbols, but they have considered that they gave a very desirable compactness and manageability to complicated operations. As the early algebraists had to write the words *plus* and *minus* when they wished to indicate addition and subtraction, and could introduce the symbol y^3 to represent yyy only after a long struggle, so the formal logicians have conceived a peculiar horror for symbolism in logic. Symbolic logic is not a great branch of mathematical analysis—it is very closely on a par with the rudiments of algebra. It is a codification of certain processes which are elementary enough in whatever way they are put, but which are of an excessive simplicity when put in a simple way. By means of it, a child can be taught to solve the most difficult problem in deductive reasoning as easily as he can work out a system of simple equations.

In spite of its many excellent features, the greater part of Mr. Keynes's book cannot be considered as anything more than a final effort to perpetuate the dark ages of logical method—an exhibition of wasted ingenuity which it is painful to contemplate. There remains an urgent demand for an elementary text-book which shall actually embody the recent advances in logic, and which shall have the boldness to consign *Barbara celarent* and all such rubbish to a foot note, or to an historical appendix.

The Land Laws. By Frederick Pollock, Barrister-at-Law, M.A., etc. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883. Pp. 218.

MR. POLLOCK'S 'Land Laws' belongs to the excellent series of "handy-books" entitled "The English Citizen," and is an outcome of that modern school of English antiquities of which Professor Stubbs is the acknowledged head. The dedication to Professor Stubbs—"collegæ collega, magistro discipulus"—is itself a terse indication of the character of the book: its author, it should be noted, is Corpus Christi Professor of Jurisprudence in the University of Oxford.

The book opens with a familiar and graphic sketch of an English estate, thus giving the reader at the outset an introduction to the problems which he is to study, on their concrete side. Good as this is, however, the American reader, and we should think many English readers as well, would be greatly assisted by an outline plan of such an estate. No feature of Mr. Seebohm's recent work on 'English Village Communities' was more instructive than the numerous maps of actual tracts of land, with their divisions; and if Mr. Pollock had given a similar one, so as to show the park, the farms, the commons, the freeholds, and the copyholds, it would have been of very great service. There are chapters upon "The Old English Customary Laws," "The Mediæval System" (*i. e.*, feudalism), "Legislation and Transformation," "Development of Modern Law," "Landlord and Tenant," "Modern Reforms and Prospects"—the whole, it will be seen, forming essentially a practical treatise for the use of "the English citizen," and the modern and practical point of view is the prevalent one; nevertheless, this is based upon a sound and thorough historical sketch. The relation to present problems and issues is illustrated by some remarks in connection with the land-tax, established in 1692. The author shows here (p. 126) that the income tax, the distinctively English form of taxation, "in our time is the real and effective tax on landed property for national as distinct from local purposes. It is a true property tax, being . . . assessed on the gross, not on the net value."

Historical questions principally are discussed in the six appendices to the book. The first (A) contains an examination of the much debated passage in the twenty-sixth chapter of the 'Germania' of Tacitus. The views here presented seem to us correct almost without qualification. For the words *arva per annos mutant*, we like best the last suggestion, importing the occupation of "a new tract for tillage from year to year," and this would be, in its working, practically an "alternation of crop and fallow." Note B is upon "the classification of Anglo-Saxon estates in land"; in the text Mr. Lodge's analysis in his essay upon the 'Anglo-Saxon Land Law' is followed, but it is criticised in some details in this note. Especially (p. 194) exception is taken to Mr. Lodge's category of "booked læns," and doubts whether estates of folk-land could be regarded as *læns* at all. "The essence of læn, as far as one can make out, was holding under a definite person as superior by specific services." Note C, "Villenage, Villein tenure, and Copyholds," is the longest of the notes, and in that part which treats of land tenure seems to us entirely correct; it contains also some interesting information about the "imperfect copyholders," principally in the west of England. The opening remarks, too, upon villenage are exceedingly good: but the history of villenage is somewhat confused. It is said (p. 197) that "at the time of Domesday the serf by blood was called *servus* (later *nativus*), never *villanus*." This is true if by "serf by blood" we mean chattel

slaves. This seems to be the meaning of *servus* in Domesday Book, but the *villanus* is, we think, clearly a *prædial* serf; we do not see how this can be questioned since the publication of Mr. Seebohm's book, at least for this period. And, as Mr. Pollock goes on to show, the term *villanus* gradually degenerated, superseded *servus*, and, by Bracton's time, is identical with *nativus;* in fact, we suppose the class of *servi* rose so that their legal status, apart from their relation to the land, came to be identical with that of *villani*. When it comes to the use of Archdeacon Hale's invaluable materials in the Domesday of St. Paul's, we cannot but think that the Archdeacon's *inference* (cited p. 200) is a mistake; that is, that in the *libere tenentes*, the *tenentes terras operarias*, and the *nativi* of the thirteenth century, "we have the representatives of the Villani, Bordarii, and Servi of the earlier age." Nothing is more certain than that the *custumarii* (with whom the *tenentes terras operarias* are clearly identical) were the representatives of the *villani* of Domesday Book; some other origin must be found for the *libere tenentes*, or freeholders by socage.

The other notes are upon "Primogeniture in socage lands," "'Cestui que use' at common law," and "Settlements and perpetuity." All these questions of the later history of the land law—uses and trusts, remainders and reversions, entails and settlements—are treated in a very interesting and perspicuous manner in the body of the work.

A Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain: Including the Works of Foreigners written in or translated into the English Language. By the late Samuel Halkett, Keeper of the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh; and the late Rev. John Laing, M.A., Librarian of the New College Library, Edinburgh. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. Vols. i., ii.: A–E, F–N.

NOTHING is so attractive to unregenerate humanity as a mystery. The least curious man will wade through the dullest three-volume novel to learn how it turns out, or sit patiently during as many long acts in the hottest and least ventilated of theatres rather than go away while the hero's fate is yet uncertain. Charades, rebuses, conundrums, puzzles of all sorts, nuts to crack, caverns to explore, excavations at Sanxay, at Assos, at Hissarlik, treatises on Egyptian chronology or the Accadian language—all testify to the same pervasive and never-dying curiosity; and so do the numerous books on anonymous and pseudonymous literature. The 'Theatre' of Placcius and the 'Library' of Mylius tried to satisfy the curiosity of the eighteenth century in regard to works in all languages. In the nineteenth century, evolution brought this subject, like so many others, within the grasp of the great law of differentiation. Each investigator found that he had enough to do to unveil the secrets of his own literature. Barbier and Quérard in France, Melzi in Italy, Collin for Scandinavia, Doorninck in the Netherlands, Rassmann and Weller in Germany, produced their well-known works. But before the appearance of the present book England had done almost nothing. There was a shelf-ful of discussions of the authorship of Junius, and considerable material dispersed through *Notes and Queries*, but excepting the small and useful 'Handbook of Fictitious Names' of Olphar Hamst (Ralph Thomas), there was no book of reference on the subject, no place to which one could turn to get information quickly. This was a *lacuna valde deflenda*, perhaps, but not at all *admiranda*, in view of the utter insufficiency of England's bibliography in every branch. It is only within a quarter of a century that England has had anything to show in this line that could in any way compare with the numerous bibliographical achievements of France and Germany. But that country, when it once wakes up to the sense of a deficiency and resolves to supply it, does its work well. For a catalogue, the five letters of the alphabet, now nearly completed, of the British Museum cannot be equalled anywhere; no bookseller's list has surpassed Quaritch's in bulk and in variety of information; in bibliography proper the 'Bibliography of Printing,' by Stevens and Bigmore, is admirable; in library economy the three volumes of transactions of the Library Association are full of matter and of promise; in journalism the *Bibliographer* has contained much that was useful, and the *Library Chronicle* bids fair to rank with the best. And now in the matter of anonyms and pseudonyms Messrs. Halkett and Laing have produced a thoroughly satisfactory work, well planned, well executed, well printed. It is true that the latter excellence does not derive from them, for their manuscript has outlived first Mr. Halkett, who, after twenty years of painstaking and persevering research, died in 1871, and then Mr. Laing, who lived to continue the work only nine years after his predecessor. It took two years more to carry the first volume through the press, the second followed at a year's distance, and librarians are now impatiently expecting the third, for they have found the others invaluable.

The titles are arranged in the accepted way, alphabetically by the first word not an article or one of the prepositions *of* and *on*. They are given in full, no matter how long they may be. An asterisk added to one denotes that a copy of the work has been critically examined by one of the authors. How thoroughly this was done is shown by the fact that seventy-three out of the first hundred titles have the asterisk—a number which will be seen to mean much when it is remembered that anonymous and pseudonymous books are likely to be the most out-of-the-way books, consisting in large proportion of perishable pamphlets. The authority on which the authorship is ascribed is given. Extremely brief notes occasionally explain doubtful points. At the end of the third volume there will probably be an index of the names of the discovered authors. There is little else to say of a work of this sort, unless one can point out that some book has been attributed to the wrong man, or can add some new discovery to the list. Haynes's 'Pseudonyms of Authors' offered plenty of opportunity of both sorts; but after two years' use of Halkett and Laing, we find noted in our copy only a single misprint (Landor for Lauder in the first page of the preface), and one error (the 'Essay on Intuitive Morals' is ascribed to Miss M. Cobbe instead of to Miss Frances Power Cobbe). It would not be difficult, also, to lift the veil of a few writers whose books have been published since the 'Dictionary' was issued, although we should not be the first to do so, so eager is the modern press to insure the fulfilment of the prophecy, "There is nothing hidden that shall not be revealed." Thus, to take examples in alphabetical order, 'Authors and Publishers' is by G. Haven Putnam; 'The Bitter Cry of Outcast London,' by the Rev. W. C. Preston; 'The Campaign of the Forty-fifth Regiment, M. V. M.,' by C. E. Hubbard; 'Dreams' (Boston, 1883), by Charles G. Fall; 'Ecce Spiritus' (Boston, 1882), by the Rev. E. F. Hayward; 'Faith and Unfaith,' by Mrs. Mattie Argles; 'Golden Rod' and 'Helen Troy,' by Mrs. Burton N. Harrison; 'John Pringle, Printer and Heretic,' by Miss J. K. Grant, and so on.

Messrs. Halkett and Laing give their authority in all cases, but often one is tempted to ask, *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* It is very well to add *Bodl.* or *Brit. Mus.* to a title, but, after all, these great names mean some one man who had to decide on the evidence that was before him, and may not have had all the evidence or may have decided wrongly. Even the acknowledgment of the supposed author is not always to be relied upon, for not a few books have been claimed by several authors. Messrs. Halkett and Laing are fortunate in having to deal to so large an extent with the past, whence no one will come to contradict them. In the hundreds of ghost stories, more or less authentic, which we have read, we do not remember one in which the apparition returned to claim the paternity of a literary work. Living writers and their friends are more sensitive. A whole book was written on the rival claims to the authorship of "Rock Me to Sleep, Mother." The "No Name Series" have had names put upon them even in advance of publication, but the names have not always adhered. 'Democracy' was claimed by a man who did not write it; and 'The Bread-winners'—to say nothing of the dozen writers who have been guessed at—has been positively ascribed to half-a-dozen, and is now said to be acknowledged by one. It will soon come to the point that a cautious man will not accept even the affidavit of a claimant, unless it is accompanied by quit-claims from all other possible authors.

An Older Form of the Treatyse of Fysshynge wyth an Angle (c. 1450). Attributed to Dame Juliana Barnes. Printed from a Manuscript in the Collection of Alfred Denison, Esq., with Preface and Glossary by Thomas Satchell. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.

ANGLING literature of the present century is most fortunate in having devoted to it two such able, patient, and conscientious lovers as Thomas Westwood and Thomas Satcheli, who by their joint and several labors have been of greater service to the collector in this line than any, or perhaps even all, of their predecessors. Their 'Bibliotheca Piscatoria' alone entitles them to the gratitude of every one interested in angling books, both for its admirable, carefully prepared, and voluminous information, and for the spirit of devotion to its task which shows on every page. 'The Chronicle of the Complete Angler,' by Mr. Westwood, with notes and additions by Mr. Satchell, has a charm rarely found in any bibliographical work, and the delightful 'Angler's Note-Book and Naturalist's Record,' a new series of which is about to be issued under the management of these Erckmann-Chatrian of fish literature, is, by all odds, the most scholarly and interesting periodical on angling ever published.

To Mr. Satchell alone we owe the transcript of this 'Older Form of the Treatyse of Fysshynge wyth an Angle.' The first imprint of this work was dated 1496, and made by Wynkyn de Worde; it varies in phrase and sense considerably from the one before us, which is scrupulously exact. Mr. Satchell has taken pains to preserve the spelling and punctuation, or rather no punctuation, of the scribe of the old fifteenth century MS., though from the great latitude admitted, or we might even suppose compulsory, in the orthography of that day, the correct spelling must be hard to determine. The *Athenæum* takes Mr. Satchell to task very mildly for his "levelling doctrine" in "degrading" the name of the author from the euphonious and aristocratic "Berners," as it is usually known, to "Barnes," though in the "Book of St. Albans" it is found as "Barnes," and altered ten years later by Wynkyn de Worde to "Bernes." How or when it became "Berners"

we are not told, but it was so known for several centuries, Berners and Barnes being used indifferently in mediæval spelling. We think Mr. Satchell is justified in reverting to the earliest if the most vulgar version.

Despite its antique dress, the 'Treatyse' is interesting and not difficult reading. It begins with a dissertation on the delights and benefits of "the seyd iijor desportes and gamys to fend the best of them as wyll as y can," deciding that "fyschyng with an angul" is the most agreeable, and describes the "angleer taking hys holsom walke and mery at hys own ease & also menny a sweyt eayr of dyuers erbis & floures that schall make hym ryght hongre & well disposud in hys body he schall heyr the melodyes melodeous of the ermony of bryde he schall se also the young swanys & signetes folowing ther eyrours Duckes Cootes herons & many other fowlys with ther brodys wyche me semyt better then all the noyse of houndes & blastes of hornes & other gamys that fawkners & hunters can make or els the games that fowlers can make & yf the angler take the fysche hardly then is ther no man meryer than he is in hys sprites."

On p. 20 are given "The xij Impedymentes" "wyche cause men to take no fyche with oute other commyn causes wyche may casuelly hap." The "other commyn causes" are found quite sufficient by the angler of the present day. Further on, Dame Barnes warns us against eating the "Barbyll, a quesy fyche, rawe," as that habit had been the cause of "mannys dethe." The last page very properly advises anglers not to be "to rauenous in takyng of your sayd game as to moche at one time whiche ye may lyghtly doo yf ye doo in every poynt as this present treatyse shewyth you in every poynt whyche sholde lyghtly be occasyon to dystroye your own dysportes & other mennys also as when ye have a suffycyent mese ye sholde coveyete no more as at that tyme."

There are many such unerring indications as the above that Dame Barnes possessed the true spirit of a sportsman, as well as a full confidence in her own prescriptions, despite her reputed holy calling. Mr. Satchell, assisted by Professor Skeat, has added a copious glossary, which is curious as well as useful. The words "nalles," "nowyer," "osmonde" might be as Choctaw to us, did we not there find that they mean "awls," "hour," and "best Swedish iron." The paper and typography of the book make it worthy of a place on any shelves.

A Simplified Grammar of the Danish Language. By E. C. Otté. London: Trübner & Co. 1884.

THE recent publication of a voluminous history of Scandinavian literature, and the monthly recurrence of a journal especially devoted to making known the literary and social activity of the Scandinavians, should have prepared a welcome for this latest volume (No. 8) of Trübner's collection of simplified grammars. Miss Otté's credentials consist of a volume on Scandinavian history (1874), a compact and reliable compend; 'Denmark and Iceland' (1881), a readable description of the present condition of these countries, forming one of Sampson Low's "Foreign Countries and British Colonies" series; and, in 1879, through her present publishers, a detailed and complete work on 'How to Learn Danish (Dano-Norwegian),' the first scholarly Danish grammar in the English language. We must call special attention to the last-named work, in order to emphasize the difference between it and the one now under consideration, as the two are not unlikely to be confounded. The Dano-Norwegian manual is a complete textbook for beginners in the Danish language, with rules, examples, and a key to the exercises; while this grammar addresses itself, according to the author's preface, to "those whose grammatical knowledge of other tongues, whether dead or living, enables them readily to master a new language, provided only its essential and specific characteristics are clearly presented to them." The proviso embodied in the last line of this sentence has been carried out with all possible brevity—indeed, the book may be considered too brief in some parts. At all events, it is a summary, with improvements, of the manual. In her former work, Miss Otté translated the recently-coined phrase *Dansk-Norsk* into Dano-Norwegian, and placed it upon her title-page to call attention to the fact that her book taught the language not only as spoken in Denmark, but also as spoken in Norway, and the peculiar relations between Danish and Dano-Norwegian were explained in the succinct introduction. In the present work, while the same end is kept in view, only four pages are devoted to explaining the nature of the identity of the language of Danes and cultivated Norwegians. It would have been preferable rather to have enlarged upon the theme, for the student who from Miss Otté's grammar goes to the modern Norwegian writers will find much to confuse him. Miss Otté promises to give special attention to the definite article as a suffix; but, though about a tenth part of her space is devoted to the subject, much is left unelucidated or not touched upon concerning this marked peculiarity of the Scandinavian languages. It is rather unsatisfactory to be told that "the terminal letter of the word, and certain considerations of euphony, determine whether *en*, *et*, and *ene*, or simply *n*, *t*, and *ne* are to be emplcyed in the formation of the article affix," and to be told nothing more. And the author might have noticed some of the very peculiar deviations in regard to the definite article in certain parts of Denmark.

The volume has evidently been written and printed with care, though a few slips have occurred. *Begrive*, p. 14, should be *begribe; Præstegård*, same page, *Præstegård; Hollænderinde*, p. 39, *Hollœnderinde; Hvad for en Gut mener De?* (not *de*), *Jeg så ham falde* (not *sa ham*), *Sammenlœgge* (not *Sammenlœge*), for a difference of meaning is here conveyed by the difference in spelling. Surely, Miss Otté did not mean to write *Fruentimmeret lå?* å can certainly not express the sound of o in *lo* (laughed). The sounds of å—equal to aa—are given as aw in awful and o in sorrow, but no rule is laid down for distinguishing them. Clearly, the last is the better and more common sound, and is well shown in the rhymed words at the end of this couplet of Björnson's

> "Vi læste, så Öjet blev stort og vådt;
> da smilte den Gamle og nikked blot."

When enumerating the exceptions to the rule for forming the ordinal numbers from the numerals, *femte* (fifth) and *ellevte* (eleventh) should be added. The preposition *af* also means 'by,' and *da* sometimes means 'then.' We can discover no mention of the frequently-used accented *é*. "The earlier writings of the Old Northern affords no evidence," etc., is an awkward sentence.

The fact that this grammar forms one of a series is disadvantageous to the purchaser. It consists of sixty-six duodecimo pages of large print, text, and eighty pages of publisher's catalogue, serving to give the required thickness of back for lettering, but also making a book too large to be carried in the pocket. Moreover, the cloth cover is a light gray, nearly white, which is irremediably soiled after the first two or three handlings. Mr. Sweet's tasteful Anglo-Saxon Primer furnished a far better model in size and binding. Finally, no good book is too small to deserve an index.

A Hand-Book for Travellers in Central and Northern Japan. By Ernest Mason Satow and A. G. S. Hawes. London: John Murray.

THE career of Ernest Mason Satow in Japan has been that of honorable scholarship, and the book before us is but one of its many goodly fruits. One of the best proofs of the excellence of the British civil service is the existence of such scholars. Apart from faithful routine service performed by men specially fitted for their duties, literature is enriched, and priceless knowledge becomes the easy property of the world. After two years' study of Chinese in Peking, Mr. Satow came to Japan, we believe in 1864, and immediately began the study of the Japanese language. He pursued it grammatically under the tutorship of the Rev. S. R Brown, an American missionary; but for pronunciation and living idioms he went among the people, and, note-book in hand, learned from their lips. Gifted with a philosophic mind beyond his years, the young man mastered the theory and practice of the tongue of Nippon, and then became a student of all things Japanese. He was noted for his researches into history, and made frequent journeys on foot to study famous battle-fields, shrines, temples, and cities, until Old Japan was as real to him as the nature and people of the Mikado's empire of to-day. His researches into both Shinto and Buddhism are profound, and in these subjects, especially in Shinto, the indigenous cult, he leads all students. To the great regret of those interested in Japan, he has recently accepted the appointment of British Consul-General at Bangkok, Siam.

A hand-book from such a scholar is more than a mere guide-book. While accurate, detailed, and crammed with just exactly that sort of knowledge most needful to the tourist, it is also a standard work for the library. The first edition of the book, in somewhat smaller compass, was soon exhausted, and the second, now before us, bears Mr. Murray's imprint, and has the benefit of good London labor on its make-up. It is a fat but pocketable volume of over seven hundred pages. The introduction is a handy cyclopædia in itself. After chapters on the language, weights and measures, money, bibliography, and detailed personal information for tourists, Dr. J. J. Rein contributes eight pages on the geography, climate, and weather. Twenty-four pages of text on zoölogy and botany, by specialists, who formerly lived in Japan, follow. The author furnishes a valuable epitome of the native religions, but the gem of this collection of pithy essays is the chapter on the pictorial and glyptic arts. This is from the pen of Dr. William Anderson, and is alone worth the price of the book. We know of nothing on Japanese art that puts the whole matter in such convenient and accurate form. In the body of the work, Mr. Satow has been greatly assisted by Lieutenant Hawes, of the Royal Marines, well known as an indefatigable traveller in Japan. No less than sixty-four routes or skeleton tours in central and northern Japan are described in detail, and the text is well helped out by clue-maps and plans of cities, while two finely-engraved larger maps are folded into the cover pocket. Should the traveller be storm-stayed, there is abundance of good reading matter in the dainty legendary lore which has overgrown the old sites. For those who wish to know exact history, there is also plentiful provision. For a day's stop-over at Yokohama, while the steamer is waiting, the work is too bulky, pretentious, and costly; but for every traveller, resident, and returned visitor, the book is a necessity.

The High Alps of New Zealand; or, A Trip to the Glaciers of the Antipodes, with an Ascent of Mount Cook. By William Spotswood Green, M.A., member of the English Alpine Club. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE title of this book is itself something of a surprise to readers who have hitherto had but slight acquaintance with the natural features of New Zealand. The prevailing idea of the average man concerning that somewhat unfamiliar region seldom rises to Alpine heights and everlasting snows. To one not better informed it is therefore a revelation to find that there are in New Zealand mountain ranges of extraordinary grandeur, whose culminating peaks, varying from 11,000 to considerably over 12,000 feet in height, are covered with eternal snow, sending down many large glaciers, one of which—the Tasman—is eighteen miles long and two to three miles wide. The Aletsch glacier in Switzerland is fifteen miles long by one mile wide—a comparison, as regards size, much in favor of the New Zealand glacier; while Doctor Hector, of the New Zealand Geological Survey, comparing the area of permanent ice in the southern Alps of New Zealand with the ice-field of the Bernese Oberland, states the former at 160 and the latter at 140 square miles. The highest peak of the New Zealand Alps is Mount Cook, the altitude of which is given at 12,349 feet. The ascent of this peak seems to have been long regarded as a very difficult task, since the Governor of New Zealand, in 1873, offered official aid to any member of the English Alpine Club who would undertake it; but up to the time of Mr. Green's visit, no successful attempt had been made to reach the summit.

Mr. Green's book is an entertaining account of a six-months' excursion made by him from England to New Zealand for the express purpose of climbing Mount Cook, to accomplish which object his ambition had been stirred by Alpine experiences in more familiar fields, and an irresistible desire for new conquests. He secured the companionship of two Swiss mountaineers, one of them a professional guide in the Oberland, the other the proprietor of the Hôtel de l'Ours at Grindelwald. The narrative gives many details of the entire journey, but refers more especially to the month's campaign on the slopes of Mount Cook. The ascent proved, indeed, to be a very difficult one; and although all the serious obstacles were practically overcome, the actual summit was not reached by about thirty feet, as the highest point of the climb was gained so late in the day—6 P. M.—and under such conditions of weather, that it was necessary to begin the descent without the loss of another moment. In fact, the dangers of the descent were far greater than those of the upward climb, as the mountaineers were overtaken by night and a terrific storm which severely taxed their powers of endurance. The book is generally very pleasant reading, and gives an interesting glimpse of that portion of New Zealand visited by the author. It contains one or two roughly-sketched maps, and one highly-precipitous frontispiece, in which the artist seems to have done full justice to the difficulties of the very trying position in which the men found themselves during the night of their descent from the mountain.

Vom Sund zum Posilip! Briefe aus dem Jahren 1879 bis 1881. Von Fanny Lewald. Berlin.

'FROM THE SOUND TO THE POSILIPPO' is an attractive title, and was therefore preferred to the less poetical 'From Elsinore to Sorrento,' which would, however, have been more correct, as a portion of the letters were written south of the Posilippo. When the last letter was penned on July 20, 1881, the authoress had outlived her seventieth year. An active literary career of forty years lay behind that date. Fanny Lewald—not Fanny Stahr, though she was the wife of Adolf Stahr, a congenial writer, from 1855 till his death in 1876—is a household name in Germany. She has amused and instructed generations of thinking and unthinking readers. She is a prominent character in German female literature, and it is, therefore, interesting to hear her in the evening of life, after so many changes in the history of her people and in her own, after so many modifications of thought and conviction which those changes must necessarily have wrought in her susceptible mind. We find her still poetical and sentimental, patriotic, art-loving, joyously appreciative, Teutonic through and through, conversant with the latest in universal literature and thought, and still a master of pure, plain, and melodious German prose. She has not become philosophically serious or learnedly pedantic; has not contracted the habit of sermonizing and grumbling; has matured no political or social creed; has moderated her liberalism, and obtrudes no hobbies. Her business is, as it almost always was, to walk with you through pleasant paths of life or fiction and talk amusingly—not profoundly or with any remarkable originality—on nature, character, art, and literature. She still enlarges the long series of her novels—one of the last being 'Treue Liebe'—and in her sketches of travel is still as enthusiastic about Italy as when she wrote her 'Italienisches Bilderbuch,' some thirty-five years ago, or, jointly with Stahr, twelve years later, 'Ein Winter in Rom.'

Almost two-thirds of the book before us is devoted to Italy: to Verona, Venice, Rome and its environs, Naples, Sorrento; to natural and popular characteristics of the Peninsula, its literature and its art. The rest is descriptive of life at watering places in Mecklenburg and Nassau, of Denmark and Frankfort. Art, ancient and modern, is the leading topic in the letters from Italy, and also in those from Copenhagen, in which a glowing tribute is paid to Thorwaldsen, who, as a genius and a wedder of the antique to the modern, is likened to Goethe. The spirit of the latter, however, seems constantly to hover before the eyes of our authoress, inspiring and adored. In her adoration of ancient art, and even in her admiration of certain aspects of Italian life, she shows herself a not over-idealistic *païenne*, to use a word recently chosen with such gusto, as characteristic of herself, by Mme. Adam; and we look in vain for anything indicating an inclination to worship at the Christian shrines as such (she was a Jewess to the age of sixteen), to pay homage to the great characters of the Roman Church, or to combine religious sentiment with the artistic. Of the Italians of our times, the Venetian patriot and republican Manin is mentioned, as a former acquaintance, with warm affection and admiration. The restorers of Germany's Imperial power, Wilhelm and Bismarck, receive the incense of pious patriotism, and there are effusive reminiscences of the great and terrible days of 1870–71; but the authoress remains a woman throughout—a woman fond of peace and contemplation, of nature in her idyllic stillness, and of society in its domestic activity.

Memorie and Rime. By Joaquin Miller. Funk & Wagnalls. 1884.

ONE of the obvious characteristics of Joaquin Miller's genius is its need of large compass to work in: there must be air enough, ground enough, and some great feature in the landscape as preliminaries to inspiration. From this fact, in connection with his frequent change of the scene of his imagination, there results in all his writings a quality of spaciousness which is an element in his originality. In the present volume, which is made up of prose with a few intercalary poems, he ranges over the whole territory of his travels, from the base of Mount Shasta, whence his hegira began, to Rossetti's dinner-table and the land of the daughters of "Miriam," and back and forth from John Brown's grave to the summit of Mount Hood. If the "Memorie," as the poet terms his reminiscences, is to be taken as the simple truth, without that admixture of fiction which is generally tolerated in persons of a lively imagination, their author has had a remarkable experience for the basis of his poetry, and, be it added, as honorable as it was exceptional. Despite their easily-noticed lack of cultivation and their droll sequences of thought and feeling, these tales of human daring, with their recognition of simple worth in men and women of the frontier, and even the unchecked and unreasoning sympathy of the poet with all the "causes" that flaunt across his way, show an original tenderness and strength, an innate directness of moral perception, that possibly have not been given their due weight in accounting for the success of Joaquin Miller's first verses. The personal tone of this volume is thoroughly modest and almost oppressively sincere; unfortunately, the first contact of the young poet with civilization when he went to Europe, seems to have, so to speak, Italianated him, or at least his literary style and subject. Some evil influence came over him, for though he has written now and then a fine, simple poem, unaffected either in the theme or treatment, he has never excelled the 'Songs of the Sierras' in energy or equalled them in interest, except in this occasional way. His last volume only proves once more to him, if he has eyes to see it, that in the nature and life from which he drank the springs of existence lie the springs of his art; but when he goes to Venice and to Egypt he loses power at each remove, and, at home, when he takes to imitating Bret Harte, or others of that ilk, he loses his own peculiar mastery.

There is a good deal of bad poetry here, but it is fatuously bad. There is, on the other hand, some fine imaginative work in prose. We suspect that the reason why Joaquin Miller is such a puzzle to the public is, that to the genuine power of a poet he has added, through wrong judgment, due to defects of education, a misunderstood theory of the ends and means of literary art. There is a falsity in his mode of expression which he has derived from culture; but in his radical sympathies, judgments, and ideals there seems to be a thorough sincerity. Novelty is not the main mark of the collection, nor the affectation that imports sentimentality into the miner's life; but if one takes pleasure in seeing the fine workings of an unconventionalized sense of duty, or the basis of the sense of brotherhood among men as it grows up among the unallied emigrants and pioneers, or even in the mere physical look of the wide prospect of the Northwest, he will find them better represented here than in any book by other writers, although, truth compels us to add, the reader must hunt for the nuggets amid the refuse, as if he were himself a gold-seeker.

Tales, Poems, and Essays. By Anna Letitia Barbauld. With a biographical sketch by Grace A. Oliver. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1884.

THE contents of this volume were primarily meant for use in training children's minds, and once, in our grandmothers' days, they served

this purpose very well; but since children have come to have a literature of their own, these antiquated homilies and allegories seem so awkward in their ways of engaging attention as to be comical. "The Hill of Science" doubtless still looms as loftily athwart the pathways of the young as in the allegoric vision of the pious and kind-hearted schoolmistress whose perennial smile made Miss Burney's jaws ache at the sight; and eyes as old as hers may still see Genius darting up the mountain "like an eagle," outstripped at last by Application's "slow and unremitting pace," with other similarly highly instructive charades of the scenic solitude. But nowadays this same hill has been turned into a kind of summer school, and has entirely lost its old character of a great moral show. The meaning of the change is that we address the child's moral sense less exclusively than of old, and endeavor rather to awaken his intellectual curiosity and instruct him in the employment of his eyes and fingers on real objects. Some people think that this effort to give knowledge as well as to form character by means of books has gone too far, and to the feelings of such reactionists the republication of tales like these of Mrs. Barbauld is in large part due. "Let us teach morals," they say, "in public schools, in science primers, in Rollo books and Grimm's tales—everywhere"; and forthwith here is a reissue of dull, diffuse, worn-out essays and machine rhymes, the last thin product of the exhausted eighteenth-century soil.

The morality of these misnamed tales (they have no story) is excellent, but its effectiveness in dissenting families whose idea of poetry was Young's 'Night-Thoughts' was probably much greater than could now possibly be the case with American youth of the strictest bringing-up. Boys and girls old enough to read and inwardly digest the essay "Against Inconsistency in Our Expectations," for example, have senses and brains that make stronger demands for reality and quickness of movement in what claims their attention than did the non-conformist nurselings of Palgrave Green; and they have the craft to satisfy themselves. The popularity of this volume among parents would mean an increased interest in road-agents among the children. Let us teach morals, if necessary, by tales; but no child will be long imposed on by giving him the Decalogue as a novelette in ten chapters—a feat in moral legerdemain which would be the *ne plus ultra* of Mrs. Barbauld's method. There has been growth since her day, and to substitute for modern books those of our grandmothers is to make pedagogic Bourbons of ourselves. Before we had the lives of the heroes and the saints so that children could read, understand, and love them, weak imitations of Bunyan for infant minds may have been profitable; but now that a large part of the noble tradition of the world has been put into child's speech, allegories about climbing hills, and dreams about the tortures of the Court of Fashion, and sermons on prejudice might as well rest undisturbed among the débris that clogs the ways of that same mountain of Fame which usually closed the vista of the author's ideas. The memoir that prefaces this volume is pleasantly written, with much detail, but contains nothing new.

Whirlwinds, Cyclones, and Tornadoes. By William Morris Davis, Instructor in Harvard College. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1884. 90 pp.

THOUGH called only an essay, this little book is really a full treatise upon meteorology, and deserves to be a college text-book. It is the best general view of the science in the English language, but this is not saying much. In arrangement it is felicitous and logical, and this is saying a good deal. Its distinctive feature is the importance and priority which it attaches to a disquisition upon the "Equilibrium of the Atmosphere," a subject usually shirked. The opening sentence of the chapter upon this topic will explain its title: "When the air is at rest it is normally densest and warmest next to the earth's surface, and becomes thinner and cooler at successive altitudes above it." Readers will observe that the old-fashioned dogma of an "equatorial upper current" is conspicuous by its absence from this statement.

The ground for the criticism that it is not saying much to say that this book is the best, is that all existing text-books upon meteorology are either so unintelligent or so uncandid as to ignore the fundamental element in all storms, namely, the heavy downward currents, which necessarily constitute exactly one-half of every disturbance, and which stand to the upward currents in the relation of cause to effect. The reason for thinking it likely that this omission in the descriptions may be intentional is because the phenomenon is so obvious. And the motive for the evasion is to be found in the circumstance that nobody knows much about the philosophy of these downward currents, and writers do not like to confess ignorance; they prefer to belittle the facts instead. It is not necessary to repeat the arguments which have been several times stated in these columns, in criticising other weather-books, to prove the superior significance of the heavier currents of air in causing storms. If Mr. Davis is surprised at being thus taken to task, he need only be referred to the very first paragraph of his treatise, which appropriately commences with a clear and succinct definition of a storm, but which contains no intimation of the existence of any vertical movement of air except in an upward direction. Yet the author's object is professedly to explain *how* these disturbances arise. That he cannot do so he once, indeed, admits, upon page 17, as follows: "The beginning of the upsetting in a tropical cyclone is not *fully* accounted for by observation." (The italics are ours.) Now the beginning of *every* upsetting of air must be the top-heaviness of cold upper strata; and every explanation which neglects this fact must be defective.

Light in Lands of Darkness. By Robert Young. Cassell & Co. 1884.

THE success of a previous volume upon 'Modern Missions' has encouraged the author to prepare the present work, the object of which is to deal with some of the mission-fields that are least known. The range he moves over is so wide that his condensation is sometimes the barest summary. "He has endeavored, however," he assures us, "in each case to find room for most of the outstanding facts." By "outstanding" we are to understand "important." There is an introduction by the Earl of Shaftesbury which may be safely skipped. It is an advertisement or send-off of a kind which is too common. Mr. Young's aim has been to give special prominence to the earlier phases of the various missions whose operations he describes, but it will be found that his beginnings are seldom earlier than the middle of the eighteenth century, and the most of them are later still. The limitations of his subject are greatly to his advantage, for the missionary work that has been carried on in the remoter fields has been most fruitful in adventure and heroic traits. The opening chapters treat of Greenland and Labrador, the next of the Patagonians and Fuegians. The four succeeding chapters deal with Asiatic missions, to the Syrians, Armenians, Nestorians, and Persians. A chapter upon Egypt will be of special interest at the present time. Finally, the Jews have a hundred pages to themselves, introduced by a history of their persecutions, some of which are of immediate interest, and are likely seriously to hinder those efforts for their conversion which at the best were meeting with but moderate success. Mr. Young's book is never given over to detraction and abuse, as would have been the case thirty or forty years ago. Sometimes it is almost sympathetic in its dealing with the alien faiths. It is incomplete because of its treating of Protestant missions only. There are no passages here of such engrossing interest as Mr. Parkman's 'Jesuits in North America,' none that his genius could make so fascinating and pathetic. Those who have read Montalembert's 'Monks of the West' will recall chapters in that wonderful book which make Mr. Young's somewhat mechanical recital seem even duller than it is.

The Guĕguĕnce; a Comedy Ballet in the Nahuatl Spanish Dialect of Nicaragua. Edited by Daniel G. Brinton, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia. 1883. 8vo, pp. 94.

To deal justly with this little volume it should be divided into two parts: the introduction, consisting of fifty-three pages, and the comedy proper. In the former Mr. Brinton has given us a sketch of the Nahuas and the Mangues—two of the tribes found in Nicaragua at the time of the conquest, together with an account of the dramatic dances of that country, of the musical instruments in use there, and a specimen of what may or may not be native music. Like all of Mr. Brinton's work of this character, it is well done, and to those of us who are familiar with his methods, it recalls the 'Floridian Peninsula,' his earliest and, all things considered, his best book.

In regard to the comedy itself there is not much to be said, certainly nothing in its favor unless the fact that it is used as a peg upon which to hang the introduction can be so considered. Its worthlessness in a philological point of view is virtually conceded when we are told that "it is composed in a mixed dialect, a jargon of low Spanish and corrupt Aztec (Nahuatl)," unintelligible to the natives themselves at the present day; and that it is not a picture of aboriginal manners and habits of thought is evident from the context even without the admission that "it is of comparatively recent origin," "its antiquity and authorship" being "alike unknown." So far as plot is concerned, it has none or next to none. The hero, Guĕguĕnce, is a thoroughly disreputable old man, whose "indifference to truth, cynical impudence, licentious jokes about and before his sons, and the unscrupulous tricks of which he boasts," make up the burden of the play, and form, as we are told, "a marked type of the peculiar sort of humor which the native mind preferred, and of the class of actions in which it especially found amusement." This may or may not be so. We cannot disprove it, and for that matter neither does our author prove it; but even if it be true, and we admit that a knowledge of this play is necessary to give us an idea of the sort of humor characteristic of the tribes among which it was enacted, we can only say, as Sam Weller did of learning the alphabet, "that it is not worth while going through so much to get so little."

Diseases and Injuries of the Horse. By F. O. Kirby. William Wood & Co.

THIS work is chiefly a compilation from Fitzwygram, Williams, Robinson, Youatt, and other standard and modern authorities. The au-

thor, while disclaiming originality, says that he has introduced into the book many practical ideas which are the fruits of his sixteen years' experience in equine matters, and then endeavors to present a concise and practical manual of the diseases and injuries of the horse, together with most recognized remedies and the best courses of treatment. The elaborate treatises upon veterinary medicine and surgery which are at the command of the professional veterinarian are not strictly necessary for the use of non-professional readers; hence physiology and pathology are rarely discussed by Mr. Kirby, who is content to present in a general way the best methods of nursing and treatment. Rules for determining the age of a horse by the condition and appearance of the teeth (which are not of much value after a horse has passed its ninth year) are added, besides a valuable posological table for the horse, with the action of the medicinal substances. The book is handsomely and attractively printed, and, while containing no new discussions, can be recommended to non-professional readers as a compilation of reliable information.

A Brief Handbook of English Authors.—A Brief Handbook of American Authors. By Oscar Fay Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THESE two little books are very handy, and, considering their size, very valuable works of reference. The aim is limited, but it has been well carried out. The American handbook contains a much larger list of names than can be found in any other publication of the same kind. There may be those who look upon this as an objection, but it is to be remembered that it is about inferior authors that men usually find it most difficult to secure the information which is especially desired. The facts contained in these volumes, so far as we have been enabled to test their accuracy, can be received with confidence.

Shaw's New History of English Literature, together with a History of English Literature in America. By Truman J. Backus, LL.D. Revised Edition. Sheldon & Co. 1884.

HISTORIES of English literature, though passing away as text-books in higher institutions of learning, still form part of the curriculum in the numerous schools in which the superstition yet lingers that a knowledge of literature can be got by reading about it instead of in it. They are probably better, it is fair to say, than nothing. The present work is one of the most time-honored of this class of text-books. The original, which was excessively wordy, has been subjected to several revisions; it has received a good deal of addition, and, what is better still, has suffered a great deal of excision. It can bear still further improvement. The account of Chaucer, for instance, is sadly behind the present state of knowledge. It is strange to find, also, Shaw's absurd description of the plot of 'The Faery Queene' (page 81) retained through all these successive revisions: especially when Spenser's entirely different view of it can easily be ascertained by reading his letter to Sir Walter Raleigh, invariably prefixed to the poem. Still, this revised work, though of a class of which we cannot speak highly, is, as a whole, a fair one of its class.

Round the World. By Andrew Carnegie. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THIS is a thoroughly unconventional book. It is devoid of table of contents, chapters or chapter-headings, index, foot-notes, or "all that is at enmity with joy" in reading a frank, off-hand story intended for private reading alone. Hardly a guide-book is hinted at, and from the first seat in Pullman to "home again" in Pennsylvania, there is an utter absence of the infirmities of the average bookmaker. Fresh, unstilted, full of jest and merriment, the narrative flows on, rippling into poetry, with here and there an eddy of political economy and criticism. Scouting all idea of giving information, the author fills his pages with bits of wisdom and nuggets of philosophic comment on men, customs, countries, and trade. He looks into the possible future, but avoids prophecy as to particulars. He is a hearty Scotchman, and in his strictures on British policy in India are his severest words. The Pacific, Japan, China, Annam, Singapore, Ceylon, India, Egypt, Europe are visited, and the author of an 'American Four-in-hand in Britain' seems still on the box with whip and reins, so open-air-like is the tone of the book. The closing pages are of much practical value, and set forth cogently the advantages of a trip around the world.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Palace-Prison; or, The Past and the Present. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.

Baker, G. M. The Reading Club and Handy Speaker. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 15 cents.

Bardeen, C. W. Outlines of Sentence-Making. A Brief Course of Composition. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Black, W. N. Storage and Transportation in the Port of New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.

Blackmore, R. D. The Remarkable History of Sir Thomas Upmore, Bart., M. P. Harper & Brothers.

Bolt, Robert A. Eustis. A Novel. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.50.

Brown, Dr. E. F. The Eclectic Physiology. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Caine, Prof. W. Symbolic Algebra; or the Algebra of Algebraic Numbers. D. Van Nostrand.

Cassell's Illustrated Guide to Paris. Cassell & Co. 40 cents.

Crommelin, May. In the West Countrie. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Daly, F. Henry Irving in England and America. 1838–84. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Dixon, Dr. R. B. What is to be Done? An Emergency Handbook. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 30 cents.

Dobson, A. Beaumarchais's Le Barbier de Seville. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Dubois, E. C. Broken English. A Frenchman's Struggle with the English Language. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

Elliott, R. S. Notes Taken in Sixty Years. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Farrar, Capt. C. A. J. Wild Woods Life; or a Trip to Parmachenee. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.

Foster, W. E. Stephen Hopkins, a Rhode Island Statesman. A Study in the Political History of the Eighteenth Century. Providence: S. S. Rider.

Godwin, P. Prose Writings of William Cullen Bryant. Vol. I.—Essays, Tales, and Orations. Vol. II.—Travels, Addresses, and Comments. D. Appleton & Co. $6.

Gindely, Anton. History of the Thirty Years' War. Complete in two volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.

Grant, R. An Average Man. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.50.

Gronlund, L. The Coöperative Commonwealth in its Outlines: an Exposition of Modern Socialism. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

Hale, Rev. E. E. The Fortunes of Rachel. Funk & Wagnalls.

Haswell, C. H. Mechanics' and Engineers' Pocket Book of Tables, Rules, and Formulas. 45th ed. Harper and Brothers.

Hill, D. J. The Elements of Rhetoric and Composition a Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. Sheldon & Co $1.

Hurst, Rev. J. F. Short History of the Reformation. Harper & Brothers.

Howe, Maud. The San Rosario Ranch. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Jenness, Annie. Barbara Thayer. Her Glorious Career. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

Jevons-Hill. The Elements of Logic: a Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. Sheldon & Co. $1.

Kirk, Ellen Olney. A Midsummer Madness. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.25.

Lang, A. Molière's Les Précieuses Ridicules. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Mackenzie, Rev. J. Day-Dawn in Dark Places: a Story of Wanderings and Work in Bechwanaland. Cassell & Co. $1.25.

Maupas, M. de. The Story of the Coup d'État. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.

Meyer, Rev. H. A. W. Critical and Exegetical Hand-Book to the Epistles to the Corinthians. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.

Morley, J. Ralph Waldo Emerson. An Essay. Macmillan & Co. 20 cents.

Mothers in Council. Harper & Brothers.

Murfree, W. L., Sr. A Treatise on the Law of Sheriffs and other Ministerial Officers. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co.

Phillips, W. The Lost Arts. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Phillips, W. Daniel O'Connell. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Russell, W. C. John Holdsworth, Chief Mate. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Smith, P. H. Acadia: a Lost Chapter in American History. E. W. Nash. $2.

Steele, J. D. An Abridgment of Hygienic Physiology, with References to Alcoholic Drinks and Narcotics. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Stevenson, A. F. The Battle of Stone's River, near Murfreesborough, Tenn. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.

Taylor, G. Clytia: a Romance of the Sixteenth Century. W. S. Gottsberger.

Thomson, W. H. The Great Argument; or Jesus Christ in the Old Testament. Harper & Brothers.

Townsend, Virginia F. But a Philistine. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

Turner, G. Samoa a Hundred Years Ago, and Long Before. Preface by E. B. Tylor. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.

Walford, E. Greater London: a Narrative of its History, its People, and its Places. Cassell & Co. $4.

Westbrook, Rev. R.-B. Man—Whence and Whither? Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.

Wyman, W. H. Bibliography of the Bacon-Shakespeare Controversy, with Notes and Extracts. Cincinnati: Peter G. Thompson.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 12, 1884.

The Week.

THE chief reason for Blaine's nomination was that he was the favorite of a large majority of the Convention. Of that fact there can be no question. He did not have enough on the first ballot to nominate him, not because a majority of the delegates did not prefer him in their hearts, but because some of them doubted the expediency of nominating him in the face of independent opposition. In addition to these doubters, there were a certain number of committed Blaine delegates held in reserve in order to be brought forward on succeeding ballots, thus producing the effect of growing strength. Just how many of these there were cannot be estimated, but there were enough of them to set the tide, and with a convention made up of such material, that was all that was necessary. The reinforcements which came to him on the second, third, and fourth ballots were mainly from the South and West, and came in accordance with combinations and bargains which had evidently been made with great care and with no regard whatever for appearances. The effects of the Powell Clayton bargain were shown in the straggling recruits from the South on the second and third, and the final break which started for Blaine in the Alabama delegation at the beginning of the fourth. A fit companion for this bargain came immediately after in the delivery of Logan's squad, and finally the return for this support in the nomination of Logan for the second place. Blaine was the one candidate who was willing to make bargains in return for votes, and the ease with which his friends made them and carried them out is only fresh evidence that he was the candidate who came most nearly to the hearts of a majority of the delegates.

From the outset a combination between the Independents and the Arthur men was an impossibility. The former were determined to support no candidate who was not upright, able, and clean. The Arthur men had no sincere sympathy for reform. They were willing to pretend to be reformers if by so doing they could induce some of the Independents to come to their aid. Rather than help to nominate a reform candidate, who, if elected, would have no sympathy for them, they were willing to see Blaine win. Like the Blaine men, they were opposed to allowing the Independent tail to wag the Republican dog, and both worked together to send the dog into the campaign without any tail. The Independents were in a hopeless minority from the start, but in refusing sturdily to enter into any bargains, or to follow any plan which had in view anything less than the nomination of honest men, they represented the will of their constituents, and at the same time forced the Blaine and Arthur men to put the party in an open anti-reform position.

It appears now that it is "free trade," which is at the bottom of the whole thing. At least the *Tribune* says so. It is the free-traders only who dislike the ticket and are going to oppose it. Why they do so, we need hardly explain. It is, however, best to be frank; they do it to put money in their pockets. They say Mr. Blaine is a bad man, because they receive gold from the British Treasury. Why the British Treasury pays out gold for this purpose is also plain enough. It does so because it knows that if Mr. Blaine were elected he would not permit the tariff to be lowered. Nay, in the opinion of many British publicists he would order it to be raised 25 per cent. within a week after his inauguration, and would also direct the subsidization of at least ten ocean steamship lines. No wonder then that the free-traders are anxious to keep him out of the White House, and stick at nothing in order to accomplish their purpose. They ought, however, in common decency to refrain from inventing lies about him. Take what they call the "Mulligan" letters, for instance, which they say Blaine wrote. It is hardly to be believed, of course, but it is none the less true—there are no such letters. There is no such man as Mulligan—all a fiction, we assure you; perfectly disgraceful!

This is not the first time Mr. Blaine has suffered in this way either. In 1876 a number of charges were made against him. They were all false—not a word of truth in them. Why were they made then? Simply because some "rebel brigadiers" wanted to injure him. These men, smarting under the numerous defeats that Blaine had inflicted on them during the war, when he commanded the famous Blaine division on so many bloody fields, just sat down and concocted a lot of stories about railroads and things and fastened them on him. And yet people talk about Southern chivalry. Here was a man who had sent them flying wherever he met them—all over Virginia and Georgia—and when peace came, instead of letting bygones be bygones, they began to try to lay him low with the poisoned arrow of detraction, after having tried their shot and shell on him in vain.

The Texas Germans, a large part of the voting population of the State, are said to be a good deal dissatisfied by the arguments of those who insist that we need Blaine for the sake of a "vigorous foreign policy." They say that they left Germany because the foreign policy of that country was too vigorous for them, and came here under the idea that the citizens of this country were not to be disturbed by foreign broils or commotions, or taken away from their homes and business for the Monroe doctrine, the Balance of Power below the equator, or anything of the sort. A German who left his own country to save himself from fighting for Bismarck would hardly care to go to the wars here for Jim Blaine.

There has probably never been anything heard in any country at any time at all comparable with the Blaine yell as it reached its fullest dimensions in Thursday night's proceedings at Chicago. As the chief Blaine organ, the *Tribune* of course has the best description, or rather series of descriptions of it. We will give them here in the order of their appearance in the *Tribune's* columns: A "tornado"; a "sudden explosion"; a "roar fully as deep and deafening as Niagara," under the force of which the "air quivered, the gas lights trembled, and the walls fairly shook"; a "match in a powder magazine"; a "whirling cyclone"; and finally, a "shrill yell as of thousands of wild animals went through the hall. It was the soul of Blaine abroad among the people."

The narrative of "the Blaine crowd's" performances at that evening's session reads more like an account of a mass meeting of maniacs than anything else. They were all evidently under orders to yell their utmost whenever Blaine's name was mentioned by anybody. They interrupted their own speakers as well as those of other candidates, and whenever there was a pause for a moment, shouted Blaine. Anything more absurd than the display of a helmet with a white plume upon it, which was the climax of the "enthusiasm," it would be difficult to conceive; but it was conceived and executed when, in response to Judge Foraker's casual allusion to Blaine, the helmet was borne to and fro through the hall amid perfect howls of admiration and delight. The plume was the invention of Bob Ingersoll eight years ago, and it is melancholy to reflect that while it remains as the oriflamme of the Blaine boom, Bob himself has lost faith in it. No other reason for Blaine's nomination has been found to take its place. The speeches of the men who nominated him on Thursday will be searched in vain for one. The only advocate who came anywhere near giving one was poor Tom Platt, who was put upon the platform to say that he was in favor of Blaine's nomination because "his turn had come."

The campaign for Blaine in this State was opened at Peekskill on Monday evening, and the first speaker, the sounder of the "key-note," was Jimmy Husted. He described the ticket as a combination of statesman and soldier—the "Plumed Knight of Maine and the Glorious Black Eagle of Illinois." He was very eloquent over the unprecedented spectacle of a private citizen steadfastly refusing to have his name considered or discussed, and being fairly dragged from retirement and thrust into a Presidential nomination by the irresistible will of the people, who nominated him "over the heads of the politicians themselves." When Steve Elkins, Pow Clayton, Tom Platt, and the other boomers read that announcement they will wonder what it was that they were in Chicago for last week. In his peroration, which was a very lofty flight, Jimmy said that the "unquestioned ability, the unfaltering patriotism, the unimpeached integrity" of Blaine "combined

with a public record which challenges the admiration of mankind," made a platform almost unnecessary, but the Convention had promulgated one which was a "concentration of all his political ideas and of all his public acts." Chauncey M. Depew followed Husted, but seemed to put much less heart into his work. The best he could do was to tell a very old story about the kick of a mule. He made no allusion to either a Plumed Knight or a Black Eagle, and consequently aroused very little enthusiasm.

The newspaper opposition to Blaine becomes more portentous every day. The list of the Independent and Republican journals which are openly committed against him stands now: New York *Times*, New York *Herald*, *Harper's Weekly*, *Puck*, *Evening Telegram*, Brooklyn *Union*, Rochester *Post-Express*, Rochester *Herald*, Syracuse *Herald*, Flushing *Times*, Boston *Advertiser*, Boston *Transcript*, Boston *Herald*, Springfield *Republican*, Philadelphia *Record*, Philadelphia *Times*, Chicago *Times*, Chicago *News*, New Haven *News*, and the New York EVENING POST. In addition to these the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, the Buffalo *Express*, the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser*, the Philadelphia *Telegraph*, the Boston *Journal*, the Worcester *Spy*, and many other Republican party journals consent to support the ticket, but admit that they have small hope of seeing it elected. We do not believe any candidate of any party ever entered upon a Presidential canvass with such tremendous odds as these against him. In this city the *Tribune* is the only paper which supports Blaine squarely. The *Commercial Advertiser* has not defined its course clearly, but it evidently has no intention of advocating Blaine, for it says that his nomination was a "glorious victory" won by the "Star-route gang, the cow-boys, and the intriguing politicians." The *Mail and Express* is doubtful also, saying that "this may be a bad year for Republicans, unless entirely united and well guided."

There is a curious muddle in Virginia over the Republican electoral ticket. Both the Mahone Convention and the Straightout Convention chose full electoral tickets when they chose delegates to Chicago. The Mahone delegates went there as Arthur men, but as soon as Blaine was nominated they came out unanimously for him. This left the Straightouts, who went there as Blaine men, in an unpleasant position, and their feelings have been much harassed since by the enthusiasm with which the Mahone contingent has been welcomed in the Blaine ranks. They claim that their electoral ticket is the only genuine Republican one, and Mahone makes the same claim for his. He has much the larger following, and as proof that his is the only "regular" Blaine party, his organ, the Richmond *Whig*, makes the following statement: "One of the firmest friends of Mr. Blaine, who is also one of the most brilliant journalists of the country, as the friend of Mr. Blaine visited General Mahone in person, and informed him that Mr. Blaine had authorized him to say that Mr. Arthur could not have been a better friend to General Mahone than he (Blaine) would be." This is very hard on the Straightouts, who were organized expressly to give Blaine a following in Virginia.

Among the cheering despatches received at the Blaine headquarters in Chicago on Thursday was one from Colonel Ethan Allen, of this city, who made the startling announcement that he "spoke for 500,000 honest Independents" in this State, who demanded Blaine as President, apparently in order to defy "a minion of royalty calling himself a Chancellor, and hailing from Berlin." It is but right to say to Prince Bismarck, who is doubtless the person here alluded to, that the popular estimate of Colonel Allen's strength in this State is very much lower than this, and we would advise that no military or other preparation be made in Germany to repel either him or Blaine without further inquiry. Careful estimates by competent observers, in fact, put the Colonel down as speaking for about ten men, including himself, and all of very doubtful "independence" and a very moderate amount of common sense. Some hold that even this is much too high. In fact, there is a strong suspicion that they are a small band of blatherskites whom the Chancellor himself and his dachshund would have no difficulty in disposing of in five minutes.

The despatch on Thursday, from London, containing the *Standard's* assertion that "the chief importance of the Convention now sitting in Chicago is to decide how far the choice of a candidate can be influenced by the Irish faction in favor of stirring up ill blood between England and America," has excited considerable amusement. But it illustrates curiously the small pains taken by even the best London papers to have American affairs treated by competent hands. The *Saturday Review's* articles on American politics have long been relished on this side of the water for the truly entertaining number and variety of their blunders. But journals of much more pretension to accuracy also show a strange inability to get below the surface of American political phenomena. The *Standard* is one of the best equipped morning papers in London, as far as editorial writing is concerned, and yet it appears to have fallen a victim to the delusion about the influence of the "Irish vote" on American politics, which is now a favorite bogie of the London clubs. Some of this is evolved from the inner consciousness of the writers as the only possible explanation of the failure to prosecute the *Irish World* and O'Donovan Rossa, but more of it is due to the twaddle about the Irish-Americans furnished by Mr. Goldwin Smith to the magazines, and some, probably, to the talk of the old Tory Squire who acts as London correspondent of the *Tribune*, and whose knowledge of American public opinion is as defective as Mr. Smith's. Indeed, we believe he has never been in this country except when he travelled here for a short time with his tutor when a young man.

There was a story the day after the nominations were made that Blaine had telegraphed to Gould, Sage, and others of his Wall Street supporters, to make a little boom in stocks, with the view of counteracting the popular impression that the business world was afraid of him and his "brilliant foreign policy." Whether there was any truth in this we do not know. As a matter of fact, however, stocks did go up a little, after the news of the nominations came, and the *Tribune*, which is almost the only Blaine paper worth notice, called attention to the fact, in terms almost pathetic. But the subjoined table showing the prices the day before the nomination and yesterday, makes it appear as if either Gould and Field and Sage were "going back" on him, or were unable to spread their views of the ticket among the moneyed men:

CLOSING.

	Thursday, June 5.	June 10.
Can. Pac.	45⅛	44⅝
Chicago and Northw'n	99⅝	98¼
Chicago, Bur. & Q	114¼	113⅛
St. Paul	72¾	71⅛
D., L. and W.	101⅞	100
Michigan Cent.	70½	65¾
N. Y. Cent.	104⅝	103¼
Northern Pac.	21¼	20½
Western Union	60¼	60

Four Democratic State Conventions were held on Thursday—in Connecticut, Maryland, Vermont, and Alabama—and in all of them the sentiment was "unanimously in favor of the old ticket." We believe it is a fact that this has been the case with all the Democratic Conventions which have met thus far. The party is nearer a unit on this line of policy than it has been on anything else for years. There are probably not half-a-dozen men in it who have the slightest idea that Tilden will be a candidate, but the whole party would like to have the Republicans think he will be. Now that Blaine is nominated we may look for the "sentiment for the old ticket" to disappear, and something to be developed in its place which may make the Republicans feel very anxious.

Mr. Hubbard, one of the lawyers engaged in extraditing Eno, has complained to our correspondent at Montreal that we unjustly accuse him of a desire to "kidnap" the prisoner. If he will read more carefully what we have said on this subject, he will perceive that we used the word kidnap in a broad, perhaps somewhat too broad, sense. We did not suppose, nor did we say, that Mr. Hubbard was dogging the footsteps of Eno with a gang of hirelings ready to seize upon, gag and bind him, throw him into a hack, and bring him across the border. What we are afraid of is that if Mr. Hubbard succeeds in getting Eno extradited for forgery in the second or third degree (the possibility of which we very much doubt), he will then be tried here for an entirely different crime, and that somebody is endeavoring to get him here for such a purpose. This would result in more trouble over the Ashburton treaty, and it would be much the same sort of trouble that kidnapping would produce.

It is satisfactory to know that the outrageous mismanagement of the Newark Savings Bank is to result in proceedings against the directors. It looked rather badly for them when the Chancellor, on the second fail-

ure of the bank, made a public announcement through a newspaper interview that he meant to inquire into their behavior, but it looks worse now. The depositors who are proceeding against them say in their petition that in April, 1884, the managers lent to the firm of Fisk & Hatch, of this city, United States bonds and cash to the amount of $1,225,227 34, receiving bonds of the market value of $278,718 15 and $95,000 in cash, leaving a balance due the bank of $851,508 59. The amount was subsequently reduced to $848,-632 04, which remained in the hands of Fisk & Hatch wholly unsecured until the firm became insolvent. This loan was, the petitioners say, contrary to the provisions of the order of the Chancery Court and in disobedience and contempt thereof, and so far as the petitioners have been able to ascertain, it was not secured by any collaterals whatever. In further disobedience of the Chancellor's orders, the managers, it is said, permitted unregistered United States Government bonds to the amount of $2,036,000, part of the assets of the bank, to be taken and kept in the office of Fisk & Hatch, under an agreement made by the managers on behalf of the bank and the firm, that the firm might use the bonds at their discretion provided they replaced them with other securities of equal value; that Fisk & Hatch, under color of that agreement, appropriated to their own use all these bonds and replaced them with railroad bonds and other securities of less market value, and after so doing became insolvent and unable to refund to the bank, in consequence of which the bank became insolvent.

The power to punish for contempt in New Jersey is, we believe, unlimited, and the value of it in this case is obvious. The directors are wealthy men, and by means of their wealth can easily and summarily "purge" themselves, as the lawyers say, of their contempt. If they cannot prove their innocence of the charges, it will probably not be necessary for the Chancellor to send them to a Newark dungeon, and have them squeezed on the floor under heavy weights; all that they will have to do will be to agree to use their money to make the bank good. The peculiarity of the case is that the general fact of mismanagement is not denied. The only question is, Who was guilty? and this, we have no doubt, the Chancellor will find out far more quickly than the District Attorney or the Grand Jury would.

If "liquidation" is a good thing, the receivership of the West Shore Road ought to be hailed with satisfaction by everybody in the country. The road was built in a curious way. Most railroads in the United States have been built cheaply, in order that the earnings might begin as soon as possible, and be applied in part to making the equipment and construction complete. The West Shore Road, which is intended to compete with the Central, was built on the opposite plan of turning out a fully constructed and equipped road, and its actual cost was, as nearly as possible, $100,000 a mile. There were no jobs or irregularities, we believe, connected with the construction, and the road is bonded for its actual cost; the stock being worth nothing. The bonds have fallen to about 40, which would make the property worth $20,000,000 instead of the $50,000,000 it cost, and as it cannot pay its interest, it has been put in the hands of receivers. The case illustrates the enormous risk of railroad building, and shows why, as a general thing, people cannot be got to build railroads on the chance of making 6 or 8 per cent. out of the venture. The chance of profit has to correspond with that of risk.

The coupons of one of Gould's roads—the Texas and Pacific—which fell due on the first, were taken up in a manner the legality of which is of interest to every bondholder in the United States. They were not paid off, but "bought up" by the Missouri Pacific, another of Gould's roads, and appear to be now held by that corporation as an outstanding claim against the Texas and Pacific. Mr. Gould is himself quoted as saying that this same device has been resorted to "two or three times before." If coupons can be taken up in this way without being cancelled, the effect must be to render the mortgage security very precarious. It cannot be foreclosed by the holders of the bonds, because their mortgage interest is not in default; but the holders of the old "bought" coupons could put the road in default at any time, and get a receiver appointed, and enable the management to accomplish a great variety of frauds. We have no idea that any respectable court would hold a mortgage to be in default as to one set of holders, and not in default as to another; it would probably decide the coupon to be extinguished by the payment, and merely to be evidence in the hands of the purchaser of so much money lent to the road without security. But in the present condition of the Gould roads, such "purchases" of coupons are food for unpleasant reflection among the bondholders.

The reception of Col. George Bliss into the Catholic Church yesterday is one of the most interesting events of the season, and may have an important influence on local politics. The Colonel is an intensely practical man, who abhors sentiment of all kinds, and has never been supposed to bother himself much with religious or philosophical speculation. When the news of his going over to Rome, therefore, first reached us, we concluded that it was due simply to that desire of "rest" which has carried so many troubled souls into the Catholic Church, and ascribed it to the worry he has recently undergone about the Star-route trials, the $50,000 he made out of the proceedings as counsel, and the unseemly charges made against him by his associate, Mr. Ker. According, however, to an intimate friend of his, reported by the *Sun* this morning, his conversion is the result simply of "a fight of mind and argument" with Monsignor Capel. In other words, the two intellects came in collision and Colonel Bliss went down before the churchman's logic. We are glad to say, for the honor of the bar and the local Machine, however, that the Colonel resisted stoutly, and was not convinced without great trouble, or "much labor," as the reporter calls it. He will be an honor to his new church, and will be able to give even the most astute of its prelates some useful hints in the art of management. If they should send him out as a preaching friar, he would bring home at least a brace of converts every night.

Among the warm-weather topics in the columns of our contemporaries, we miss this year the old-fashioned article, showing what precautions should be taken against exposure to the sun, and also the New York as a summer resort article. But a new topic is at hand in the "cold-blast" system of refrigeration in use in Boston and this city, which is said to have proved a success, although no attempt has thus far been made to apply it to anything but the cooling of articles of food. What we need as much as this is its application to the refrigeration of parlors, dining-rooms, and bed-rooms. In a climate like ours an apparatus by which a house or a room could be cooled, and kept cool, would be one of the greatest luxuries imaginable, and if the accounts of the "cold-blast" system are true, there seems nothing to prevent its use for such purposes. A furnace, if we were not accustomed to it, would seem a most improbable domestic appliance; the time may come when we shall be able to get cool as easily as we can now get warm, and, in fact, when the temperature of the air will be as much at our command as that of the water we use now is.

The sharp competition between the ocean steamship lines has produced another fast run by the new National steamer, the *America*. Her time was 6 days, 15 hours, and 41 minutes, and her record has been beaten only by the *Oregon's* 6 days, 10 hours, and 10 minutes. The peculiarity of the *America* is said to be that in her model and finish she somewhat resembles the old clipper-built sailing vessels that were the fastest on the ocean in the days before the American mercantile marine had been destroyed by protection. She is not an American vessel, however, either in build or ownership, and we shall not have any such vessels just yet. John Roaches and Bill Chandlers are our substitute both for a navy and a mercantile marine.

There is a story from a good source, that both the Mahdi and Osman Digna have sent word to the Sultan that they are willing to lay down their arms on his order, and treat with him directly, if he will protect them against the English. This even if true, however, is of little consequence. The inexpediency of letting the Sultan meddle in Egyptian politics was thoroughly settled by the Powers at the beginning of the present troubles, even if he had the money or the troops to make his meddling effective. He has neither, however. The Mahdi is much more likely to get help or protection from France than from him; that is, French opposition and intrigues are much more likely to cause England to let the Sudan alone than anything any Mussulman power in or out of the Sudan can say or do.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 4, to TUESDAY, June 10, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE National Republican Convention at Chicago was uneventful on Wednesday. Throughout the morning there was considerable talk of General Sherman as a "dark horse," but the movement was nipped in the bud by a letter from him to a friend absolutely refusing to allow the use of his name. It was conceded by Blaine's managers that they made a mistake in putting forward a man of Powell Clayton's reputation for temporary Chairman.

About 11 o'clock on Wednesday morning the Convention reassembled. After some preliminary business Mr. Hawkins, of Tennessee, offered a resolution pledging all delegates to support the nominee of the Convention, whoever he might be. He said that he thought its adoption desirable on account of certain "whispers in the air." A number of speeches were made in opposition to it, the most notable being that of George William Curtis. He reminded the Convention of what was said and done four years ago, when Mr. Campbell, of West Virginia, declared that he was a Republican who carried his sovereignty under his own hat, and when (under the lead of Garfield) the gentleman who presented a similar resolution was induced to withdraw it. He therefore asked this Convention to assume that every delegate was an honest and honorable man. He characterized the resolution as one which was unworthy to be ratified by a body of free men. Mr. Hawkins said that as his resolution had developed so much opposition he would withdraw it. This was the second notable victory for the Independent element of the Convention. The Committee on Permanent Organization reported General John B. Henderson, of Missouri, for Permanent Chairman, and this was agreed to. On taking the chair General Henderson made complimentary allusions to all the prominent candidates, which were heartily applauded, but when Blaine's name was reached the audience cheered for five minutes. Several minor resolutions were offered, and the Convention at 12:20 P. M. adjourned until 7 P. M. to await the report of the Committee on Credentials. At that hour the Committee were not ready with their report, and an adjournment was taken until Thursday.

During Wednesday night and Thursday morning the Arthur and Edmunds leaders were in conference trying to settle on a definite course of action. The only decision then reached was to stand firm for their respective candidates against Blaine until one or two ballots indicated clearly the situation. Then would be the time for further united action. The Convention was called to order about 11 o'clock on Thursday morning. The Committee on Credentials made a unanimous report, which was adopted, giving the sitting members all the contested seats except in two cases where delegates and contestants were admitted to half a vote each. Mahone's delegation from Virginia were admitted. The rules of the last Convention were substantially adopted. An effort to adopt a new plan of representation giving additional delegates to States with Republican majorities was violently opposed and withdrawn, the old method being continued.

The platform approves President Arthur's Administration; demands that "the imposition of duties on foreign imports shall be made not for revenue only, but that in raising the requisite revenues for the Government such duties shall be so levied as to afford security to our diversified industries and protection to the rights and wages of the laborer"; pledges the Republican party "to correct the inequalities of the tariff, and to reduce the surplus, not by the vicious and indiscriminate process of horizontal reduction, but by such methods as will relieve the taxpayer without injuring the laborer or the great productive interests of the country;" favors Government regulation of railway charges to prevent unjust discrimination; advocates the enforcement of the eight-hour law; denounces the importation of contract labor from Europe or Asia, and advises an extension of the civil-service reform system, the forfeiture of unearned land grants, the repeal of the limitations to the Arrears of Pensions act of 1879, the restoration of the navy to efficiency; on the adoption of this an adjournment was taken.

The presentation of candidates took place at the Thursday evening session, continuing until 2 o'clock on Friday morning. General Hawley's name was presented by Augustus Brandegee, General Logan's by Senator Cullom, Blaine's by Judge W. H. West, the blind delegate from Ohio; President Arthur's by Martin I. Townsend; Senator Sherman's by Judge Foraker; and Senator Edmunds's by ex-Governor Long of Massachusetts, seconded by George William Curtis. This cleared away all preliminary work.

At 11:20 o'clock on Friday morning the Convention again met and the balloting was immediately begun, and continued until a nomination was made on the fourth ballot. The figures on the four ballots, in order, are as follows: James G. Blaine 334½, 349, 375, 544; Chester A. Arthur 278, 276, 274, 207; George F. Edmunds 93, 85, 69, 41; John A. Logan 63½, 61, 53, 7; John Sherman 30, 28, 25; Joseph R. Hawley 13, 13, 13, 15; Robert T. Lincoln 4, 4, 8, 2; W. T. Sherman 2, 2, 2. These figures indicate clearly the steady and rapid gains made by Blaine, the steadfastness of Arthur's vote until the last ballot, and the inability of the Blaine opposition to effect a combination on a "dark horse." At the end of the third ballot Blaine lacked only 36 of a majority, the whole number of votes being 820. His gains up to this time had been made by twos and threes from many States. The opposition now became alarmed and an effort was made to secure an adjournment. The motion was lost—364 to 450. This was a victory for Blaine, and his nomination was clearly foreshadowed by the vote. The fourth ballot then began. Alabama was the first State to break, Blaine gaining six, followed by a gain of two in Florida. When Illinois was called the chairman of the delegation arose, withdrew the name of Logan, and cast 34 votes of that State for Blaine. This assured Blaine 414 votes, or three more than a majority. The change was made on the receipt of a telegram from Senator Logan ordering it. Rapid gains followed from other delegations, until Blaine reached a total of 544 votes, 133 more than a majority. The excitement in the Convention Hall was intense and the noise deafening. The nomination was then made unanimous. At the evening session, Senator John A. Logan, as a reward for his part in the Blaine victory, was nominated by acclamation for the Vice-Presidency. This completed the work of the Convention, and it adjourned *sine die*.

The Massachusetts Reform Club on Saturday repudiated the Republican nominations, and voted to request the Independent voters throughout the country to join them in active and immediate efforts to secure the nomination by the Democratic party of such men as can command their support, and, failing in that, to call a convention at the earliest practicable day to nominate candidates in full sympathy with the reform sentiment of the country. Charles Francis Adams, jr., is Chairman of the Committee appointed to carry into effect the will of the Club.

A number of Democratic State Conventions were held on Thursday. In Connecticut there was a strong sentiment for the old ticket. The platform favors a tariff for revenue only. The Maryland Democrats elected delegates to the National Convention, and adopted a platform asking for a reduction of taxes and that the "great fraud" of 1876 shall be righted by a majority of the electoral votes of the American people. The Vermont Democrats declared for a revision of the tariff limiting the revenue to the needs of the Government when economically administered. P. W. Redington was nominated for Governor. Nearly all the delegates elected from Alabama are for Tilden and Hendricks.

In the House of Representatives on Saturday, Mr. Hoblitzell (Dem., Mo.), from the Committee on Reform in the Civil Service, reported adversely bills to repeal the Civil-Service Act, and they were laid on the table. The Committee unanimously approved and praised the work of the Civil-Service Commission.

The River and Harbor Bill was considered by the House of Representatives on Monday in Committee of the Whole. It appropriates about $13,000,000.

In the House on Tuesday Mr. Morrison, Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, reported a concurrent resolution providing for the final adjournment of Congress on Monday, June 30, at 3 P. M.; adopted without division.

Before the House Committee investigating the Star-route trials Charles D. Colman, an attorney of Plymouth, Mich., testified on Tuesday that William A. Cook, one of the Government counsel in the prosecution, accepted several hundred dollars to prevent the indictment of Doctor Colgrove, a Star-route contractor.

Representative Hewitt (Dem., N. Y.) was authorized, on Thursday, by the Ways and Means Committee to report favorably a bill carrying into effect the reciprocity treaty with Mexico.

An estimate of the wheat crop of the country, based upon statistics compiled in various States, places the total amount for the present year at 516,000,000 bushels.

The Court of Alabama Claims on Friday decided in the case of the *Boston*, which has been under advisement for a year, that the *Boston* was not a cruiser.

The Governor of Massachusetts has given his approval to the "act to improve the civil service of the commonwealth and the cities thereof," by the appointment of a civil-service commission with special powers.

The schedules in the assignment of James D. Fish, late President of the Marine Bank of this city, show that the nominal value of his real and personal property is about $4,000,000, and its actual value $582,000. His total liabilities are $4,230,000.

The Standing Committee of the electors of Harvard College announce the following candidates selected by the electors at-large for the five vacancies in the Board of Overseers to be filled commencement day: Charles R. Codman, class of '49; Richard M. Hodges, '47; Robert D. Smith, '57; Henry Cabot Lodge, '71; Augustus Hemenway, '75; T. Jefferson Coolidge, '50; Henry S. Russell, '60; Francis W. Palfrey, '51; Charlemagne Tower, '30; Frederick L. Ames, '54.

General James Watson Webb died in this city on Saturday at the age of eighty-two. He was an officer of the army in early life. In 1827 he became the editor and proprietor of the New York *Courier*, which two years later became the *Courier and Enquirer*. It was an influential Whig journal under his editorship. It was eventually merged in the *World*. In 1861 General Webb went to Brazil as United States Minister, a post which he held for four years. He was the author of 'Altowan, or Adventures in the Rocky Mountains,' two volumes, published in 1846, and of 'Slavery and its Tendencies,' published in 1856. For many years he has taken no part in public affairs, except, occasionally, to write letters to the newspapers on political topics.

Charles Fenno Hoffman, the poet and novelist, who at one time occupied an eminent

place among the literary men of the country, died in Harrisburg, Pa., on Saturday, at the age of seventy-eight. He was connected with the *Knickerbocker* and *American Monthly* magazines, and the *Literary World*. In 1840 he published 'Greyslaer,' a romance founded on the trial of Beauchamp for the murder of Colonel Sharper, of Kentucky. This established his position among American authors. He published in 1842 a collection of his poems under the title of 'The Vigil of Faith and other Poems.' His greatest successes as a poet were in lyric compositions. In 1849 he was seized with a mental disorder which put an end forever to his literary labors.

Noah Hayes Swayne, ex-Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, died in this city on Sunday at the age of 80. On January 4, 1862, he was appointed by President Lincoln a Justice of the United States Supreme Court. Judge Swayne discharged his judicial duties with faithfulness and ability for nineteen years, resigning on January 25, 1881.

FOREIGN.

Earl Granville and M. Waddington, the French Minister, have agreed upon the basis of the conference on Egyptian affairs, and the terms of the agreement have been imparted to the Powers. They affirm, it is reported, the principle of the temporary occupation of Egypt by England, to which, however, no limit is fixed, and propose an international control of the Powers to audit the whole system of the revenue and expenses of Egypt. England recognizes the suzerain rights of the Porte throughout all Egypt including the Sudan, and France formally abandons all claim to a dual control.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* on Monday published an outline of what is believed to be the provisions in the agreement upon which the Egyptian Conference will be based, recently made between France and England. Among the provisions are a loan to the Khedive from England of £8,000,000, multiple control in which all the Powers shall be represented, British occupation for three and-a-half years, and a Turkish expedition of 15,000 troops for the pacification of the Sudan. The *Daily News* said the article is a tissue of inventions, but the *Pall Mall Gazette* on Tuesday reiterated its assertions, and added: "At least, in regard to the proposed English loan of £8,000,000 to the Khedive we were absolutely correct. All the jugglery and self-deception of the Government's protests will not affect the simple fact that England is to be in a permanent minority on the Board of Audit. Our French colleagues make no secret of their determination to convert the Board of Audit into an effectual control. The Ministers know that this is true. The only way for the Government to prolong its existence is to sacrifice this agreement."

In the House of Commons on Tuesday Mr. Gladstone said that the rumors that Turkey had been asked to pacify the Sudan were unfounded, but that negotiations with Turkey were in progress looking to that Power's occupation of certain Red Sea ports.

Reports reached Cairo on Tuesday that the rebels nine days ago massacred Hussein Pasha Khalifa, commander at Berber, and all his family, a garrison faithful to the Khedive, and the European traders who still remained at Berber.

Osman Digna's persistent attacks on Suakim are on account of El Mahdi's intention to cross over to Mecca before moving northward. He therefore requires that the seaport tribes be dispersed. Osman swears that he will capture Suakim. His forces now number 7,000 men.

The rebels have captured Abu-Hamad, and El Mahdi has appointed a rebel Governor over that town.

Rumors reached Cairo on Thursday that General Gordon had escaped up the Nile from Khartum on board an armored steamer. The next day it was announced that he had not escaped, but was making reconnoissances above and below the city.

The whole British garrison paraded the streets of Cairo on Thursday for the purpose of impressing the natives and overawing secret societies. The sentries were doubled because of a rumored attempt to explode the citadel.

The Sultan of Turkey has received advices from El Mahdi and Osman Digna declaring that they are desirous to treat directly with the Sultan without foreign intervention. They offer to lay down their arms if the Caliph gives the order and engages to protect them against English invasion.

The London *Times* says that the friends of General Gordon have made arrangements to send messengers to Khartum with letters and copies of reports of the debates in Parliament on the Sudan question and of the proceedings of the various meetings held, at which the Government was urged to relieve General Gordon.

Advices from Admiral Hewett dated Adowa, May 28, state that he has had an interview with King John, and that great honors had been shown him by the King. On Monday it was announced that King John had accepted the treaty prepared by Admiral Hewett.

The Irish Executive has written a letter to Lord Arthur Hill stating that the Government has decided in future not to permit counter demonstrations on the part of the Orangemen to be held at the same time and place as Nationalist meetings. It will not interfere with such counter demonstrations, however, provided they are held at such times and places as will not bring hostile bodies into collision. The policy of the Government is to maintain the right of public meeting and to preserve the public peace. This decision has exasperated the Loyalists in the north of Ireland.

Lord Arthur Hill has written a reply to Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in which he expresses regret at the policy of the latter in reference to public meetings, as being calculated to encourage disloyal and hamper loyal subjects who are in a legitimate manner opposing the spread of doctrines perilous to the throne.

There was no Orange meeting held at Newry, Ireland, on Sunday. The Nationalist meeting was held outside the town. When on their return the Nationalists arrived opposite Orange Hall, they threw stones at the windows. Shots were fired from the building. The police and troops interfered, arresting four Nationalists and several Orangemen. Many persons were injured in the affray. The disturbances continued on Monday, and two Orangemen were beaten.

The chiefs of the dynamite party in Paris declare that the authors of the last London explosions have escaped from England, and are now in perfect safety.

The English Government on Thursday called the attention of the French authorities to the immunity enjoyed by dynamiters in Paris in making preparations for outrages.

Mr. Gladstone announced on Wednesday that the Government intended to deal with the subject of redistribution of Parliamentary seats during the present Parliament.

Owing to the opposition of both the landlord and the Nationalist members of the House of Commons, the Government will drop the Irish Land Purchase Bill.

London *Truth* printed a rumor on Thursday that James Russell Lowell, the American Minister to England, would resign. Mr. Lowell has denied the rumor.

The Grand Lodge of Masons of Great Britain has adopted a resolution introduced by the Earl of Carnarvon expressing regret at the recent anti-Masonic encyclical letter of the Pope. The resolution affirms that "the law, the practice, and the traditions of the Masonic order and the position of its rulers prove that the Pope's charges are utterly unfounded."

Earl Granville is preparing a note to Washington in relation to the collection of conspiracy funds within the jurisdiction of the United States.

The new treaty between France and Anam has been signed. By its terms the provinces of Bin-thuan and Than-goa are restored to Anam. A customs system similar to that in force in Cochin-China is established. A French military occupation of all strategic points in Anam and Tonquin may be effected if necessary. A permanent French garrison will hold a portion of the citadel of Hué, capital of Anam. The French President in Cochin-China will represent Anam in all her foreign relations, and Anam will form a customs union with Cochin-China. The Departments of Public Works, of Postal and Telegraph Service, and of Finance and Customs will form a single branch of administration under the direction of a French agent.

The French Parliamentary committee of inquiry into the importation of American salted meats has approved a report agreeing to such imports after the meat is, by microscope or otherwise, minutely examined. The report at the same time urges the prohibition of the importation of fresh meats from countries where it is known that trichinosis exists.

The committee of the French Chamber of Deputies to which the bill providing for a revision of the Constitution was referred has adopted the bill in the form proposed by the Government.

The race for the Grand Prix of Paris, $20,000 in specie, was won by five lengths on Sunday by the Duke of Castries's Little Duck, ridden by Cannon.

The five Spanish Commissioners sent by the Government to examine into the condition of Cuba have arrived at Havana, and have already made some investigations. One of them says that a longer possession of Cuba by Spain would be ruinous to the latter, and that it would be better to sell the island, as that would be the only way out of the complicated situation.

The foundation-stone of the new German Parliament building was laid on Monday by Emperor William. A brilliant assemblage of notables was present. Prince Bismarck read the Emperor's speech.

A woman who was arrested on Wednesday at Váranda, Hungary, confessed that she had poisoned four husbands and also hundreds of women during the past two years. A number of accomplices were arrested.

It is reported that King William of Holland has secretly affianced his three-year-old daughter, Princess Wilhelmina, to Prince Baudouin, son of the Count of Flanders, heir apparent to the throne of Belgium, in order to reunite Holland and Belgium.

The American Chargé d'Affaires at Constantinople on Thursday presented to the Porte the reply of the United States to the recent note sent to Washington by Turkey, stating that the existing treaty between the two countries would expire June 5, and recalling the fact that the Porte denounced the existing treaty. The reply states that the two countries, having failed to sign the provisional convention, and the Porte insisting that the treaty has expired despite Minister Wallace's objection, the United States thinks it best to fall back upon the old treaty of 1830 which secured the most-favored-nation treatment. The Porte has decided to maintain the existing tariffs with the Powers, the treaties with which will soon expire, until fresh conventions have been concluded.

Forty-five of the crew of the sealing brig *Confederate*, recently wrecked on an ice-floe in Notre Dame Bay, have been rescued by the steamship *Plover*. They arrived at St. John's N. F., on Tuesday. The ice forced the *Plover* to retreat, and twenty-nine of the crew were left behind on the floe.

THE REPUBLICAN TICKET AND PLATFORM.

THE nomination at Chicago means the triumph of agencies which have been long at work for the disintegration of the Republican party. When it came out of the war, in control of an overflowing Treasury and a vast patronage, nothing could have saved it from the clutches of the corrupt and jobbing element which rapidly grew up within its ranks, as the old leaders died out, but the stimulus of new ideas and new hopes, or the appearance on the scene of a purified opposition, offering a new polity for the national acceptance. Neither of these things has come to its rescue. The country has been on the whole too prosperous and happy since the peace to offer any soil in which the seeds of a new enthusiasm could be sown, and the Democratic party has continued to stand, with curious fidelity, for most of the things in politics and society which the bone and sinew of the Republican party hates and fears.

The attack of the corrupt influences on the party began almost as soon as General Grant took office. They slowly gained ground under his Administration, until they produced scandals which led to the loss of both houses of Congress before he went out of office. They would have led to the loss of the Presidency in 1876 but for the peculiar condition of the Southern States. The party was really in almost a wrecked condition in the Northern States, from which it drew all its moral strength, when Mr. Hayes entered the White House. The nomination and election of Garfield was a great, and, it would now appear, a final effort of what has been called "the better element" in the party, to save it for those ideas of justice and progress which had called it into existence. We can say this even to those who would criticise some acts of General Garfield's short Administration most severely. No matter what his failings or shortcomings may have been, his election was due to the votes of those who believed him to stand for purity and reform, and who highly respected his personal character, and recalled his military and Congressional career with pride and pleasure.

The jobbing, corrupt element in the party, which sees in politics simply a means of distributing dividends out of the national exchequer, and to which all political issues are simply devices to distract public attention from their industry, has long been slowly coming to a head, in the fashion of a tumor, in Mr. James G. Blaine. A cold, silent man could never become the lodgment of this gathering humor. To serve the purpose of this portion of the party, the champion had to be a cheerful, jolly, hail-fellow-well-met, not over-particular, audacious, unscrupulous, and faithful-to-his-friends sort of man whose own weaknesses would give him sympathy with the prevailing weaknesses of his followers. Such a man they have got in Mr. Blaine. What he thinks about the main questions of the day they do not know and do not care. All they know is that if he were in power no man would have the cold shoulder turned to him because of his "crookedness," and there would be in politics much of the noise, and tumult, and surprise in which they delight, and in which good opportunities for adventurous spirits most abound.

It is not, however, the existence of such a section of the party, or its success in finding a representative, which makes the present crisis so grave; it is the fact that it has ventured at Chicago to nominate him, in defiance of the conscientious scruples and protests of a large body of the voters. We believe the nomination of Mr. Blaine is unique in party history. We can recall no case in this or any other parliamentary country in which a majority has forced on a large minority a candidate to whom the kind of objection is made which the Republican minority makes to Mr. Blaine. In all great bodies of civilized men accustomed to act together in any public matter, a charge of personal dishonor against a candidate, which any considerable portion of those who have to elect him sincerely believe, has hitherto been considered a fatal objection to his being put in nomination. It is no answer to this that the majority does not believe the charges, or does not care whether they are true or false. On this point the majority is not at liberty to force the convictions of any respectable minority, however small, and convert a great public debate into a contention over the morals of an individual.

But this unique, unprecedented thing the Chicago Convention has done. It asks a large and, by every one's admission, influential minority to accept a candidate believed to be personally base and to represent more than aught else the corrupt and dangerous element in American politics. It has done this after warnings and protests extending now over many years. It has done it, too, without being able to excuse it as a sacrifice made on behalf of any cause, measure, or idea. For nobody ventures to say what purpose Mr. Blaine's election would serve, beyond illustrating the power of that species of gush which it is the fashion to call "magnetism." What makes the matter all the worse is, that the situation thus created is one in which no compromise is possible. One can, in acting with a party, sink objections to a candidate's opinions, or to his manners, or to his temper, or to his public aims or policy, or to his political career, for the sake of the great things which party unity may be expected to bring about. But no voter can sink his objections to a candidate on the score of personal dishonesty. No voter dares to tell his friends or his family that he is going to vote for a man knowing him to be a knave. In dealing with this class of objections his obligations to human society take inevitable precedence of his obligations to any party, however old, honored, or useful.

What is to be the issue from this deplorable and disastrous but deliberately created muddle, it is yet too soon to forecast. That Mr. Blaine cannot be elected, we look on as certain. Whether he can be defeated without ruining the organization which is being prostituted in the service of his selfish ambition, remains to be seen. The extent of his defeat —that is, the size of the majority which will remove him permanently from the political arena—will depend largely on the action of the Democrats. They have now an opportunity offered them such as has not presented itself for a quarter of a century. That they will make a good use of it, all experience forbids us to hope. That they will offer deliverance or relief to disgusted Republicans by nominating such a man as Cleveland or Bayard, when Tilden, or Flower, or Jefferson Davis, or John Kelly is within their reach, is something which it would be very rash to predict. But as strange things as this have come to pass. Whatever happens, we believe a great political purification will be the result, and we shall somehow have a party which will represent the American people in its noblest mood, and will adequately express the national respect for the virtues by which governments as well as homes are maintained and defended.

The platform adopted at Chicago is an admirable specimen of the kind of document of which Abraham Lincoln said: "For people who like that sort of thing, that's just the sort of thing they would like." The uncertainty of its utterances on most topics of the day is in fact a strong confirmation of what we said on May 29 about the importance of the nominations. The opinions of the parties are on most questions of the day now very much alike. What most concerns the voter is not what the Convention says about this or that or the other thing, but the kind of men it offers for the work of administering the Government. The Chicago platform sounds as if it was the product of the powerful minds who keep up the Blaine boom in the columns of the Philadelphia *Press*.

After "pointing with pride," lamenting the death of President Garfield, and commending the Administration of his successor, it settles down to solid work on the construction of the tariff plank. We need hardly say that this plank is a model of soundness and safety. Publicists of a different stamp would probably have seized this opportunity to demand a tariff which would raise the revenues of the Government in such a way as to disturb all our industries, rob the laborer of his rights and wages, deprive active and intelligent labor of its just reward, and the laboring man of his full share in the national prosperity. The Platform Committee, however, puts from itself, in the boldest and manliest way, all such nefarious designs, and demands:

"That the imposition of duties on foreign imports shall be made, not for revenue only, but that in raising the requisite revenues for the Government such duties shall be so levied as to afford security to our diversified industries and protection to the rights and wages of the laborer, to the end that active and intelligent labor, as well as capital, may have its just reward, and the laboring man his full share in the national prosperity."

In other words, it demands the kind of tariff for which all good men have been longing for thousands of years, and which when in fair working order will go very far toward banishing sin and sorrow from the world. It is not surprising that after this it should reprobate "the reduction of the surplus by the vicious and indiscriminate plan of horizontal reduction." Some people whom we

will not name would substitute for this methods which would relieve the taxpayer by ruining the laborer, and throw the great productive industries of the country into confusion. The Platform Committee countenances no such schemes. Instead of horizontal reduction, with its attendant vice and horror, it proposes "such methods as will relieve the taxpayer *without* injuring the laborer, or the great productive industries of the country." How simple as well as wise this seems, now when we see it in print, and yet how long the world has blundered on without discovering this mode of reducing taxation. Is there not something solemn as well as mysterious in the nearness to the surface at which nearly all the great treasures of the human understanding have been found!

For "the sheep husbandry" of the United States the platform has a kindly word, as might have been expected. It is, as might have been expected too, in favor of "the best money known to the civilized world," and leaves to the voter, as a gentle intellectual exercise during the hot summer months, the task of finding out what kind of money that is. It claims for Congress, too, the power of regulating inter-State railroads, and calls for "a bureau of labor and the enforcement of the eight-hour law," and denounces the importation of "contract labor, whether from Europe or Asia," as "against the spirit of American institutions," but does not explain how this can be. Contract labor is labor which the owner contracts to sell for so much wages. How such a sale conflicts with "the spirit of American institutions" needs elucidation. If there be "such a spirit," it favors above all things the right of every man to dispose of his commodities in the best market he can find. If the drafters of this plank were not such good men, we should suspect them of favoring the right of some laborers to take away from other laborers the right to do what they please with their own. There is no American "spirit" which countenances anything of this kind.

On the pension question the platform goes far enough to please any claimant, and demands an efficient navy without, however, denouncing Robeson or Chandler. It calls for a law to suppress Mormon polygamy and divorce the civil from the ecclesiastical power in Utah, but gives Congress no assistance in discovering what kind of law that should be; but whatever it be, it recommends that it should be enforced when passed, a position which none but the really depraved will assail.

The plank on the nature of the United States Government is one of those models of soundness which occasionally make platforms such good reading for the young. We extract it entire:

> "The people of the United States, in their organized capacity, constitute a nation and not a mere confederacy of States. The national Government is supreme within the sphere of its national duty, but the States have reserved rights which should be faithfully maintained; each should be guarded with jealous care so that the harmony of our system of government may be preserved and the Union be kept inviolate. The perpetuity of our institutions rests upon the maintenance of a free ballot, an honest count, and correct returns."

There is here, as will be seen, no concession to the doctrine that the national Government is *not* supreme in its own sphere, or that the States have *no* reserved rights, or that no one need care about the harmony of our system, and that it makes no difference whether the ballot-boxes are stuffed and the returns falsified at our elections or not. On all these points the position of the Convention seems absolutely impregnable, and must commend itself to the approval of every good man.

THE WEEK AFTER THE DEBAUCH.

THE gravity of the step taken by the majority of the Chicago Convention becomes plainer every hour. The dissatisfaction with the nominations has in fact already, as the Springfield *Republican* remarks, assumed the proportions of a political revolution. Only three or four journals of weight or influence in the party accept them and announce an intention to support them. These, too, are already on the defensive, and are pleading for the ticket in an apologetic tone, which shows clearly enough that they consider the battle already lost. The *Tribune* of Monday morning argues pathetically that Blaine is not a "tattooed man," or that if he is, so were George Washington, General Jackson, and General Garfield. It maintains, moreover, that "virtue is not really confined to a few Pharisees," meaning, we presume, that there is good even in "Pow" Clayton, "Steve" Elkins, "Tom" Platt, and "Black Jack." It may be that these conspicuous citizens are not as bad as they are painted; but think, brethren, of beginning a Republican campaign with an appeal *ad misericordiam* on behalf of the candidates and their leading supporters!

In truth, unless all signs fail, we are promised, in case the Democrats do as many think they will do for once—make a sensible nomination—a repetition in this State at least of the campaign of 1882, and the burial of Mr. Blaine under a monumental majority. We grant freely all that is said about Mr. Blaine's being the choice of the majority of the Convention, and even of the majority of the party. But it seems to have been forgotten by those who nominated him that to win victories at the polls, it is not enough for them to be the majority of the party; they must also be the majority of the nation, and to be the majority of the nation a party must be as large and harmonious as possible. If there is a fastidious or uneasy minority, everything in reason must be done to keep it in the ranks on election day. Nothing in fact will justify managers in sending any considerable portion of the party away from a Presidential Convention disgusted or disheartened, except a regard for principle. To split over candidates, and above all to split, or run the risk of a split, over *one* candidate in a country which contains at least one million of citizens eligible for the Presidency, is surely the height of folly—such folly as has never before been witnessed in party history. If Blaine stood for any cause or principle, if he were the champion or apostle of some idea, the leader in a great movement, there might be some sense in sticking to him at any cost and forcing him on the party, as a mere trial of its fidelity. But Blaine stands for nothing but "Jim Blaine." He has served nothing all these long years but Jim Blaine. When he triumphs in anything, nobody but Jim Blaine is the better of it. Under these circumstances the abuse and depreciation of the Independents and "kickers" is so fatuous that it is no longer funny. The "shouters" actually seem to have persuaded themselves that it is only the Independents they are to meet at the polls in November, and that, as they themselves can easily show more votes, all is well. Surely, this is the height of midsummer madness.

The same thing may be said of the reproach that the Independents have nothing to complain of except that "their man" was not nominated. They had nom an to nominate. It is their very failure to agree on any one which makes their present revolt so serious. People who go into politics simply to support some favorite or hero generally get over their disappointment very quickly, and are apt after the first pang has passed to be able to "take off their coats" and go to work for somebody else. But what makes the present crisis in the Republican party grave is that the Chicago ticket does not represent simply the triumph of somebody else's man, but represents to the dissatisfied a distinct outrage on their moral sense. It represents to them the success of rascality and corruption in the party councils, and an attempt to place the Presidency for four years at the disposal of jobbers, speculators, intriguers. Granted that they are mistaken in all this, granted that they foully wrong Jim Blaine, Black Jack, and Steve Elkins, and Pow Clayton, and Tom Platt, and Filley—how does all this mend matters? Do the friends of Mr. Blaine, after all that has happened, expect to convert them between now and the first Tuesday in November? If Mr. William Walter Phelps and the *Tribune* have been unable to enlighten them within the last three months, are they likely to succeed in the next four? Considering how much Mr. Blaine and General Logan have been before the public for the last ten years, are the impressions they have made during that period on a large class of highly-respectable observers likely to be corrected during the heat of the canvass by such praise as their buglers are likely to contribute to their campaign newspapers? There is only one answer to be made to these questions.

The question before Republicans to-day is not how to defeat Blaine, for he is defeated already, but how to prevent his defeat from inflicting injury on the cause which the party which has had the madness to nominate him has served so long and so well. And then, the examination of his record has only just begun. It contains materials for fully four months' summer reading. Every week of July, August, September, and October will probably bring additions to the wretched story, and if they would make only him and William Walter Phelps blush it would not matter much. But everybody who has ever voted the Republican ticket will have to hang his head along with the candidate and such of the "shouters" as have any shame left.

THE ATTEMPT TO KIDNAP ENO.

According to the latest news from Montreal, the Grand Jury have refused to indict Eno for bringing "stolen money" into Canada, no doubt on the ground that he is not, within the meaning of the law, a thief; that he has, properly speaking, brought no "stolen" money into Canada, and that the attempt to indict him for such an offence is, in all human probability, an attempt to punish him by means of a legal quibble. It must have occurred already to many of those who have followed the proceedings with care that if such an indictment would hold water, the general complaint against the extradition treaty with England, that it does not cover criminal breaches of trust, is nearly groundless. If Eno really committed the offence of bringing stolen money into Canada, there is hardly a swindler of any species who gets off with any money in his pocket who does not commit it; and all of them, immediately on arrival in Canada, might be brought up, tried, convicted, and sent to jail, and that too by the Canadian courts, at the instance of any American complainant, without any trouble over the extradition treaty at all. The very convenience of this theory makes it suspicious.

The attempt to punish Eno by Canadian law having broken down, the kidnapping venture under the extradition treaty is now to be made, and for this purpose it is said that an indictment for forgery in the second and third degree, found last Thursday by the Grand Jury of the Court of General Sessions, is to be used. The requisition must be made, if at all, by the President or by his authority, and the matter is one which would in the ordinary course of events be referred to Mr. Frelinghuysen. The demand for the surrender must specify the crime, and charge it with such particularity and detail as to enable a fair-minded judge to determine whether it comes within the list of treaty crimes. Forgery is the only crime under the treaty for which Eno can be extradited, and this offence has always been assumed to be the old common-law crime of forgery, known as such to the law of both England and America. The treaty was ratified in 1842, when this was, we believe, the only crime known as forgery in both countries. It consists in making a false instrument, a will, a deed, a bill or note, with the intent to defraud. In this State we have changed the old law of forgery in a great many respects. The crime of forgery in the second degree, for which Eno has been indicted, contains a great variety of offences, among others, forging the seal of the State and counterfeiting bank-note plates, and also the forgery of an "instrument or writing being or purporting to be the act of another," affecting in some way a pecuniary demand or obligation or rights of property of some sort (Penal Code, Section 511).

Eno, it is said, has laid himself open to an indictment under this section by raising money on paper signed by him as President of the Second National Bank, immediately after his resignation. This is certainly a violation of the spirit if not the letter of the act, and might warrant an active prosecution were Eno amenable to our courts. But to pretend that this comes under the extradition treaty is, it seems to us, a grave mistake. If we can get Eno back for one kind of crime not covered by the treaty, we can for another, and may dispense with the treaty altogether. Nothing would be easier than to pass a statute making any embezzlement, swindling, and criminal breach of trust, by means of false writings, "forgery," and then demand the surrender of any and every swindler who runs off. Of course, any objection to extraditing Eno for forgery in the second degree applies *à fortiori* to an attempt to extradite him for forgery in the third, because this crime is still further removed from the old common-law offence. It is really corrupt falsification of accounts (P. C., Sec. 515).

It is much more important that the existing treaty with England be faithfully observed than that Eno be extradited. What this country needs is a treaty embracing all criminal breaches of trust, such as we have with other countries, and we are not likely to get it, if we give the Canadians and the English the impression that we care little or nothing about treaty stipulations, but are mainly anxious to get hold of the criminal by fair means or foul. The proceedings in this case have already aroused a good deal of international distrust, and have had the ridiculous effect of converting a scoundrel into a popular hero, and that too in the place where it is least for our interest to have the slightest sympathy with fugitives from our justice.

BISMARCK AND THE REICHSTAG.

The late great debate in the German Reichstag on the prolongation of the Socialist Law, more than any other debate in that body which we remember, was characteristic at the same time of the high intellectual and low parliamentary level of legislative discussions in the political centre of Germany. It is not often given to read a series of speeches on one topic so spirited, so sparkling with wit, sarcasm, and knowledge, and so free from oratorical bombast and partisan nonsense, as was the chain of speeches delivered on May 8 and the following days by the Conservatives Minnigerode and Minister Puttkamer, the Liberals Stauffenberg, Richter, and Bamberger, the Ultramontane leader Windthorst, the Socialists Geiser and Bebel, Prince Bismarck, and others. It was a brilliant tournament, in which representatives of all political fractions, of all shades of opinion, freely took part with bright weapons; it was a desultory, amusing tilt of many groups; but it was not a parliamentary battle for leadership and power, not a grapple of mighty parties. For Germany has no parties strong enough to lead the nation or wrest power from those who wield it; it has only political fractions which occasionally — quite exceptionally—combine in sufficient strength to clog the wheels of Government, but again and again prove their inability to give them direction. He who is the Government, Prince Bismarck, plays with those fractions with consummate skill, combining from time to time some of them into a temporary alliance for his purposes, and dividing his opponents. He is sure of victory sooner or later, and he achieves it with equal shrewdness, pluck, and audacity. The threat of dissolution was his strongest weapon in this last contest. His supporters or temporary allies were the German Conservatives, the Imperial party, and the National Liberals, as a compact body, besides portions of the German Liberal party (into which the former Secessionist and Progressist fractions were lately fused) and of the Centre, or Ultramontane, party, a few Alsace-Lorrainers, and a few members of the smallest fractions. Only the Social-Democrats, the People's party, and the Poles were undivided in their opposition to him. His triumph was signal.

His own two speeches contributed not a little to shape the result. They were not the best he ever made, and perhaps inferior in brilliancy of extemporization to those of his bold, almost reckless, antagonist, Richter, and in weight of argument to the more elaborate effort of Bamberger. His retrospective points were thrusts which could not be parried. He appealed to a record of personal activity and success in which, from the exclusive standpoint of German patriotism, not a flaw can be discovered, and easily ridiculed the inconsistencies, in principle and action, of his most vehement opponents, the Socialists alone excepted. His *obiter dicta*, in which he so often indulges, were equally instructive and amusing—especially those concerning Russian Nihilism, which he stated to be less dangerous to the state than German socialism, while this was still less "venomous" than Democratic liberalism. His own socialism, while eclipsing the liberalism of his radical assailants, could hardly be gainsaid by the more moderate debaters at a moment when he demanded the continued free use of repressive measures against subversive theorists. He seemed to delight in the strangeness, or even equivocalness, of this position, as marking the boldness with which he dares to combat the most dangerous foes of society with their own arms, and the assurance with which he walks along the narrow line dividing the sublime in politics from the ridiculous. His State Socialism may originally have been what the Socialist Liebknecht even now asserted it to be, a rôle assumed for deception, for causing a diversion in the rear of the Progressists, but it has certainly become something more sincere and much more serious, as a multitude of legislative measures, eagerly and persistently pressed by him, evidently shows. Bamberger was right when he declared Prince Bismarck's policy to be deeply steeped in socialistic heresies. Like the Spanish commander Spinola (of whom his antagonist Maurice of Nassau said that while others deceived their enemies by foreshadowing movements which were not to be made, he deceived his by showing what he really intended), Bismarck has, in his legislative tactics as well as in his diplomatic strategy, often misled his opponents by true announcements which were considered feints.

Not content with accident insurance, care for the aged and sick, agrarian protection, taxation of banking speculation, and a number of similar urgently pushed measures, Prince Bismarck has now gone a long step further, announcing his belief in the French dogma of

the right of laborers unable to find employment to demand work from the Government. He slightly blunted the keenness of the expression by asserting that his belief was grounded on a principle embodied in the old Prussian laws as well as in the doctrines of Christianity, but his declaration was broad and emphatic: "The man who can find no work has a right to say, Give me work! and the state is bound to procure him work." "Give the laborer the right to demand labor, as long as he is well; assure him nursing when he is sick; assure him sustenance when he is old." He unsparingly reproached the Reichstag with intentional dilatoriness in deliberating on laws which the welfare of the laboring classes pressingly demanded. The committee to which the Accident Insurance Bill was referred did not lack diligence, he said, but it lacked faith in the utility of the measure; it lacked seriousness of intention. "But the Government," he added, "cannot break off the discussions on these subjects, even if we have to sit here till August, or till the natural expiration of your term. The Government cannot budge from its place; we must have your answer to the Accident Insurance Bill, 'yes' or 'no.' Only when something weighty in this line, for the benefit of the largest but not happiest class of people, will be achieved—but not till then—will it be possible for the Government to propose the abrogation of the exceptional laws." Such declarations were made with effect. In vain did Windthorst, who proposed religious substitutes, contend that the repressive measures were useless or worse than useless—and in vain did Richter declare that the Socialist party in Germany was the shadow of Bismarck's greatness. He was answered with jokes.

THE RESULTS OF THE GORDON DEBATE.

LONDON, May 24.

THAT game of parties in which the fate of the Ministry is now obviously involved grows more delicate, complicated, and uncertain every week, almost every day. Till the troubles of Egypt began to thicken at the end of last year, the strength of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, though it had once at least before received a serious shake, and though it had lost three of its most conspicuous members by the successive secessions of the Duke of Argyll, Mr. Forster, and Mr. Bright, remained intact, and its hold on its party in the country unusually strong. But during the last six months there has been a marked change. The impression has gained ground that however able and industrious in home affairs, the Government is not vigorous or far-seeing, or, at any rate, is not destined to be successful, in foreign affairs. Although the loyalty of the local party leaders remains unshaken, moderate or doubtful men throughout the country grow colder and colder in their allegiance, while in the House of Commons itself the number of waverers increases, and those nominal adherents who are always on the watch for an opportunity of damaging their own party, a section which is usually larger in the Liberal than in the Tory party, grow bolder, and openly proclaim their intention to desert. On each successive occasion when the Ministry have been challenged by the Opposition their majority has been numerically weaker as well as less hearty, till ten days ago, in the division on Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's vote of censure, it fell to twenty-eight. This figure, small when compared with the majority of sixty or seventy which they commanded in their earlier days, has alarmed their friends at home, and been received on the Continent of Europe as evidence of their rapidly approaching downfall. That it is serious no one will deny. It is, however, less serious than is commonly believed. In the first place, a certain number of Liberals who would have supported the Ministry had they believed it to be in peril absented themselves, in order, as they said, to teach it a lesson, to warn it to show a little more spirit and foresight in dealing with Egypt. It might probably have had thirty-eight instead of twenty-eight votes if its existence had been known to be endangered. Secondly, the Parnellite members present, thirty-one in number, voted against it. Their behavior was singular and instructive. They did not speak in the debate. They did not formally declare their intentions, but it was generally understood that they would support the Ministry, not, of course, from any friendliness to it, but in order to secure the passing of the Franchise Bill, which will, as they expect, considerably strengthen them in Ireland. So well was the secret of their action kept that up till the last moment both Tories and Liberals believed they would vote with the Government, and some Liberals who disapproved of the behavior of the Government walked out of the House of Commons, saying that as the Government were to have the Irish they might safely abstain. It was not till the last members were being cleared out of the House into the lobbies that the Parnellites rose in a body and walked toward the Opposition lobby, and one or two hesitating Liberals who had waited to see what would happen had just time to rush back and record their votes when they perceived that this unexpected loss might render the situation perilous. Had these thirty-one Parnellites voted with Mr. Gladstone, he would have had a majority of ninety instead of twenty-eight. Nobody would have been frightened by that result, yet in reality it would have been precisely the same thing as a majority of twenty-eight, for all know that the Parnellites are substantially hostile to every Government, and seek only to play their own game. A majority of ninety with them would have been as dangerous as one of twenty-eight without them—more so, perhaps, for it might have lulled the Government into an ill-grounded security. As it is, the English are at last beginning to realize what they have to expect from the Irish Separatist party, and how difficult it will be to keep any Ministry on foot when that party holds the balance in the House of Commons.

Though this division is therefore no deathblow, it is a grave warning to the Government. I have endeavored to point out, in a previous letter, that they have latterly been kept in office owing to three causes—firstly, the personal popularity of Mr. Gladstone with the local Liberals, both leaders and followers, through the north and west of England and Scotland; secondly, the anxiety to pass the County Franchise Bill, whose fate is of course involved with that of the Ministry; thirdly, the incompetence and dissensions of the Opposition. The question is, how long these forces will continue to act against the tendency, always observable in English politics, for a loosened majority to become constantly less loyal, and of a discredited Government to receive less and less credit even for what it does well. Many members who have supported the Ministry against the votes of censure of this session have done so avowedly not because they approved of their conduct of Egyptian affairs, but because they thought that a Tory Ministry would be far less capable and more dangerous. This is a feeling which helps a threatened Cabinet once, twice, thrice, but the oftener it has to be appealed to the feebler is the response. The belief is now pretty general that if things go on as they have done in Egypt, and if nothing more is heard of General Gordon for two months to come, a vote of censure debated in the middle of July would result in the defeat of the Government. The European Conference which they have been endeavoring to convoke to resettle the financial system of Egypt, opens up another vista of trouble. It is understood that France desires that the deliberations of this Conference should not be confined to finance and the law of liquidation, but extend to the international position of Egypt, and afford an opening for her claim to have some share in any protectorate which may be assumed over Egypt. The Government have, in answer to the searching and often-repeated interrogatories addressed to them on the point, intimated that they object to this attempt. But their language has been supposed to lack decision; and it is surmised that, although they are wholly opposed to the renewal of any dual control to be exercised by England and France jointly, they would be willing to surrender whatever exclusive power they now possess in Egypt into the hands of the collective Powers, and thus find a mode of retiring from Egypt and washing their hands of further responsibility.

If the country would support this course, the horizon would be sensibly cleared. The longer prudent men ponder over the Egyptian problem, the more fruitful in difficulties, the more barren of substantial benefits to England, does it appear. But will the country consent? Could the Government survive a proposition which would seem to sacrifice those interests both in Egypt and the Suez Canal of which so much has been said, and which formed the main part of their justification for the expedition of 1882? (I do not myself think they will make it; still they may come so near it as to make the point worthy of consideration.) If they were as strong now as they were when they came into office, four years ago, they might carry it. They could then have washed their hands of Egypt, as they did of Kandahar, and as they have very nearly done of the Transvaal territory. But now that they have made such considerable efforts in Egypt, and such sacrifices of men and money to put down Arabi, support Tewfik, protect Suakim from the fierce tribes whom Osman Digna leads, they would be exposed to serious charges of imprudence and weakness. They would be, in fact, condemning their own previous action. A numerical majority of their own party might agree with them, but it would do so with some shame for the past, while the minority of disapproving Liberals would be influential both in the press and socially. The cry would be raised that we were surrendering everything to France; the mercantile class would be alarmed about the Suez Canal; the sneers of the Continental press at our retreat, however unworthy of regard, would wound the pride of the nation. Questions of foreign policy seldom come home to the bulk of our people, unless they involve some broad and simple moral principles; hence, where the opinion of the upper classes happens to be hostile to a Government on such questions, it enjoys a disproportionate weight—a weight which in this instance would probably be decisive.

Not the least curious part of the present situation is the influence which the Egyptian difficulty exercises on the fortunes of the Franchise Bill. The House of Lords, as the organ of the Conservative party, is of course hostile to the bill. Were it to obey its impulses, it would at once reject the bill. This, however, would exasperate the masses, and create an agitation against the Lords themselves; so that they

must needs walk warily, and strike the balance between the loss to their own party by its passing and the injury to the House of Lords which its rejection might cause at present. The balance shifts this way and that, according to the greater or less strength of the Ministry, which, again, depends on the news from Khartum and the prospects of the Conference. The first result of the division on Sir M. Hicks-Beach's motion was to embolden the Tory leaders; so the leading Tory paper announced authoritatively that it had been determined to throw out the bill when it reached the Upper House. Lord Salisbury is, however, so unstable a politician that it is quite possible he may change his mind once or twice or three times within the next six months. If the Ministry is then strong, he may bow to necessity. If untoward events in Egypt have further weakened it, he will make the rejection of the bill a challenge to the Government to dissolve Parliament. And the game that is now being played in the House of Commons round the bill in Committee is played mainly with a view to the Upper House, the object of the Government being to make it more difficult, that of the Opposition leaders to make it more easy, for Lord Salisbury to find pretexts for throwing out a measure which the Tory leaders have never condemned in itself, but only because, they say, it ought to be accompanied by a redistribution of seats. Y.

GUIZOT'S CORRESPONDENCE.—I.

PARIS, May 22.

UNDER the title 'M. Guizot in his Family and among his Friends,' Mme. de Witt, the surviving daughter of M. Guizot (her sister also bore the name of De Witt, as the two sisters had married the two brothers), published a few years ago a volume which met with much success, and which had a real charm of style. Mme. de Witt presented in that volume a true picture of the life of Guizot, who even at the height of power always preserved the simplicity of a Calvinist, of a scholar; who lived and died poor, though he had been Prime Minister of France for a number of years. The success of this work has led Mme. de Witt to give a new volume—'The Letters of M. Guizot to his Family and to his Friends.' There is no introduction to the volume; the publisher does not inform us on what principles the selection of the letters has been made: what has been admitted and what has been suppressed. He does not even tell us if this is the whole correspondence of Guizot, and we are left to believe that it is.

The correspondence begins in 1810: M. Guizot wrote from Paris to his mother, who lived at Nîmes. He was then translating Gibbon's history and writing in the *Gazette de France;* he received 36 francs for an article, and was allowed to write five every month, whence he derived a monthly income of 180 francs. Pauline de Meulan, who became afterward Mme. Guizot, also wrote in the *Gazette*, and she received 200 francs a month. Mlle. de Meulan was a very distinguished person: her family had been ruined by the French Revolution, and she had begun to write in order to help her relatives. The marriage took place on the 7th of April, 1817, and soon afterward M. Guizot was named Professor in the Faculty of Letters. There is a great gap in the correspondence, extending from 1811 to 1821; possibly the letters of that period are to be published hereafter. It would be very interesting to know what M. Guizot wrote to his friends during the eventful period of the first Restoration, the Hundred Days, and the first years of the second Restoration.

In 1821 he has become acquainted with M. Charles de Rémusat, whom he calls "my dear Charles," and with M. de Barante. To the latter he writes from Nîmes: "In the actual state of the administration and of social order, the departments are condemned to a policy of expectation; the least activity is absolutely impossible to them. So long as it is so, there will be nothing to create, nothing to hope for. We must perforce come out of this situation, give all the elements representation, allow life to manifest itself where it exists. Reason, to be sure, can only come from above, but life can only come from the bottom; it is with the roots of society as it is with the roots of a tree. Our problem is the creation of a government. Well, there is everywhere a government all ready; we must accept it, regulate it. It is in vain that we mix together in Paris deputies and ministers; out of this mere laboratory there comes no heat nor light." This is a curious protest against French centralization. The judgments of M. Guizot are sometimes pointed, and even hard. "I am going to dine," he writes to his wife, "at Mme. de Broglie's with Benjamin Constant, the most clear-sighted and the most powerless of men, who will always do what he does not want, to obey people whom he despises." The lectures of M. Guizot were found too liberal; his readings were suspended in October, 1822. "I expected this," says he to M. de Barante. "I regret a little this small tribune, where I could have some direct action on men who will have some influence on the future. My compensations are the use of my whole time and my liberty. . . . I am sure that this country is not going to perish or to be enslaved. . . . Though we are no more twenty-five, we are still young." Guizot, even in 1821, under the Restoration, was conscious of his own powers and of the powers of France; he felt that his day would come. Mme. Guizot died in 1827, in the autumn, on her return from Plombières. "I am," writes Guizot to M. de Barante, "like a man who has no more home, and who will spend his life in the street." He did not remain long in the street. Mme. Guizot had a niece, Mlle. Élise Dillon, who became the second wife of M. Guizot on the 8th of November, 1828.

This great event and the Revolution of 1830 mark a second interruption in the correspondence. We find no letters between the end of 1828 and the middle of 1830. At that moment his own election as deputy was at hand at Lisieux, in Normandy, and was quite assured. He was himself on his way to Nîmes, where he went to forward the elections of his political and personal friends. M. Guizot, on his return from Nîmes, heard of the famous "Ordinances" of Charles X. On the 27th of July he received a note from Casimir Périer, and found at his house some of his colleagues. He was among the men who came into power in 1830; he was Minister of the Interior for three months, and in the beginning of November he retired with his most conservative colleagues, the Duc de Broglie and Casimir Périer. Lafitte then became President of the Council. In the spring of 1831 Guizot made his first electoral visit in the Department of Calvados, where he had been elected three times, chiefly by the influence of the Duc de Broglie. "I am struck," writes Guizot to his wife, "by what I see. I find in every township (commune) two, three, four men of probity and sense, very well disposed to support a good government and to defend it against the *brouillons.* Only you must rally them, give to them a confidence which they do not feel in isolation, make them feel that their intentions are known, accepted—that their efforts have some value." "I have seen there the type of the Norman peasant of our comedies. It becomes rare; the language, the manners, the ideas all become uniform, like the costume." At Lisieux he writes: "I am here in the midst of all the passions of a town. Lisieux is on fire. The Opposition was working for a week in order that I should not have an *entrée.* They have succeeded in depriving me of the music. The *chef de musique* is *commis greffier* of the tribunal; the president and the *procureur du roi* have threatened him with the loss of his place. He has meditated: his wife and children have triumphed over me. I had only the drums. To-day we shall have a balloon. Everything is *orageux.* But they tell me that I shall have the majority." He had to make several speeches—"*margaritas ante porcas.*" I have never heard anybody speak as well, with such an air of inspired authority, such a noble countenance as Guizot. No wonder he says: "My rural electors, without much understanding what I said, seemed charmed." Here is an excellent sign of the times; in order to understand it, one must remember that in 1831 there were some fears of war between France and Europe: "An old captain of the old army, more than six feet high, took hold of me: '*Vive* M. Guizot! *vive* our deputy! Yes, Monsieur Guizot, you are a good man. I am not for war, sir, I am not; but I know what war is. But if the Prussians come back, I am always there, my dear M. Guizot. They won't find many as tall as I am, I know, but there are some tall ones left. I am captain now; I am married; I must settle in life. I am not for war, my brave M. Guizot, but I am for my country. *Vive le Roi!*'" The letters of that period are almost as incomprehensible, at times, as if they were documents of the sixteenth century. Who cares now for the Ministerial combinations of 1831? for the articles of Armand Carrel? for the intrigues of Dupin, of Lafitte? The daily account of parliamentary government is somewhat dull. It is hardly possible to read a newspaper of a few months after date. The letters of M. Guizot produce often the same effect; they seem unreal, as if they dealt with shadows: "M. de Talleyrand has a bad cold, and must cease taking the waters. Mme. de Dino has left Baden for Ems. The Carlists have made of Baden their headquarters," and so on. This was written before the days of telegrams. I decidedly prefer telegrams.

The letters become more interesting when the historian, the moralist speaks. M. Guizot writes to Mme. de Gasparin: "My heart is very materialistic. I want the real presence. Not that I disdain memory, dreaming, writing, shadows, which have their merit in the absence of the realities, but pure shadows which don't give me a moment of illusion. Nevertheless, I am very spiritualistic, too, and of the most solid spiritualism, for I am as adverse to pantheism as to materialism. I do not believe that our soul, the soul of each of us, is merely a portion of the one universal spirit, a portion detached for a moment from the great All, to which it belongs as the ray of light belongs to the sun, as the spark belongs to the fire, and which returns to it and confounds itself with it, after having shone a moment as a bit of matter. I care no more for this pretended spiritualism than for brutal materialism. It abolishes equally our individuality, which is our moral being, and takes away from us all hope of a future. Each soul is for me a real, personal being, which will remain real and personal all through eternity as it is now in this world. It is in my eyes the great intellectual superiority of Christianity to conceive thus the human soul and its destiny. All the religions of the East are pantheistic." Guizot always retained these ideas, and we find him the same in one of his last works, in his 'Christian Meditations.' By vocation he was

a minister of the Gospel, a Christian philosopher; he might have been the Bossuet of the French Protestant Church. He was thrown early in the turmoil of politics; he tried to found constitutional and parliamentary government in a revolutionary country. He had some admirable qualifications for the task: a profound knowledge of history, especially of English history, a noble character, an extraordinary eloquence; he had an incredible faith in himself—never doubted, never hesitated; he was a true doctrinaire, dogmatic even in the smallest matters: "I feel no doubt, no discouragement; on the contrary [this was written to the Duchess de Broglie after the attempt of Alibaud on the life of the King], the more I go on, the more I believe in our principles." He was not blind, however. He believed in the natural depravity of man: "I am not as uneasy as many; by instinct, by a number of obscure causes, I believe that the King will live, but I am alarmed by the inner dispositions, by the moral state of those thousands of men, without faith, withou tlaw, without heart, without bread, who wander in the midst of an uncertain and weak society. How much time, how many efforts, what divine protection and human wisdom will not be necessary to cure at the same time these hideous wounds and this general malady of languor!"

Guizot liked to theorize; he had marked the great lines of a system; the great masses, the *residuum*, were to have no place in the electoral system; a legal solution was to take place; the electoral rights were to be the price of labor, of work, of an effort represented by a certain amount of property. Universal suffrage seemed to him a chaos, the chaos of ignorance and of vice. On all these points he was absolutely sincere; his political faith was only the wrong side of his Calvinistic faith. He did not believe in the natural excellence of mankind, in the necessary triumph of good sense, of virtue, of truth. "We are surrounded," he writes to Mme. de Gasparin, "with weakness, with reticence, with treason, with folly. I feel myself at times like a drowning man. I must then make an effort, look for an occasion. I don't know whether I shall find it." He felt tied to an almost impossible task: "I am tied to a mission. I must accomplish it in all its extent, with all its difficulties."

Correspondence.

"I ALLOW."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a further contribution to the uses of the words "allow," "bang," and "smart," I give you what follows. I lived for many years in Claiborne Parish, Louisiana, and there heard the word *allow* or *'low* constantly used in the sense of *intend*, and in the past tense for *said*. In the sense of *intend* it is used a great deal by the whites as well as the blacks; in the sense of *said* it is not much used by the whites, but a negro in giving the substance of a past conversation will say, "He 'lowed he didn't see you." There is perhaps a tendency, however, to confine it to such expressions as "He 'lowed he'd come," "He 'lowed he'd give a dollar for it," "He 'lowed he'd die first," etc., where the sense is akin to *intend*, and nearly equal to *he said he intended*, etc. *Bang* is used there as given in your notes: "That *bangs* me"; but also in this way, "That bangs anything I ever heard of." This last will perhaps be more frequently put, "That *outbangs* anything," etc.

The farmer in Claiborne Parish does not speak of raising "right smart of oats," but "a right smart chance of oats," or "a fine chance of oats."

I have not had my attention especially called to the subject here in Virginia, but I think the negroes use *allow* or *'low* in the two senses given above. S. T. M.

Lexington, Va., June 7.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued a new edition of Colonel Brackenbury's 'Frederick the Great,' in which the twenty-two maps and battle-plans omitted from the first edition have been inserted.

A. S. Barnes & Co. announce 'The Elements of Morality,' translated by Mrs. Hiram Corson, from the French of Paul Janet. The volume is meant for the use of schools and colleges.

Haswell's 'Mechanics' and Engineers' Pocket-book' (Harper & Bros.) has reached its forty-fifth edition. It has just been thoroughly revised by the author.

A revised edition of Batterson's 'A Sketch Book of the American Episcopate During One Hundred Years' has been issued by J. P. Lippincott & Co. It is really a biographical dictionary of the Bishops of the American Church up to the date of publication, and will be useful as a hand-book to those who have occasion for such knowledge.

S. E. Cassino announces for immediate publication 'A Manual of the Mosses of North America,' with plates.

Estes & Lauriat have in preparation an edition of Moore's 'Lalla Rookh,' to be illustrated by nearly two hundred colored photogravures.

Lee & Shepard have issued in large pamphlet form the two popular addresses of Wendell Phillips, 'The Lost Arts' and 'Daniel O'Connell.'

'The Abolition of the Presidency' is the title of a pamphlet to be issued at once by R. Worthington. Its author is Henry C. Lockwood, of the New York bar.

'The Problem of Negro Education' is a pamphlet by George R. Stetson, which forcibly presents the well-known educational needs of the South, and advocates national aid. Its statements are largely based on the personal observation of the writer.

A hundred poems from the pages of *St. Nicholas* have been printed in a pamphlet by the Century Company to be distributed among musical composers as texts for songs, a collection of which for families and young people will be published as the 'St. Nicholas Song Book.' Copies of the pamphlet can be obtained of the Century Company, and contributions must be handed in by January 1, 1885.

The *Library Journal* for May, apropos of a premature report that the Astor Library would not be opened in the evening, urges the plan already advocated in the *Nation*, by which a single room only would be provided for readers and no books issued to them except such as had been called for in advance. In connection with the same subject of extending the usefulness of libraries, the *Journal* reprints the statistics given by Mr. Green, of Worcester, in respect to the use of the public library of that city on Sunday. From these it appears that during the twelve years that the experiment (it can hardly longer be called so) has been tried, the number of persons using the library has risen from 7,179 in 1873–74 to 14,946 in 1881–82. The readers devote their attention mainly to current literature, to the exclusion of serious study, and are largely made up of persons not church-goers, who have no pleasant place to spend Sunday and no private means of intellectual entertainment. Mr. Green justly regards his experience as a proof that the institution of Sunday-reading in the libraries works for moral reform in a very marked way.

The St. Louis *American Journal of Ophthalmology*, announced some weeks ago, has issued its second number. Its main object is to give a full record of the work of American ophthalmologists, a province hitherto unoccupied in our periodical literature.

The spring number of the *Bulletin of the Boston Public Library* contains the usual information in regard to new books, and continues the very valuable list of works on American local history. Its novel feature is a curious catalogue statement of the paper currency printed by Franklin, by Mr. John H. Hickcox, the writer on the history of American coinage and of New York bills of credit.

We have received *Florentiner Blätter*, a new German paper, published at Florence; its contents have a somewhat light character, as befits its climate, and include novelettes, poems, and travel sketches, together with essays and reviews.

The Department of Mechanical Engineering of Cornell University has lately profited by the generosity of Hon. Hiram Sibley, who will expend $35,000, in remodelling Sibley College and erecting a line of shops.

The money necessary to send the Babylonian exploring expedition which is to be directed by Dr. William Hayes Ward, of the *Independent*, has been contributed by a single individual. It is understood that the party will start this year.

The *Academy* states that the Council at Cambridge have voted unanimously to offer the new honorary degree of Doctor in Letters to Professor George Stephens of Copenhagen, whose *opus magnum*, 'Old Northern Runic Monuments of Scandinavia and England,' has just been completed by the issue of its third volume.

The Phi Beta Kappa oration at Harvard this year will be delivered by Prof. R. C. Jebb, of Glasgow; and in view of the fact that probably many persons will be led by Professor Jebb's reputation to make arrangements to be present on the occasion, we shall doubtless render a service by announcing the subject which he has chosen. It is "Ancient Organs of Public Opinion," and we understand that its scope will be to consider the chief agencies which in ancient Greece and Rome performed some of the functions of the modern newspaper press. The subject is a novel and attractive one, and admirably chosen for the occasion, since, while no one but a classical scholar would venture to discuss it, it cannot fail to be of interest also to students of the various other branches of knowledge which are represented in the Phi Beta Kappa Society.

Thomas Maitland, Esq., of this city, has in his possession, intrusted to him for sale by a South Carolinian family, in which they have been since they were painted, three heads by Copley, in excellent condition, and good examples of the artist. They are portraits of Lord William Campbell, last Governor of South Carolina, Lady William Campbell, and a relative, Mrs. Colin Campbell, née Izard. These should not remain private property, but go into some of our public galleries or the National Portrait Gallery of London. Copley is better known and more appreciated in Boston than in New York, and really good heads by him, such as these, should not, at any rate, wait long for a purchaser.

The recent election of an Oxford graduate, Mr. Creighton, author of a learned 'History of the Papacy During the Reformation Period,' to the newly-founded Professorship of Ecclesiasti-

cal History in the University of Cambridge is an interesting illustration of the growing freedom of intercourse and liberality of spirit in the English universities. Thirty years ago it would have been thought preposterous for any one but a Cambridge man to stand for such a chair in Cambridge. Nor would any one but a clergyman of the established Church have been deemed eligible. The chair, however, has been founded free from all theological or clerical restrictions, and although the successful candidate happens to be a clergyman, it is understood that this was not considered at all by the electors. Mr. Creighton was a brilliant lecturer at Oxford some years ago, and has since then held a living in the north of England.

We learn from Florence that Professor Villari has negotiated for the purchase of the Lord Ashburnham MSS. stolen by Libri from the Italian libraries and sold to his lordship, above two thousand in number, the price for the repurchase being 600,000 francs. It is singular that a nation should be compelled to pay such a price to regain its stolen treasures.

The termination of the new façade of the Duomo of Florence has given rise to a violent controversy—whether the triple façades shall be crowned by three cuspidal structures, as designed by Di Fabris, the architect of the admirable completion, or by basilical forms. The direction has most unfortunately yielded to the popular and ignorant clamor in favor of the basilical form, which will be out of keeping with the work already done. The taste of the Florentines has not in modern times distinguished itself, and in this case proves true to its bad precedents.

The completion of the official narrative of the war of 1870-71, published by the German Government, is the occasion of the issue by Count von Moltke of a circular to the German people, calling attention to the desirability of studying the conflicts sustained by Prussia in the middle of the last century, the results of which extended and assured the foundations of the German empire, and made possible the successful issue of the war of 1870-71. The wars of Frederick the Great will first be taken up.

The report made by M. d'Arbois de Jubainville of his mission to Ireland, undertaken, by direction of the Ministry of Instruction of France, for the purpose of studying Celtic manuscripts and documents, which originally appeared in the 'Archives des missions scientifiques et littéraires,' 3e ser., vol. 10, has lately been issued as a *tirage à part* under the title 'Rapport sur une mission littéraire dans les Îles-Britanniques.' The fruits of this expedition will be put to profit in the forthcoming second volume of the author's 'Cours de littérature celtique,' the first volume of which was published in 1883.

Henri Harrisse's important work upon Columbus, which will form volumes seven and eight of the 'Recueil de voyages et de documents pour servir a l'histoire de géographie depuis le XIIIe jusqu'à la fin du XVIe siècle,' is now in press. The archives of Genoa, Seville, and Madrid have been drawn upon, in the compilation of the work, which will probably constitute the most extensive and exhaustive treatment of the life and voyages of Columbus.

A recent African traveller, Gottlob Adolf Krause, has just published a sketch of the Ful or Fulbe, Pullo, Fellata language of Africa, with an interesting historic and ethnographic introduction on that nation, and some texts of the language. The Fulbe write their native language by means of the Arabian characters, but the author gives the transcription into Professor Lepsius's scientific or standard alphabet. The area occupied by the Ful people extends from the Atlantic ocean through Western and Central Sudan almost to the Nile and Abyssinia, and its surface equals about one-fourth of that of Europe. The tribes composing the race differ considerably in their exterior, especially as to complexion, but are gifted and intellectual people, whose states and kingdoms rival in power and extent those of many Asiatic nations of history. The formation of the Ful kingdoms on the middle and lower Niger River and east of it is of recent date, for the Ful emigration from their native country, in Senegambia, to these eastern parts is not older than the eighteenth century of our era.

Librarians who wish to have the complete works of Montesquieu must add to the edition of Laboulaye a little volume which will be printed to correspond with it at Bordeaux by the printer Gounouilhou. It will be edited by M. Céleste, Sub Librarian of that city, and will contain thirty-two unpublished letters of Montesquieu, with biographical and bibliographical memoranda relating to him. Among other things there will be a list of his writings, some of which are still in manuscript, it is not known where, but perhaps in the family archives. The letters were found in the papers left by M. Lamontaigne, the last perpetual secretary of the Academy of Bordeaux. One of them is particularly interesting. Montesquieu states that he is spending eight hours a day in preparing his 'Esprit des lois.' He enjoys seeing the work get on. "I am enthusiastic about it," he writes. "I am my first admirer. I do not know if I shall be the last."

A curious discovery has been made by M. René Kerviler, who has found in the Gaulish *mardelles* (conical excavations) on the lower Loire numerous projectiles of a cylindro-conical shape, like the modern rifled cannon balls. The same form, he points out, is to be seen on ancient monuments, and is used in some of the Polynesian islands. There is nothing new under the sun. The most careful and costly experiments of modern artillery practice only lead to the result reached centuries before by the barbarian with his sling or the Roman with his catapult.

—Two French libraries, the one curious, the other important, are analyzed in *Le Livre* for May. That of the Senate, which was newly catalogued in 1882, has undergone many vicissitudes since it was founded (in 1818: in Napoleon's time the Senate had little need of books). Among its many rarities is the trial of Gilles, sire de Rays, who was none other than Bluebeard Campan's MS. catalogue of the books of Marie Antoinette, preserved in the National Library, shows that there were many French, more Italian than in any other foreign tongue, and singularly few German; in English, nothing at all. Poetry abounded, but historical works numbered 184 out of 510. Mr. Van der Haeghen, who writes of this library, tells of the Queen's encouragement of music, and mentions her patronage of the superb quarto edition of the works of Metastasio. He might have pointed also to the name of "La Reine" at the head of the "Noms des Souscripteurs pour le Recueil des Airs, Romances et Duos" composed by J. J. Rousseau, in the posthumous quarto edition of 1781. But Rousseau is sufficiently celebrated in this number, having a whole article to himself from the pen of R. Chantelauze. His relations with Thérèse Le Vasseur are the theme of this very interesting summary of rare documents, and every Rousseau collector will desire to secure the accompanying full-length portraits of Thérèse and Jean Jacques—the latter in his common character of botanist. M. Chantelauze relates an amusing anecdote of his own rebuff at the former Hôtel de Saint-Quentin, in the rue des Cordiers, where Rousseau first met Thérèse. "We have no lodger of that name," said the concierge, "and you shall not go up," adding that she was tormented by disreputable inquirers for that person, who had left the premises many years ago, whom she had never known, and whose address she could not furnish. But M. Chantelauze dwells chiefly on the causes of this strange attachment, half dishonorable, half highly creditable to the man, with perhaps a trace of redemption for the woman in her sympathy with and kindly patience for his bodily infirmities—in the earlier part of their union, of course. The famous marriage is described from unfamiliar sources; and, valueless as it was legally, it must be allowed a moral dignity which evidently powerfully affected the witnesses. The question of Rousseau's death is again discussed, with the aid of Houdon's death-mask, and suicide by shooting is the conclusion reached.

—In this as in most other tests of the accuracy of the 'Confessions,' the result is favorable to the truthfulness of their author, whose intention clearly was to record facts as they were. That he saw them too often as through a glass darkly, is of course past dispute. A very interesting annotation upon the passage relating to the conversion of Mme. de Warens and her abandonment of her husband, in 1726, is printed in the *Revue Politique* for May 17, based upon a letter from M. de Warens to his brother-in-law, which has just seen the light in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* of Lausanne. The account given by the injured spouse is altogether plausible and consistent with what we know of his wife's character. The incident is invested with a certain amount of humor by reason of Mme. de Warens's prudent carrying off of the family silver, and her various shifts to allay suspicion as to her real designs. The whole chapter deserves to be bound up with the 'Confessions.'

—The *raison d'être* of Prof. T. W. Hunt's edition of 'Exodus and Daniel' (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.) is anything but obvious. We agree with the editor when he asserts that it is not "altogether gratifying to the pride of an ingenious American scholar that he should be dependent upon foreign sources for the best results in this department." But is the work which he has selected one sufficiently important to call for an American edition? Is he himself qualified for the self-imposed task? As to the first point, what we need is Wülcker's reëdition of the manuscript, and this should have been waited for. Besides, neither the 'Exodus' nor the 'Daniel' is suited to class-room work. They are not, as the editor supposes, specimens of "classic" Anglo-Saxon literature, but are both corrupt in language, and—the 'Exodus' at least—confusing in narrative and usually uninteresting. As to the second point, Professor Hunt's editorial qualifications, the less we say the better. Any one who classes Henry Sweet among the editors of "Middle English" and omits him from the list of great workers in "Earliest English" (see Preface), is hopeless. The student who can gain from pp. 8 and 10 any knowledge whatever of the Cædmon question must indeed be a prodigy. The text is carelessly given, sometimes the length of vowels being indicated, sometimes not. In this respect the vocabulary is even worse than the text. So far as we can determine, Sievers's Anglo-Saxon grammar is wholly unknown to Professor Hunt. No man familiar with Sievers's aim and method could have thus peppered his pages with First English, Earliest English, Middle English, Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, Gothic, and Teutonic.

—M. Louis Ulbach, having passed through Spain, has arrived at Lisbon, and expresses his content at that beautiful city, which has seen eighteen earthquakes and eight fires and yet is

not deserted by its inhabitants. They love it and would not have it other than it is. Unlike the people of Amsterdam, of whose canal and drainage projects M. Ulbach told us a year or more ago, the Lisbonese will not deface their lovely harbor with docks, but put off the scheme "á manhã," till to-morrow. M. Ulbach notes the absence of grass, whose loss to him more than counterbalances the luxuriance of tropical vegetation, and the cheapness of everything, though one's payments sound enormous, 400 reis an hour for a carriage, for instance, or 1,080 for a stylish equipage, the latter after all only four francs. He is amused by the custom of numbering not merely every house in the street but every opening, be it door or window, so that if the proprietor should take a fancy to divide his house he need not be driven to designate the new entrance by the old number with an A or a ½ added. He was amused, too, at the exuberance of invective indulged in by quarrelling porters, who took, nevertheless, very good care not to come to blows. We have seen the same thing related of London cabmen and of street people in China and Japan. But Lisbon is really a very quiet, peaceable city; the police are invisible. So are ours, for that matter, when they are needed; but they are not needed in Lisbon, according to M. Ulbach. There is a most complete liberty, of speech, of the press, of the theatre, of caricature. The King, the Queen, the Princes are ridiculed in prints that everybody laughs at when they are laughable, and nobody is prosecuted for any more than *Punch* is prosecuted for elongating Gladstone's shirt collars. M. Ulbach wonders and envies, and recalls his own condemnation under the Empire to six months of prison for having quoted from an historical dictionary authorized by a Minister of the Emperor a definition of the name Napoleon which the court thought disrespectful. He asks whether human nature is so very different in France and Portugal, and whether a little more liberty, or, indeed, complete liberty would not be as safe in Paris as it is in Lisbon. And he hints that the fracas made about the Prince Napoleon's proclamation was unnecessary and ill-advised. It may be, but a country where there is no strong party feeling is very different from a country where there are three parties hating one another rancorously, because each has suffered from the other, if not in this generation, then in the previous or the one before that, exile, confiscation, or death.

—A sentence from one of the letters of Thomas Chatterton to his mother in Bristol, written from his London garret and referring to what proved to be his last hope, is so appropriate to a recent interesting theatrical event in London as to seem almost prophetic. "Mr. Barrett," he wrote home, when he was trying as a last resource to obtain a situation as surgeon, "has it in his power to assist me greatly, by giving me a physical character." And Mr. Wilson Barrett has certainly assisted his memory greatly, and given him a new "physical character" of a most attractive kind, by his fine impersonation of the boy-poet in the new one-act drama called "Chatterton," by Messrs. Jones and Herman, the authors of the extremely successful "Silver King." The piece was produced at a recent matinée at the Princess's Theatre in London, and is announced for repetition, although it is hardly of a nature to be placed upon the regular programme. The scene is laid in *Chatterton's* garret at No. 39 Brook Street, Holborn—a miserable attic, containing only a table, a chair, and bed, with a window overlooking the roofs of London toward St. Paul's in the distance. The play begins with a clandestine visit of two ladies of rank to *Chatterton's* room. One of these, the *Lady Mary*, has received some anonymous love-verses which she suspects to come from the poet, whose passion she returns. Her suspicions are confirmed by a comparison of the handwriting of the verses with others lying on *Chatterton's* table, also addressed to her. Horrified at his poverty and privations, she leaves a letter and money under the papers on the table, bidding him keep up heart, and promising him love, honor, wealth, and fame. The landlady, *Mrs. Angel*, only just succeeds in getting her away before the poet returns. He rushes impetuously on the stage with the anxious question, "Has any one been?" Mr. Wilson Barrett is handsome and young-looking, and in his dark claret-colored clothes, with long auburn hair and pale face, he represented in a striking manner the proud, precocious boy of eighteen, in whom idealism and hunger were struggling for the mastery. The landlady keeps her promise to the ladies not to betray them, and the conversation which follows reveals *Chatterton's* ambitions and aspirations, his failures and disappointments, his longing for love and fame. "They are up there!" he exclaims of the latter, pointing upward, "and I am down here." No word has come in answer to his verses, so it is clear that the lady despises him. "Why not take a situation of some sort?" suggests the good-hearted *Mrs. Angel*. "I will," he cries, "but not such as you mean. It shall be the situation which we all must take ere long. You cruel, old world, with your selfishness and your money and your ease, I will thwart you yet. I will go and be with Milton and Shakspere and Chaucer." His landlady can make nothing of all this, so she leaves him with much good advice, and invites him to dinner. "Thank you, I am not hungry," is the instant reply, taken from *Chatterton's* biography, and made most effective by the sudden change of tone from piteous appeals and despair to dignified but kindly pride. Left alone, a monologue reveals still further the poet's state of mind, in which the passionate yearning for sympathy and success is yielding step by step to a convinced despair and its natural outcome—suicide. He picks from the table the latest verses he has written to the *Lady Mary* and reads them aloud. When, a moment later, in looking for tinder, he comes upon a bottle of poison, bought some time previously, his fate is sealed, and rather than face the "ribald, loveless, unashamed old age" of men like his drunken fellow-lodger, *Nat Boaden*, whose prescription of "four magic words, 'don't know, don't care,'" as a cure for all ills, he is quite unable to follow, he drinks it off. Devoting the remaining moments of life to "putting his house in order," he tears up his poems and strews them on the floor, and then suddenly discovers the message and the money of the *Lady Mary*. Overwhelmed with joy at the consummation of all his hopes, he forgets what he has done, and crying in rapture, "I come! I come!" he starts to go to her, when the poison takes effect and he falls upon the floor. After a very prolonged and realistic death-struggle he dies, tearing up her letter that she may not be made to suffer for his sake, and with his last look directed to the cruel city, over which the sun is just setting.

—As will be seen, the authors have introduced new scenes and motives into *Chatterton's* life, but the play remains essentially a monologue. The character of *Chatterton* is well conceived and the language is forcible and highly poetical throughout, but the subject is too painful and not sufficiently dramatic to become popular. Its chief interest lay in the opportunity it afforded Mr. Wilson Barrett for a display of new power and insight. Mr. Barrett's elocution is, to say the least, as good as that of any English actor; he has a fine physique, his acting is refreshingly free from mannerisms and sensational methods of any kind, and his rapid advance to the front rank of the profession justifies much hope of his future. What he now needs is a good play. This he will try to find in "Hamlet," which his company is rehearsing, if he has not already found it in the drama which Lord Lytton—if rumor speaks the truth—has placed in his hands.

—Among the various cases of similarity—which the outspoken call plagiarism—that have occupied the literary journals of late, we do not remember to have seen pointed out the resemblance between Hawthorne's "Birthmark," one of the tales in his 'Mosses from an Old Manse' (first published in 1846), and Paul Deltuf's 'Tragédies du Foyer' (published in 1868). Hawthorne's story, it may be remembered, is of a wife, exceedingly beautiful, but with one defect, the mark of a hand on her cheek, which is hardly noticed by her lover while he is wooing her, but attracts his attention and becomes his aversion after they are married. So completely does it occupy his thoughts that he determines to efface it, and subjects her in his laboratory to powerful influences that at last remove the mark, but carry with it her life. The groundwork of the French tale is the same: in both stories the lover overlooks the defect, and the husband sees it and grows more and more to hate it; in the one story the husband is a great chemist, in the other he consults a famous alchemist; in both the remedy drives away the defect, but at the same time extinguishes the life. And there is one similarity of detail that indicates a knowledge of Hawthorne on the part of Deltuf. In both the mark—on the cheek in one case, on the shoulder in the other—is on the left side. But if the Frenchman used Hawthorne's *motif*, he did not borrow his treatment of it or his style, and he is not by any means to be called a plagiarist. The French tale seems coarse beside the delicate handling of the American; the characters are unsympathetic, the satire is commonplace; the author is even reduced to use the supernatural. Hawthorne's hero reaches his aversion to the fatal mark through his own half-morbid musings; Deltuf's prince is brought to it by influences from without—by overhearing his courtiers' raillery and by the insinuations of his wife's disappointed rival. Hawthorne's story is much more a *tragédie du foyer* than Deltuf's, which is almost a fairy tale of a guardian angel, and a prince, and a court with its usual personages—usual, at least, in fairy tales and in plays—foolish courtiers, an envious beauty, and a pompous chamberlain.

—The Council of the Royal Astronomical Society have awarded the gold medal this year to Mr. A. A. Common, for his photographs of celestial bodies. President Stone, in placing the medal in Mr. Common's hands, remarked to the Society that their Council had been less influenced by originality in the methods adopted than by the great practical success which has attended the efforts of Mr. Common in this important field of astronomical research. He began with a five and one-half inch refracting telescope ten years ago, and from time to time enlarged his facilities for celestial photography, until in 1879 he was in possession of a great reflector of three feet diameter, whose superior character is well known in astronomy from its behavior in observing the moons of Mars and the fainter satellites of Saturn. Early in 1880 the first attempt was made to photograph the nebula of Orion, resulting in failure; and it was not until about two years later that a really fine photograph of the nebula was secured. Mr.

Common was among the first to obtain a photograph of a comet. His photographs of Jupiter and Saturn are described as being beautiful, and he has lately applied himself with success in the direction of obtaining photographic star-maps. President Stone called attention to the fact that Mr. Common is an amateur astronomer, and that the records of their Society are rich in the labors of amateur workers. The amateur who can provide himself with sufficient instrumental means for original research need fear no professional rivalry, and it is in work of this class that the most striking advantages in astronomy are to be expected.

—Dr. Th. von Oppolzer, of Vienna, has lately published an ingenious attempt to explain the well-known discrepancy between the observed value of the secular acceleration of the moon's mean motion, and that derived from the mathematical theory by Delaunay and Adams. This difference has heretofore been supposed to be accounted for, in an indefinite and unsatisfactory way, by the continued retarding action of the tides on the rotational velocity of the earth; but Oppolzer, accepting the now generally believed pervasion of interplanetary space by comminuted cosmical matter, proceeds to estimate the three-fold action of such matter on the motions of moon and earth. First, the masses of both bodies are continually receiving slight increments from the accumulation of this dust upon their surfaces. Second, a part of this increment of the moon's mass acts in such a way as to decrease its tangential velocity. Third, the continued deposition of cosmical dust on the surface of the earth changes its rotational velocity, affecting thus the apparent motion of the moon. All these effects are reduced to numbers, in the form of coefficients of terms in the moon's mean longitude multiplied by the square of the time, and by an unknown quantity which represents the thickness of a layer of cosmical dust which falls on the surface of the earth in a century. If this latter be supposed to be 2.8 millimetres, the entire discrepancy in the secular acceleration of the moon's motion disappears. And on the same hypothesis, the density of the medium surrounding the earth and moon is equivalent to the density of air divided by 3,760,000,000,000. Dr. von Oppolzer's paper will be found entire in No. 2573 of the *Astronomische Nachrichten.*

—A small but attractive collection of pictures by American artists has been opened at the galleries of the American Art Association, and besides some which we have seen in other exhibitions, has several new contributions of decided merit. A landscape by Charles Linford, No. 64, has a strong resemblance to the work of Mr. Inness in some of that painter's best points, but there is a wide distinction in manner of working. Mr. Linford's feeling for color is excellent, and in management of general effect, thoughtful and strong. He lacks firmness in drawing, and his forms are sometimes indicated with an indecision and uncertainty of line not easily explicable in company with so much excellent handling of detail. We imagine that a course of severe study in tree form with pen and ink would in a measure correct this defect, which is a serious drawback. Three heads of cherubs by the late George Fuller is a characteristic sketch by that poetical painter, slight, but exquisite in sentiment. A "Morning on York Creek," by Mrs. S. W. Whitman, is a pleasant color motive, painted broadly and with little reference to detail, but good as far as it goes. "Sunset—Early Winter," by Mr. Macy, is one of the best realizations of that oft-attempted motive that we have seen, tender in color and true in twilight effect; and "The Pasture Lot," by J. Francis Murphy, is in an excellent vein. "A Cornfield," by Hamilton Hamilton, is a study of especial interest in its peculiarly American subject, one, by the way, of the very few in which our landscape has a distinguishingly pictorial motive. "A Market Place, Venice," by Mr. Grover, is an honestly painted, excellent study of the material with which Venice abounds, truer in its light and effect of color than such things generally are. A small study of November, by George H. McCord, is attractive for its simplicity and harmonious tone; "A Winter Twilight," by MacEntee, is in his usual vein of poetic feeling; and a "Scout," by Leon Moran, resembles in its qualities his admirable "Vidette" in the Water-Color Exhibition. Mr. Boggs's "Old Houses on the Canal, Dordrecht," which was skied in the Academy exhibition, here shows all its qualities and proves to be a very noble work, large in treatment and subtle in color, without any of the meaningless bravura which we have had to blame in some of the younger adherents of the French school. Seen from the proper distance Mr. Boggs's picture is strong in realism and careful in execution. "A Quiet Haven," by Harry Chase, we were able to praise in the Academy, and it appears to still better advantage here. A brutal piece of realization, the motive of which is inexplicable, is a head of an old woman by J. Carrol Beckwith, called "My Model," a piece of bloated, disgusting humanity, painted well enough to be to the last degree repulsive, and with no attraction of art to redeem it. Such studies are not fit subjects for exhibition, however much they may amuse the painter. They should at least have humor or fine color to redeem them; this has neither.

MASSIMO D'AZEGLIO'S LETTERS TO HIS NEPHEW.

Lettere inedite di Massimo d'Azeglio al Marchese Emanuele d'Azeglio: documentate a cura di Nicomede Bianchi. Turin: Roux & Favale. 1883.

THE friends and relatives of Massimo d'Azeglio have done all in their power to supplement his 'Ricordi,' cut short by his death and ending where his political career began. Thus, we have a continuation of the 'Ricordi' by Torelli, his political correspondence edited by Rendu, his letters to Torelli, to Panizzi, to his second wife, Luisa Blondel, and lastly the recently published letters to his nephew, Emanuele. Emanuele d'Azeglio, son of Massimo's elder brother, Roberto, was always treated by his uncle rather as a brother than as a nephew, and the affectionate relations that existed between them are manifest on every page of these letters. In May, 1849, when Massimo became Prime Minister, Emanuele was Secretary of Legation at the Court of St. James, and through his uncle's influence was appointed Minister to England in August, 1850.

The delicacy and high sense of honor which characterized Azeglio are conspicuous in the allusions made to this appointment. For example, in October, 1849, he writes: "It is your misfortune to be the nephew of your uncle, otherwise I should suggest your name to the King; but people would say that I was pushing my family." In December of the same year: "Before falling back into the mob I will try to arrange your matters and have you finally made Minister at London, so that you can get besmoked at your ease." In announcing the appointment he says: "You see now that you have lost nothing by waiting. As for me this is the only reward that I ask for my services. I had set my heart on it, I have succeeded, and I wish for nothing more." He refused all offers of pension and decoration when he retired from the ministry, so that this was actually "the only reward" that he had for his services. At the same time Azeglio may well be absolved of nepotism, as his nephew continuously occupied the post of Minister to England for nineteen years; *i. e.*, seventeen years after his uncle's retirement.

The letters are one hundred and ninety-nine in number, and cover a period of twenty-four years (1841–1865). Almost all of them touch more or less upon political matters, and nearly half of them were written while Azeglio was at the head of affairs. While he appreciated the honor of being Prime Minister, his functions were always irksome to him, and at the first, during the vexatious and tedious peace negotiations with Austria, the strain upon his delicate nervous organization must have been very great.

One searches in vain, however, for a lapse from the gentle humor that pervades most of his correspondence. Not even Austria's ultimatum of July, 1849, could disturb his playful serenity. He writes:

"I send you Austria's astounding ultimatum. I have no time to add anything. And, indeed, what can I say? Evidently they want to crush us, or rather to sign peace at Turin and abolish the *Statuto*, or at any rate to impose such a peace as will make it a dead letter. Next will come alliance offensive and defensive with Austria, which will mean for these fine gentlemen of Paris having the Russians on the Pont Beauvoisin. It is well worth while to boast the name of France! Something very queer will come of all this. As for me, I have done all that lay in my power for my country's good; I am perfectly calm. For that matter I had rather fight than be forever at a desk."

Although France interfered in behalf of the Sardinian Government at this juncture, this did not enable Azeglio to carry his point of complete amnesty with Austria, and he was obliged to except eighty-five persons from amnesty. This was a grievous disappointment to him, but he consoles himself in characteristic fashion under date of August 10, 1849:

"If France refused us her aid in the matter of amnesty, we have got out of it all alone, which is still better. As for our successive concessions, concessions are common to all contracts. And if I did not present the question of amnesty as one of the chief questions at issue, it is because I only named those upon which I wanted advice. Amnesty is a question of honor, and on points of honor Piedmont only advises with herself. (Roll of drums.)"

Again, a fortnight later, he writes:

"After all it does not seem to me such a dreadful thing, eighty-five persons out of a population of five millions privileged to emigrate with all their goods and chattels, with the understanding that it is for the present, and with the assurance that they may return if they ask to do so, and it does seem to me that it was not such a very simple matter for us, so thoroughly mauled as we were, and with nothing but our own strength to rely on, to get even that out of those who mauled us. I assure you that our soldiers and peasants would have been very little disposed to let their backs be broken for the sake of eighty-five brethren; we had not a sou left, and nobody was willing to give us any unless peace was signed."

He had little hope that the Chamber of Deputies would ratify his treaty. In the same letter he says:

"The majority is the result of the intrigues of the *Concordia* (the organ of the Reds) and of Young Italy, and represents Piedmont as well as I represent the Grand Turk. I have no complaint to make of the attitude of the Chamber towards me personally, for it has always shown me good will; but things will not move on any the better for that."

Compelled finally to dissolve the Chamber and appeal to the country, he communicates the popular vindication of his course in these words:

"Here we are at the head of a majority of fifty, which will doubtless have to be trained,

but which, such as it is, none the less exists. I have avoided illegalities, *coups d'état*, edicts; and lo the King, the dynasty, the monarchy, the throne, the altar, and the whole jolly kit, without reproach, and with a fair and fine reputation for fidelity, well and duly attested. As far as I am concerned everything looks smiling, for I foresee the possibility of a seemly ending of my ministerial career. If things settle down to a normal condition I can surrender the reins to other hands, sing the *Nunc dimittis*, and become a free and independent man again. I shall have nothing left to me from my political career but a lively recollection of the most colossal bore that I have experienced in my whole life, and a pretty collection of grand cordons to adorn my person on grand occasions."

The personal and political relations between Azeglio and Cavour have been much discussed, but it is only since the publication of these letters of Azeglio's and of Chiala's 'Lettere edite ed inedite di Cavour' that Azeglio's disinterestedness and Cavour's ambition stand fully revealed in all their incompatibility. In April, 1851, Azeglio writes:

"Things are moving here. Cavour is expressly made to manage affairs and Parliament. But he is as despotic as the devil, and I, who don't fancy tyrants, was on the point of resigning the other day on account of Persano [Admiral Persano], to whom injustice was done. The matter is now settled for the better, but withholding my resignation was the greatest sacrifice that I have ever made in my life for the King and the country, and if I may tell you my idea, I do not propose to drag along a great while, as I do not see when I can ever get out of it, and I am now absolutely tired out, body and mind. All this to you, my trusty fellow, and let it go no further, for here it is a dead secret."

When Cavour abandoned him he bore him no ill-will. Witness several letters. In June, 1852, he writes: "You will soon see Cavour in London. Be as kind and attentive to him as you can. He is a man capable of serving the country and likes to be petted." In July, 1852:

"Cavour will arrive [in England] soon, or is, perhaps, already there. I am continually pondering how this trip may be made of use to him in the way of taming the colt and making him serviceable in harness for the car of state. Unfortunately, his chief defect consists in a love of domineering, which is to liberals with 100,000 francs income what holy orders are to priests; and at forty years, when one has been a spoiled child up to that age, conversion is difficult, all the more difficult if ambition be added, which is about as conspicuous among human passions as love, anger, and jealousy.

"You will say that I am amusing myself by drawing the portrait of my so-called competitor. But, as you know, he has no more zealous ally than myself, and I would gladly cut off a small bit of my person if, by so doing, I could fit him to enter into my political inheritance, and would pray that God might secure it to him for a hundred years. But after all it would be slow business—would require I know not what. But you take my idea, and who knows but your imagination may prove more fertile and find a remedy.

"For example, he will see Palmerston, Minto, Gladstone, and so forth. Couldn't you get up some sort of combination so as to beat into his head the fact that in this world, where we have to treat with people within and without, he cannot expect to make everything and everybody bow down to him as used to be done in the house of his father, the Marquis and *vicario;* that it is a very fine thing to talk well and to be ready with clever retorts, but that this faculty is only to be prized when used to support a serious and well-advised policy? I know that what I propose to you is a hard matter, and that the gentlemen that I have mentioned will not feel much like undertaking to skin the cat for us. But for all that, I wanted to give you my idea, and I leave it to you to carry it out as you think best."

In October, 1852: "I have seen the impious rival. I may be mistaken, yet methinks I read in his face that he hath projects, and that something is brewing." Something was brewing, and Azeglio's ministry fell. Soon after this Azeglio began to make preparations to visit his nephew. He passed about four months in England, returning to Turin the following June. The letters written after his return are full of references to England and the English, whom he as well as Cavour admired. He now sat himself down at his easel again with no lack of patrons, yet he seems to have had himself some doubt of the quality of his work, which was not of the best. He expresses this doubt in one of his letters with such ironical reference to John Bull's artistic taste that the passage is worth transcribing: "If I have formed a correct idea of the London planetary system, my pictures ought to sell there not because they are good, but because they are painted by an ex-Prime Minister." The King placed at his disposal a large room in the building of the Academy of Fine Arts, and here he took up his abode. While fitting it up he wrote: "Since I shall, in all probability, fall asleep with my fathers in this den, I am going to make unheard-of efforts to have it as comfortable and tasteful as possible." His words were prophetic, for he died in that very room.

The Government felt the need of D'Azeglio's name and influence in the negotiations which followed the Crimean war, but although he bore Cavour no ill-will for the unhandsome manner in which he had ousted him, he could not bring himself to accept a portfolio under him; at the same time he professed his readiness to render any other service in his power. January 29, 1855:

"The affairs of *Deus* and *Populus* are not going very smoothly. You have just escaped falling into my clutches again. Not one of the ministers was in favor of the treaty [the Crimean treaty] except Cavour. He came to me one evening and offered me the presidency of the Chamber and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; but in the first place my health is not yet sufficiently restored to admit of my harnessing myself to such a cart. Then, all these embarrassers of my ministry and I are hardly made to pull together, so that I thanked him for the *high honor*, placing myself at the disposal of the Cabinet for anything else."

April 16, 1855: "They propose now to detail me for another duty almost as incomprehensible to me, and that is to pay you and Salvatore a visit. To what end? I don't know. . . . The idea has come into my head that the impious one [Cavour] wants, no matter how, to enroll me under his flag in a way to make the fact visible to the naked eye."

Six months later Azeglio and Cavour together escorted Victor Emmanuel to Paris and to England, and the reconciliation between them was complete. Emanuele was chagrined that his uncle did not represent his Government at the Peace Congress, as at first proposed. His reasons for declining to do so are given in his letter of May 16, 1856:

"Your lament that I did not go to the Congress does me too much honor; but all things considered I think it was better so. First of all, it is not true that I refused to go on a footing of equality with the Impious One. No such proposition was ever made to me, and I assure you that it was not a matter of *amour propre*. The fact is, that after having assured myself, as I supposed, that it was understood with France and England that we were to be admitted to take part with the rest, I discovered that I was mistaken. Now, I was not willing to wait in the anteroom, nor to be admitted on the strength of prayers and supplications. However, as the matter did not come to *buts* or *ands*, I must say that it was thought best for Cavour to go, and I was not urged to withdraw my refusal. Besides, I repeat, it was better for him to go. He is a man of finances, of stocks, of railroads—things that are at the top to-day. And, indeed, he has suddenly shown himself to be a man of capacity. He is younger, stronger, and above all, more stirring than I am, and has given things an impetus which I never could have given. He has, too, the gift of impudence, which at Paris more than anywhere else is the thing needful."

Less space is given to politics in his subsequent letters, and scarcely any reference is made to his third visit to England, whither he was sent on an important mission previous to the final struggle with Austria. Moreover, the intervals between the letters are longer, sometimes very long. Four of the great gaps were caused by visits which Emanuele made to Piedmont, but the others are probably owing to his literary activity at this period and to the comparative dulness of Italian politics for some time after the Peace of Villafranca. Garibaldi's Sicilian expedition, however, brought out his estimate of the famous Mazzinian. He cordially hated the master; what did he think of the disciple? "Garibaldi is an upright and most zealous man—more than that, he is a lucky man; but unquestionably he is a weak character, and hence is the tool of all the fomenters of discord." The enthusiastic reception accorded to Garibaldi in England four years later called forth a very bitter criticism of both Mazzini and Garibaldi, but from that and all the latest letters we forbear to quote. They show that age and ill-health had soured his gentle spirit and warped his views of men and things.

Many familiar yet less distinguished persons figure in these pages, from Ristori, who has graced the stage of every nation, to Dr. Pantaleoni, the "medico de' forestieri," as Azeglio terms him, at Rome, who is as much identified with Rome as the Colosseum or the Vatican. Like other Piedmontese, Cavour included, Azeglio wrote in French as often as in Italian, but unlike Cavour he wrote gracefully and easily in either tongue. The usefulness of this book would have been greatly enhanced by an index.

A FRENCH REACTIONARY.

L'Évolution politique et la Révolution. Par M. G. de Molinari, Membre Correspondant de l'Institut. Paris: G. Reinwald; New York: F. W. Christern. 1884.

THE great achievements of natural science have followed from experiments of the most abstract and apparently impractical and useless character. Measure the distance, for example, between Franklin's kite-string and key and the latest developments of the telephone and the electric light. So in subjects of the highest importance to man's temporal interests, the organization of government and society, there has been during this century a growing tendency to scientific investigation, carried to the most distant regions of the earth and the remotest periods of antiquity. And though the connection of theory and practice may be less obvious, and it may seem that the blindly conflicting forces are beyond conscious human control, yet if we consider (to take but one instance) how invariably every account of the French Revolution is preceded by a consideration of the writings of Jean Jacques Rousseau, any conscientious and industrious searcher may not unreasonably indulge a hope of exercising some influence upon the future of his country if not of his race.

M. de Molinari is the editor-in-chief of the Paris *Journal des Économistes*, and his studies seem to have taken the same direction as those of his professional fellow, the late Walter Bagehot, of the London *Economist*. But while Mr. Bagehot's book is the best practical text-book on the English Constitution ever written, and is indispensable to every student of politics, it discusses only British institutions, regarding others, and notably those of the United States, only as instruments of comparison; whereas M. de Molinari seeks as the basis of his discussion the fundamental principles of human nature and society. This comes in part, no doubt, from the well-known difference in French practice and modes of thought, but also from the fact that while the English Constitution exhibits a

gradual and more or less steady formation during more than five centuries, the French Revolution, notwithstanding all the efforts which have been made of late years to show that modern French institutions are a development from those of the old régime, did in fact, in a great degree, break with tradition and take its stand upon certain abstract principles of human nature on which its results still turn.

The basis of M. de Molinari's doctrine is very simple. Let nobody imagine for a moment, however, that it consists of the famous French dogma of "liberty, equality, and fraternity." Not the bitterest Tory that followed William Pitt could have held the phrase in more utter detestation. In fact, if we find ourselves wondering how a writer so intelligent and holding such a position can be animated with such reactionary fury, we may remember that during the period of civil conflict from the death of Charles the First to the battle of Culloden, a large and intelligent portion of English society believed that everything which had been done was wrong, and that the country not only ought to, but would, sooner or later, go back to the blessed time of the Stuarts. It needed a century of internal peace to form the average conservative into a being whom the Jacobite of 1745 would probably have regarded as an unprincipled and reckless radical. A half century of a peaceful republic might soften asperities, but at present a large minority, if not more, of intelligent opinion in France is bitterly hostile to everything like popular government.

Beginning with the time when the human race subsisted by hunting and fishing and upon the natural fruits of the earth, our author shows that among the first necessities was that of association in tribes for purposes of defence: externally against wild beasts and poorer and more warlike tribes, and internally against lawlessness and violence; and that every inhabitant might properly share in this, because the industry of government, like all others, had not become specialized, and the community was too poor to maintain a separate establishment. Then follows the period of what he calls the "small industry," when, through agriculture and the beginning of arts, wealth increased and the division of labor began. Occupations were specialized, and among them that of government, which fell into the hands of the strongest and most fitted to conduct it, and these were properly supported by the rest of the community. He argues that wars of conquest, like those of the Franks in Gaul and the Normans in England, were governed by the same principles as commercial enterprises; that by a process of evolution a "House," as in a monarchy, or a "society," as in an aristocracy, came to have possession of the government and ought to have it; that while both forms are liable to abuse of power, the safeguards are first in the interest of the rulers, who, being dependent upon the prosperity of their subjects, are certain to take care of it, and second (though this point is not made very clear), upon public opinion, which, as long as political power or influence was confined to the intelligent classes, was certain to bring about necessary reforms by a process of competition or evolution. This process, M. de Molinari holds, was at work under the French system of the last century, and would have succeeded as in England, if it had not been interrupted by the disastrous and wicked Revolution. There is not one word of the revocation of the edict of Nantes, or the events of the Regency and of the reign of Louis XV., as producing a sulphurous volcano, in which the least stirring of the materials must produce a violent explosion. The evil really consisted in placing power in the hands of an ignorant and vicious multitude, who could not themselves rule, and instead of being paternally protected by their natural and evolved rulers, were "exploited" by political parties and intriguers, so that their last state was worse than the first. It makes one stare to read that the French people were better off a hundred years ago than to-day, and to hear Arthur Young and Voltaire quoted in support of such a proposition. One might make a large discount from M. Taine's account of the "ancien régime"—and he is certainly no friend to popular government—without coming to any such conclusion as that.

Our writer has the courage of his opinions, and does not hesitate to condemn three other great errors of the century—the abolition of the slave trade, the abolition of serfdom in Russia, and land reform in Ireland. He thinks that the needs of modern government are more liberty for the intelligent and enlightened classes and more "tutelage" for the multitude. His ideas on the latter point are typified by his recommendation that the French Government should restore to the Catholic Church, in place of the present annual subvention, a capital sum represented by that amount of income and the real estate, "so far as possible," which it had at the Revolution. Upon the other point his ideas, though perhaps equally practical, are not so clear. He would have society, apparently, carried on by a number of corporations furnishing houses, streets, food, police, security, education, under a system of free competition, and looks with a sort of disdain even upon nationality, and would leave each individual—that is, of the requisite standing in society—free to live under whatever governing corporation suited him best.

We would not be understood as regarding this book with contempt. It may form an excellent mental exercise in connection, say, with the writings of Mr. Henry George. Only the reader of either, if he would not fall into hopeless pessimism, must have his own ideas clear upon certain points. We hear a great deal said about certain classes who, from intelligence, culture, property, birth, etc., are entitled to rule. But we do not learn from history that any such classes have made a special success of ruling: or that the rich and powerful are any less selfish, greedy of wealth and power, short-sighted, cruel, or quarrelsome than the multitude. On the other hand, we think that instances may be found in the last half-century where the national will in the United States, Great Britain, and even in France, as shown by the ballot, has manifested a spirit of the highest generosity, justice, and peace. As the tendency of the civilized world is clearly toward universal suffrage, so there is no reason to despair of the effects of this tendency. Only there is a difference between the disposition of the multitude and the means of putting that disposition into practice. In other words, it is a question of organization. Popular government is as yet but a century old. If it has made many mistakes, and is apparently working its way blindly onward, the part of wisdom is to look for the offset to those mistakes. Nor do we think that a refutation in detail of the book under review would be a matter of insuperable difficulty.

Woods and Lakes of Maine. By Lucius L. Hubbard. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1884.

With the coming of the warm days of the year, certain persons, young and old, feel a turning of the fancy which is not catalogued in the Laureate's list of spring phenomena. An observer who should find one of them taking down gun and rod and examining them with fond criticism would see merely a readiness to replace the amusements of one season with the amusements of another, and might suspect nothing of the passion for the savage life which plays so large a part in the mental make-up of the devotees of the Adirondacks and the Maine woods. To such devotees, and to outsiders who wish to have a look into minds of this kind, Mr. Hubbard's 'Woods and Lakes of Maine' is much to be recommended. The book appeared at Christmas time, and is certainly handsome enough in illustration, printing, and binding for holiday reading. But by a Christmas fireside a house seems after all a better shelter than a tent, while in the new sunshine, or in leafy June, the old preference asserts itself, and the man who is waiting impatiently for the camping months has a ready welcome for such a picture of wood-life as this book affords.

Mr. Hubbard's 'Guide to Moosehead Lake and Northern Maine' (reviewed in No. 895 of the *Nation*) was written as a practical hand-book for campers, and it is very improbable that, since its publication, any man but an Indian or a guide has gone into the woods of the Moosehead region without a copy. The present book has for its purpose a faithful picture of every-day life in the woods, and is founded upon an actual trip from Moosehead to New Brunswick, by way of the Allagash and St. John Rivers, made by the author some years ago. The actors in the narrative are two well-known Indian guides (one of whom has since met a tragic death of a kind befitting a woodsman), Mr. Hubbard himself, and a friend: To this list of *dramatis personæ* one may fairly add a couple of canoes, for, in description and illustration, the canoe takes its true place in this book as a creature intermediate between the woods from which it came and the woodsmen whom it serves. This company of people, moving on from day to day, go through various adventures and various hardships and discomforts. For let it by no means be supposed by the uninitiated that life in a canoe is a luxurious thing. Lukewarm lovers of Nature had better not put themselves into a position in which they may be called upon to admire her on some autumnal morning with the thermometer in the neighborhood of freezing, a fierce sea running, and a frowning sky overhead. There is hardship enough to be faced, and, what is worse, much of it is of a dull kind That steady performance of daily work under no special excitement which life in town calls for is required in quite as high a degree in wood life. The packing up in the morning, interesting enough on the first day, has to be done many a time after it has become a mere task. Long carries and long paddles may bring one belated and weary to the camping ground chosen for the night, but the tent poles and the beds have yet to be cut and the rough ground to be made smooth. Long-drawn-out storms have to be lived through, while every shrub drips and the ground oozes beneath the feet. And, in all weathers, indigestibles have to be digested. It is fortunate that Nature thus guards herself. If she were always sunny and easy-going, her true lovers would have to leave the crowded wilderness and betake themselves to the seclusion of some depopulated Newport or Long Branch.

These harder and duller aspects of the camper's life Mr. Hubbard has interwoven with entertaining stories of adventure. And he has also been true to common experience in assigning a place in the picture to the good-natured grumbler, for there is hardly a camping party that does not contain him. But we confess to finding the real Mr. Taylor, as he betrays himself in the illustrations, a more enjoyable person than the Captain Sartor who replaces him in the

narrative. For, after all, as one looks back upon camping expeditions in after years, it is not the banter and the amusing mishaps of wood life that linger in the mind: it is the memory of the light which never was on sea or land, and yet which surely flashed across the waters as the sun came up one autumn morning, or looked calmly down upon us on some summer night lighted only by the stars and silent except for the slow lap of the water just outside the tent-door, or faced and awed us on some gray day of storm as we sat in the canoe and watched the coming of one great wave after another in which skill alone could live. Something of all this Mr. Hubbard succeeds in conveying. And if he does not wholly satisfy us, it should be said in justice that only a great poet could do so, and that, of all the poets, Emerson alone has done it, whose "Adirondacks" is likely long to remain the one record of camp life to which are added the consecration and the poet's dream. And this brings us again to Mr. Taylor. For Mr. Hubbard's little company afforded him one thing which even Emerson, in all his band of "scholars furloughed from their tasks," did not have at his service—a man who could render with the brush what he saw. Mr. Taylor's illustrations have made all lovers of canoe life his debtors. His sketches of the small typical incidents of camping are touched with a quiet humor and a keen sense of the picturesque, as, for example, "Lunch by the Way," "Bound for Mud Pond," "The Social Hour"; while the imaginative qualities of a few of the smaller pictures fairly go to the canoe-man's heart. The excellent drawing of the canoe itself, which conveys not only the obvious lines of the craft but that strange consciousness of its own physique and power which a fine specimen seems to have, is but a small part of the whole effect. In "Ready for the Start," Mr. Taylor has contrived to suggest the vague possibility of discovery which makes every new day of canoeing a voyage of adventure. "Up the Umbazookskus" has much of the dreamy desolation of the real place. "Among the Whitecaps" is full of the delight of steady pulse and strong arm in the midst of danger. And the charming thing in these sketches is that there is in no one of them any pressing of the point to be made, whether that point be the sentiment of a landscape or the humor of a situation. In "The Social Hour," for example, the rich enjoyment of the four men in their weary abandonment to the delights of rest and tobacco makes itself felt through faces of perfect gravity.

At Home in Italy. By Mrs. E. D. R. Bianciardi. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THE question of residence abroad, more or less permanently, becomes every day one of greater importance to Americans who are not well constituted to resist the peculiarities of our climate or social organization, and who have the means of escaping from the conditions of bread-winning on this side of the Atlantic. The refugees from the irreconcilable conditions of existence here who can adapt themselves to those of English life will always find in our mother-country a general *bien-être* which is unattainable in any other foreign land, and this not merely from the fact that the elements of material comfort are better provided, but because, except in England and Germany, no genuine hospitality toward a foreigner is to be found. "The guest is an enemy" is an adage generally true in Southern Europe. Only Italians who have lived in England have learned to look at a stranger as an object of welcome; in France there is less chronic aversion, but equally settled contempt, for all comers of alien race. Wherever, in fact, throughout all Southern Europe the foreigner does not meet with the cultivation and enlightened interest which come from intellectual sympathy, he is accepted for what can be made out of him. France is a great *auberge*, Italy a collective *locanda*; in the other countries foreigners are sent by the grace of the gods to be plundered. Occasional exceptions of hospitable, eccentric, and honest inn-keepers do not invalidate the rule.

In no country, however, speaking generally, is there so strong an antipathy to the foreigner as in Italy. The lower classes regard him as booty, as the wreckers on certain coasts do ships; the proprietary class with envy and antipathy, mitigated when they have villas to let, bric-à-brac to sell, or a hope of making money out of him in any other way; but at the bottom the typical Italian regards foreigners as people who come into the country simply to raise the prices of everything and insult the antique dignity of the heirs of the Roman civilization with suggestions of progress according to Western methods. An American resident in Florence was one day urging on an eminent Florentine, a Senator of the kingdom, the reformation of the drainage of the city, and at the end of his plea, the Senator, breaking into sudden irritation, replied, "We have been civilized twenty-five centuries, and don't need any of your Western teaching." There is no municipality in Italy which has considered it to its interest to make its regulations such as to render the residence of a foreigner more safe or more attractive. The Italian climate is one of the most salubrious in Europe. With the exception of the great marshy districts, the deserted plains of the Roman Campagna, and the Maremme and rice country of Lombardy, there is no district where the natural sanitary conditions are not more favorable than in our Hudson, Potomac, Mississippi, and other Southern valleys. The Campagna malaria, and that of the Maremme, terrible as they are in their rapidity and mortality, do not, to any extent, menace the health of the visitor, who need never enter those deadly districts; and should curiosity tempt him to go there, in certain seasons they are safe. The cities are pestilential solely from neglect of the same sanitary precautions which are required in London and New York, and they are worse than those cities only because they are more filthy. Florence, for instance, which might be made the most salubrious city in Italy, since there is absolutely no Campagna malaria in its neighborhood, has become by its wretched drainage the second in the death rate of all Italian cities, and bids fair to surpass Naples, which now heads the list. The drainage of Florence is in fact of the very worst type, and it is dangerous for a resident to denounce it on account of the personal hostility provoked by any declaration which would tend to keep away the visitors who, since the capital was removed to Rome, are the main resources of the city.

This topic Mrs. Bianciardi has not done justice to in her book. She says simply: "But without reference to the filthy condition of many of the great cities, all Italy is more or less malarious, and no motives of convenience should induce travellers to choose the lower stories of buildings for their habitation. It is better for an invalid to be always carried up and down stairs than to sleep on the lower floors. One is an inconvenience, the other a positive danger." Now this is utterly misleading. The lower stories, especially in Florence, are not more likely to produce fever than the upper, except as they are nearer the cesspools under the house, which, often leaky, rarely emptied properly, and always the source of the typhoidal and typhoid fevers, make three out of four houses in the city dangerous for people who are susceptible to malaria arising from this source. Mrs. Bianciardi, it is true, says that "the houses being mostly built around a court, it is of the utmost importance to know what are the ideas of the proprietor as to sanitary regulations; whether the drains are kept in good order, and the wells cleaned every year, and no nuisances allowed." But the drains are seldom kept in order, the wells are *never* cleaned (Mrs. Bianciardi perhaps means by wells the cesspools, which the Italians call "pozzi neri," to distinguish them from "pozzi," cisterns *or* wells), and the cesspools, although they may be cleaned once a year, are usually neglected until they become full and absolutely offensive; it must be added, too, that as the well of water for domestic purposes is generally in the court in the centre of the house, the cesspools in general drain more or less into the well. The "ideas of the proprietor as to sanitary regulations" are commonly that anything is good enough for foreigners, and that if they don't like things as they are, they may go elsewhere. Rome is improving in this respect, and is far more healthy than under the popes; but Florence has taken the place of the former as a sickly city, so that people who contract fevers in Rome or Naples and go to Florence to recuperate, often get into a house where the Florentine malaria finishes the work which the Roman fever began. The death is credited to Naples or Rome, but the chances are that the patient would have recovered in Rome, and had he gone to Albano or Ariccia, near by, would almost certainly have done so, at least if he were well enough to endure a journey as far as Florence at all. Mrs. Bianciardi, it should be said, does caution invalids against coming to Italy; but her warning is not sufficiently definite and frank.

With these qualifications, her little book will be a real help to ladies who intend spending a winter in Italy, and possibly to gentlemen also. The remarks in which she points out the folly and dangers of sending young girls to Italy alone are worth reading and pondering on; for the authoress speaks as a true matron. The chapter, "Italy as a Residence," is full of useful conclusions, the result of long experience, and that on "A Florentine Family in the Fifteenth Century" is interesting, and deals with material new to our general literature—the letters of Allessandra Macinghi, widow of Matteo and mother of Filippo Strozzi; but the chapters of travel read like compilations of a guide-book. Mrs. Bianciardi sees nothing new, and does not even describe well what is old; nor is she always accurate in her statements. She speaks of Vallombrosa as an agricultural school, although the sign on the converted convent shows it to be a *forestal* school, as the immense plantation of firs around might also have shown, and she cites Perugia as free from malarial influences, while, in fact, it is only so under certain conditions. When the wind blows from the marshy country, Perugians stay within doors if they can. There are blemishes of style, too, as when she describes the works of Perugino, Guido Reni, Alfani (*sic*), etc., as being "congregated" on the walls of San Pietro.

Account of the Operations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India. Volume IX. 1883.

THIS volume contains an account of the longitude operations of the Survey, carried on during the seasons of 1875–77 and 1880–81 by Captains Campbell and Heaviside, Royal Engineers. These operations were begun in 1872–73, but the work

done in those years was mostly of an experimental kind, and the results obtained were not considered satisfactory. As in the former volumes of this series, which contain the work of other branches of the Survey, all the arrangements and methods, as well as the observations, are given with a great deal of detail; and the reader will find that in the plans of operations, as well as in the methods by which they were carried out, there is much that is new and original, and many suggestions which could be adopted with advantage by the geodesian and practical astronomer. Among these may be mentioned the plan of choosing longitude stations so as to form a network of triangles, by which method an excellent check on the entire series of operations is obtained, since the longitude of any particular station may be derived, both directly and indirectly, through one or several intermediate stations.

In the operations to connect Bombay with Suez, via Aden, by means of the submarine cables, and then to refer the Indian longitudes directly to Greenwich (since the difference of longitude between Greenwich and Suez has been very carefully determined) the difficulties which arose in the way of transmitting the clock signals through the cables were successfully met and combated by means of an ingenious method devised by Captain Campbell, by which the signals could be transmitted and automatically registered without putting any more strain on the cables than was usual in the ordinary course of commercial business. Especial pains also were taken in regard to that factor which is so troublesome in longitude operations, namely, personal equation. An apparatus was constructed, called an "idiometer," by means of which each observer determined his *absolute* personal equation on every observing night. Nevertheless, the observers did not neglect the ordinary precaution of determining their *relative* personal equation.

To an American, trained in the methods of the Coast Survey and the United States engineers, the instrumental equipment and methods, both of observation and reduction, of the Indian officers seem unnecessarily cumbrous. Fixed-transit instruments of five inches aperture, clocks and chronographs of the largest and most complicated pattern, do not seem preferable to light portable instruments, chronometers, and small, easily-managed chronographs. Nor can the results of these Indian measurements be quoted to justify the establishment of a *fixed* observatory at every station. The work of the longitude campaigns is not up to the standard of the work done on the other branches of the Survey, and much of the error which manifests itself in the final results is undoubtedly due to the exceedingly cumbrous and complicated methods of making the telegraphic connections between two stations.

The method of observation which was adopted was that called in this country the method of "star signals," in which the same stars are observed at both stations and their transits over the respective meridians are recorded on the chronographs at *both* stations. From long experience, American astronomers have concluded that this method does not yield as good results as the determination of the difference of local times by means of the clock signals alone, and on our surveys it has long since fallen out of use.

The reader of the volume under discussion is forced to the conclusion that all the efforts made and pains taken by the Indian officers in regard to small sources of error, such as personal equation, retardation of signals through relays, and so forth, were unfortunately vitiated by the adoption of methods for carrying out their measurement which were not susceptible of the highest order of accuracy; for the results obtained do not compare favorably with some of the latest longitude measurements of the United States Coast and Lake Surveys. That the Indian officers themselves were not satisfied with their work may be judged from the fact that they have given no discussion of the probable errors of their results, simply contenting themselves with the remark that the mathematician who uses these will probably prefer to compute the probable errors for himself. Notwithstanding their limited accuracy, however, these arcs of the parallel will add a great deal to our knowledge of the figure of the earth.

Ralph Waldo Emerson: An Essay. By John Morley. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

It is somewhat singular that the most intelligent praise of Emerson and the most just corrections of it should come from foreigners. In spite of the discontent which was vented when Mr. Arnold delivered what was thought his iconoclastic lecture, he really expressed a portion of American opinion; and now that Mr. Morley's essay is issued in this country, the same Americans who tacitly supported Arnold will find in it an echo of their own judgment. Mr. Morley, like Mr. Arnold, has felt Emerson's influence strongly, and he, too, must dissent from the inconsiderate eulogy of the true disciples; but when it is recollected that he has felt so much more keenly the influence of the French philosophers of the last century and the pessimists of the present, one can only wonder at the literary skill (far more dexterous than Mr. Arnold's) with which he has introduced his dissent, and admire the temper of it. Indeed, Mr. Morley has never done a finer piece of work in the way of mere craftsmanship than this brief essay, whether its construction or its effect on the mind be looked at. He has presented Emerson with all his attractive and regenerative qualities, and at the same time has noticed his deficiencies in one and another way so lucidly that even to the devotee they will not seem to blur his fame.

The one quality in which Emerson's excellence most resided was his sanity, and this appeals to his English critic with great force. Mr. Morley's mind has just that political character which allows one to understand the difficulty of Emerson's position as the high priest of a group of very queer people. Emerson had giddy work, he says, but he kept his head; and this wins respect from a practical man who is also zealous for reform. For the "queer people," on the contrary, Mr. Morley has slight regard. What he says of Thoreau is indicative of his attitude toward all of them:

"If he had not written some things with considerable charm of style, Thoreau might have been wisely neglected as one of the crazy. . . . The world has room for every type, so that it be not actively noxious, and this whimsical egotist may well have his place in the catalogue. He was, after all, in his life only a compendium, on a scale large enough to show their absurdity, of all those unsocial notions which Emerson in other manifestations found it needful to rebuke. Yet we may agree that many of his paradoxes strike home with Socratic force to the heart of a civilization that wise men know to be too purely material, too artificial, and too capriciously diffused."

The whole subject of the "midsummer madness" that environed Emerson is summed up, so far as this critic sees it, in the pleasantry of his remarks on the *Dial* and its editor:

"Emerson's name has reflected lustre on the *Dial*, but when his contributions are taken out, and, say half-a-dozen besides, the residuum is in the main very poor stuff, and some of it has a droll resemblance to the talk between Mrs. Hominy and the literary ladies and the Honorable Elijah Pogram. Margaret Fuller—the Miranda, Zenobia, Hypatia, Minerva of her time, and a truly remarkable figure in the gallery of wonderful women—edited it for two years, and contributed many a vivid, dashing, exuberant, ebullient page. Her criticism of Goethe, for example, contains no final or valid word, but it is fresh, cordial, and frank, and no other prose contributor, again saving the one great name, has anything to say that is so readable. Nearly all the rest is extinct, and the *Dial* now finds itself far away from the sunshine of human interest."

If we keep in mind Emerson's bearing among those who made up the constituency of the *Dial*, his insistence on the need of temperance in all opinions and of a constant reference to the actual state of established society, Mr. Morley seems only following the example of his hero even when making his sharpest deductions from the meed of praise. In the very mould of his thoughts are signs of the intimate influence arising from the recent study of Emerson; some phrases—as where he says that to Emerson books were "for spiritual use, like maps and charts of the mind of man," or remarks of the small Transcendentalist, "his landscapes are all horizons"—have the stamp royal of his master; but even when the author's criticism grows most keen and penetrating he does not seem to break his previous sympathetic relation with his subject—on the contrary, he merely affords a striking instance of that sanity or moderation which, as has been said, was Emerson's saving trait. There has been no more comprehensive criticism of Emerson's poems than this: "They are the outcome of a discontent with prose"; although it is justly added that this description does not include all the verses. The fact is that although Emerson occasionally exhibited the high qualities of pure imagination, giving to the purity of classic form the touch of modern sentiment and the glow of modern color, as for example in the often quoted lines—

> "O tenderly the haughty day
> Fills his blue urn with fire";

yet more often his most effective poetry is truth made crystalline, and this not for the sake of beauty primarily, but for its own sake. If one may say so, this is a sort of æsthetics of the intellect; it springs from a discontent with prose, it is true, and is more closely related to the literary faculty than to the purely poetic, but it also owes something to the mind's yearning for truth, as other forms of poetry have their sources in other aspirations. This phase of the matter Mr. Morley seems to have neglected. There is an inspiration of the moral sense that results in poetry as in the Scriptures, and there is, too, an enthusiasm of the intellect that can reach the same height; it is in these regions of emotion that Emerson's verse belongs. In other words, he is more prophet than poet, more Oriental than Greek, and consequently the comparison made by Mr. Morley between his work and that of modern English poets merely has too narrow a basis for just reckoning. At present Emerson's poetry is condemned beforehand in a doctrinaire way because it is at variance with ruling canons; it must wait a long while in order to be accepted under that name.

The stress of Mr. Morley's criticism, however, is not literary, but moral. At certain points of great importance no currents of sympathy can pass between his mind and Emerson's. It is with the conviction of an opponent that he points out the mysticism of his hero and its unsatisfactoriness, his predetermined optimism and its insufficiency. "The sombre melancholy, the savage moral indignation, the passionate intellectual scorn, with which life and the universe have filled strong souls, some with one emotion and some with another, were all to Emerson in his habitual thinking un-

intelligible and remote." This neglect of a large part of life, this wilful blindness to the evil, the ugly, and the cruel, is the one great limitation to the healthfulness of Emerson's influence on which Mr. Morley insists. On the other hand, Emerson was thus enabled to make himself an ideal of serenity in the midst of a fevered and anxious intellectual life. As such he is here presented with wonderful completeness, by the biographical, philosophical, and critical methods, so blended and related one to another as to give a various yet consistent impression.

Popular Songs and Legends of France. Die Französische Volksdichtung und Sage. Von Dr. W. Scheffler. Leipzig. 1884.

THE study of popular poetry, as has been well said by Schuré, is not simply the satisfaction of an idle curiosity: it is a study which enlarges the borders of one's sympathies and brings one intellectually in contact with the broad spirit of humanity. Herder, that wonderfully acute observer, was one of the first to see the importance of the study, and in his *Stimmen der Völker* he gave eloquent and comprehensive testimony to his individual beliefs and labors in this direction. The importance, indeed, of the subject is seen in the recovery and reconstitution of that amazing work, the Finnish Kalevala, one of the most remarkable monuments of the spiritual life of a whole people, snatched as by a miracle, almost within our own generation, from the lips of the people where it was perishing, and rehabilitated —reincarnated, one might say—by the efforts of a single lover of old songs. Béranger's well-known saying, *Mes chansons c'est moi*, is no less true of the individual than of a whole nation: the song is the nation, the nation is the song; each reflects and reacts on the other; the rivulet of melody that meanders slenderly through the one is the ultimate component of the complex and varied harmonies that stir in the other. In France this is particularly so; and nowhere is a study of popular life as revealed in the *chanson*, in the *poésie rustique*, more abundantly rewarded than in the rich and numerous collections which, during the last fifty years, have been made in France and Germany of these invaluable materials for the social history of old and young French life.

Herder gave the first shock to the electric chain, the first impulse to gather in this province, by the insertion of a few French songs in his collection. He was followed by that most delightful of ballad writers, Uhland, who in his turn was succeeded by a busy multitude, including Wolff, Moriz Haupt, Adolf Tobler, and Karl Bartsch, all of whom concerned themselves chiefly with the *lieder* and *pastourelles*, the ballads and compositions of the past. Paul Lindau, R. Köhler, and Charles Marelle are the scholars in Germany to whom the present age is specially indebted for its increasing interest in the many-sided modern development of French song and saga. Nobody can read the poems of Goethe without being struck by the penetrating tones, the lingering and melodious influences, the naïve and tender spirit which he has incorporated in them, in sublimated and etherealized form, from the old German ballads first taught him by his friend Herder; and in Arnim and Brentano, in Simrock, Scherer, and Heine, both as collectors and as original poets, the same far-reaching passion was kindled and perpetuated.

In France, Montaigne was specially potent in drawing attention to the deep and soulful character of the popular poetry; and every one knows what inimitable snatches of it bubble and sparkle up between the lines of Molière's comedies. Villemarqué, however, was the Brothers Grimm of France, the rescuer of innumerable songs that but for him might have perished forever. Émile Souvestre, the most graceful of Breton writers, and George Sand showed in their delineations of Brittany and Berry how intimately interwoven with the very texture of the national life was the *historiette* in verse and the *chanson;* and in 1852 Napoleon III. signed a decree directing a comprehensive collection of the poetic waifs and strays with which the empire literally swarmed. The *Knaben-Wunderhorn* was found to be as rich in good things on one side of the Rhine as on the other; and from that day to this hardly a season passes without a volume full of bright and winning and characteristic things from Gascony, Provence, the Bordelais, Normandy, or the northeast.

Doctor Scheffler, in his excellent and exhaustive book, writes in a German style that is very easy and very pleasant to read, because he writes from a full command of his subject, and knows how to leave the rubbish conscientiously to one side. His collection of French songs on all imaginable subjects might be recommended with advantage to the nerve-sick Hugoized school of Gallic poets, with their *esprit*, their declamation, their artificiality, their *angekränkelt* pulings; and contact with it, Antæus-like, might restore their vitality and give them a freshness which they have altogether lost. Under the rubrics *Liebeslust, Liebesleid, Verlöbniss, Hochzeitstag und -Brauch, Ehelieder, Kinder- und Rondellieder*, and *Das Festliche Jahr*, he gives us a world of graceful, piquant, and touching things, replete with the intimate life of contemporary France in the provinces, and abounding in vivid and diverse national traits. After reading such a collection, one can well understand how Goethe and Uhland both drank deep of the fountains of French song, and how Gretchen in her madness sings a refrain which came unmistakably from the French. The upper classes had their *poème chevaleresque*, the intermediate class had its *fabliaux*, but it was only the lower class that had the multifold and immortal *chanson* in which the throb of the universal heart was heard, in which the pleasure and the pain, the joy and the sorrow, the wooing, the wedding, the wedded life, the festal year, the chamber of death, the bier, and the grave itself were pictured, poetized, commemorated, sung.

Chapters in Popular Natural History. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart. Thomas Whittaker. 1884. Pp. 223.

ANY one already interested in the subjects of this little volume can scarcely fail to find it delightful reading, and those whose interest in these things needs to be awakened may profit by it also, though in less degree. Essentially "popular" in the simplicity of the form and character of its statements, it yet takes for granted a certain amount of information, and passes from one point to another with the utmost directness, and without thinking it necessary to indicate the path. There is little narrative, but such as there is—the occasional paragraph or page of "story," of *history* of ants, bees, or wasps—is of admirable quality, and as one reads one exclaims with La Fontaine:

> "Qu'on m'aille soutenir, après un tel récit,
> Que les bêtes n'ont point d'esprit."

These passages in themselves, in what they state and prove, are of great interest, and the interest is doubled by the illustrations they afford of Sir John Lubbock's well-known ability in experimentation. His brilliant ingenuity, his indomitable patience, and his success in this department of investigation frequently bring to mind his scientific kinship with Mr. Darwin. There is also a constant charm in the accuracy of his own observations and those which he uses of others, with regard especially to what he justly calls the "beautiful contrivances" of nature, and the evidences of the infinite interaction of all forms of life, and the "almost infinite variety of the problems they present to us."

But, as should always emphatically be the case in a work for popular use—and yet it is the very excellence in which so many of them fail—the large outlines are impressed on the reader's intelligence more than the details. But this has the air of being done almost without conscious purpose; it is only that these large outlines—the mountain ranges of *truths*—are not obscured by the mists of *facts*. The study of this volume would not go far to qualify one to become a teacher of its topics; but in treating of these topics it suggests innumerable regions for original contemplation and personal investigation.

With the first page one enters that world of sentient existence which lies in closest juxtaposition with the world of men—that visible, yet by most of us, that unobserved world of inconceivably multitudinous myriads in which each tiny organization is—can it be denied?—a *being*, an intelligence, an individual. If in certain aspects, not of this observable world of insects, but of the unknown universe, we do deny and must deny this intelligence, this individuality, in such moments of scepticism and denial it is scarcely to these, our fellow-creatures, alone that we refuse these attributes. And nowhere more than in Sir John Lubbock's pages is the conviction forced upon one that to be an ant, a bee, or a wasp is by no means, in the visible relations to the universe, a very unlike thing to being a man. With Marcus Aurelius we say: Dost thou not see the little plants, the little birds, the ants, the spiders, the bees working together to put in order their several parts of the universe?

The "little birds" have not come within the range of any observations Sir John Lubbock has communicated to the public; but the "little plants" have received for a long time attention from him; and the chapters in the present volume on flowers in relation to their fertilization by insects, and on insect-eating plants, and on the means of dispersion of seeds, are only less interesting than those on the "ways" of ants, bees, and wasps, and the colors of caterpillars and other animals.

Ueber die Musik der Nordamerikanischen Wilden. Von Theodore Baker. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. Pp. 82.

A FEW summers ago Mr. Theodore Baker made a visit to the Seneca Indians in the western part of this State for the purpo e of making scientific observations on the peculiarities of their vocal and instrumental music. The results he embodied in a dissertation which secured him the doctor's degree at the University of Leipzig. Mr. Baker is a thorough master of the intricacies of musical theory, as his pamphlet shows on every page. It is not intelligible to a wide circle of readers, and it would be useless to attempt to give a summary of its contents without a resort to musical notation. A few of the general results may be briefly mentioned. He found that in general the quality of voice of the average Indian was as agreeable as that of the average white man, while some had genuinely soft and pleasing voices. The average compass of the voices is two octaves. A high baritone prevails, and the author heard no one who was not able to easily produce the tenor *f'* For accelerando and ritardando and for dynamic *nuances* the Indians had no regard. Most of the songs are sung in unison; in exceptional cases no evidence is given of a sure harmonic feeling. The notion is refuted that our musical

notation is inadequate for an accurate reproduction of the Indian melodies, and that the scales may be compared in number and relation of intervals to the Persian and Indian, although in calling the latter "theoretisch-pedantisch" Mr. Baker does not show so liberal a sense as Helmholtz. In regard to the question whether among the Indians recitative or regular rhythmic song came first, Mr. Baker sides with those who believe the latter, one of the reasons being that recitative is not so well adapted for singing in unison, the common form. An interesting account is given of various customs of the Indians in connection with their musical performances. A paragraph is devoted to a description of the musical instruments used by the Indians, and the appendix contains a large number of illustrations in musical type.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anstey, F. The Giant's Robe. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Bain, Alex. Practical Essays. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Bastian, Adolph. Allgemeine Grundzüge der Ethnologie. Berlin: Reimer & Hoefer. 1884.
Davis, C. K. The Law in Shakespeare. Second Edition. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Henry, D., Jr. Under a Foolscap. Songs. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
Jones, Dr. C. J. From the Forecastle to the Pulpit. Fifty Years among Sailors. N. Tibbals & Son.
Rice, Allen T. The North American Review. Vol. CXXXVIII.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
HENRY HOLT & Co., N. Y.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 19, 1884.

The Week.

MR. TILDEN'S letter is what everybody, who knew anything about his physical condition during the last three or four years, knew must come sooner or later. The talk of him as a candidate in which the newspapers, both Republican and Democratic, have been in the habit of indulging for some time, we have always regarded simply as a sign of a scarcity of topics. The conflicting reports about his health and strength it is difficult to account for, except by ascribing them to the ordinary play of the human fancy around an interesting subject of which but very few knew anything whatever. For several years Mr. Tilden has not been a gentleman whom any party could seriously present in the flesh to the voters of this country. It was, therefore, really in a spiritual and ideal sense that he was discussed. He has been in his own eyes and those of the Democratic rank and file, ever since 1876, a martyr to whom the party owed something by way of reparation, and the reparation has apparently consisted in discussions of his fitness. The letter in which he announces positively and definitively his retirement from the political field, is marked by great dignity and some not wholly unmerited self-praise. He did in his time a good deal for reform as Governor of this State, but he did it in his own way, and his own way of doing even good things is such as to cause those who are not familiar with it to look on his designs with great suspicion. He has always, in seeking even the noblest ends, preferred secrecy to openness, indirectness to directness, the crooked to the straight road, the whisper to the loud voice, and the result has been a reputation which is probably far below his merits as a statesman. The way in which he lost the Presidency in 1876 would doubtless have given him a strong and permanent hold on the sympathy of large numbers outside his own party but for the discovery that his friends had been fighting the devil with fire on his behalf and apparently with his connivance. The South Carolina cipher despatches and the Oregon negotiations were a dreadful episode in the history of a martyr, and must always rob Mr. Tilden's rôle in the contest of 1876 of the impressiveness and solemnity with which he not unnaturally wishes to surround it in the eyes of posterity.

His withdrawal of course leaves the field clear for the rapid development of the other booms, on which the talk about his candidacy has naturally exerted a blighting influence. The *Sun*, however, exhorts the promoters of these booms in what must be considered a dark and confusing manner. In one column the Democrats are reminded that they must "depend on themselves," inasmuch as the Republican dissatisfaction with the Blaine nomination, promising as it now seems, may die out, or lead to no practical result at the polls. In another column, however, it declares the question how the Democrats can best turn this Republican dissatisfaction with Blaine to account in making their own nomination to be "the most important question, perhaps." The Republican objection to Mr. Blaine, it says, is that he is a "corrupt politician, representative of all the political demoralization of a corrupted and debauched party," and that he "is also of a sensational and erratic turn of mind, unscrupulous as to his methods and uncertain as to his action." This is correct, and the way for the Democrats to turn it to account is to nominate a man who has given proof that he will be a pure and efficient administrator, whom the corrupt and debauched element in his party cannot influence or control, and that he will be sober-minded, scrupulous, and conscientious in his official action, and that everybody, both good and bad, will always know where to find him. But the assurances of party organs, however solemn and energetic, will not be accepted as such proof.

The Roswell Pettabone Flower boom will probably be seriously damaged by Mr. Tilden's letter. That his nomination will be demanded later in the National Democratic Convention by the loud acclaim of sovereign States as the "heir" of Mr. Tilden is improbable. He resembles that astute politician and sage in only one particular. He has a good deal of money, but even in this there is a difference, for he does not dislike spending it. He has no knowledge of the art of government, no training in law, letters, or any branch of knowledge, and his record in Congress is a complete blank. His qualifications for the Presidency are said to be that he began as a "poor boy," was then clerk in a store at $5 a month, worked in a brick yard, sawed wood, turned jeweller, and finally developed into a "financier," a broker and banker, and so became rich. This is not the kind of man for the Democrats to beat Jim Blaine with. He defeated Astor in a Republican district for Congress, because Astor had earned the ill will of the Republicans; but Jim is a harder man to beat than Astor.

The latest accounts from Saratoga confirm the view hitherto expressed in these columns that the Flower boom is made up by a union of those delegates who are in some cases Flower men in the sense of desiring the nomination of Mr. Flower for President, but who in most cases merely use his name as a cover for a fight against good government. There is probably not a jobber, nor a corruptionist, nor an office-broker, nor a dealer in votes, who is not counted as being for Flower, though some of them are, most unfortunately, masquerading as Bayard men. What Tammany Hall, and John Kelly, and all the Kellyites dread is Cleveland, as a man who does his duty and makes no deals or bargains, and it would suit their cards very well if they could divide the State between Bayard, Flower, and other candidates, so that the great enemy of their schemes might bite the dust. The plunder of New York is their business, and it would be no small aid to the party of reform and good government all over the country if the campaign should shape itself so that every vote cast for Cleveland should be a deadly stab at Kelly and his gang.

The Boston call for a meeting of Independents to protest against the Chicago nominations was all the more significant because it was couched in guarded language. It did not promise the Democrats that the signers would bolt the Republican nominees and vote the Democratic ticket; it merely called for a conference of all who think that the nominations ought not to be supported "in any contingency that now seems likely to arise." This call received at once fifteen hundred signatures, and it is these names which tell the story of the movement. In that part of the country from which the popular demand for Mr. Blaine's nomination came they are not so well known as they are in the East; in fact, it is Mr. Blaine and Mr. Blaine's friends and acquaintances at home in Maine who will probably be most struck by them. They are the names of the men who in Boston have best represented the conscience and intelligence of the Republican vote of Massachusetts for the past twenty-five years, and whose secession from the party means in that State its death. They are the names of men whose fortunes and affections have been bound up with the party for a generation; of men who would never leave it while alive except from being forced by what they believe to be their duty to do so, and who now threaten to do it unwillingly, reluctantly, and with many a pang of regret. They are the men who poured out their money and blood to save the Union; and the Republican party means to them country, honor, reputation, the sacrifice of their very flesh and blood, the glorious echo of historic victories, the tender memories of friends and kinsmen, who gave up their lives for the sake of justice and right. They are not men to whom the principles of the Democratic party have ever been attractive, and they have looked forward for a long time, with a feeling almost like dread, to the necessity that might be forced upon them of going over to it. Most of them would probably prefer to vote for a hopeless Independent ticket if such a course should become possible.

The drift of opinion at the Independent conference here on Tuesday was clearly adverse to the plan of putting a third ticket in the field, provided the Democrats make an acceptable nomination. What would be an acceptable nomination was indicated with sufficient distinctness by those who addressed the meeting, and by the favor with which their remarks were received. Governor Cleveland and Senator Bayard were the only names mentioned at the meeting, although others were included in the phrase "any unobjectionable nomination." Governor Cleveland was the preference of most of the gentle-

men present. Senator Bayard was the first choice of the minority, but either of these would be acceptable to the Independents as represented at the conference. The chance of an objectionable nomination was fully taken into account and duly provided for. In that event there was no division of sentiment as to the expediency and necessity of nominating a third ticket; and whether the Democratic nomination be acceptable or otherwise, there was entire unanimity in the opinion that an organization must be effected and a new convention or conference called after the Democrats shall have made their nominations, in order to give authoritative expression to the Independent opinion of the country, and to furnish a rallying point. The meeting was imbued with the spirit which precedes and ushers in great political changes.

The nomination of Mr. Blaine affects in more ways that one the Butler boom, and will compel the gallant old Massachusetts reformer to overhaul it carefully if he expects to be able to get it to Chicago in a marketable condition. His original intention, according to a widespread belief among conservative Democrats, was to capture the nomination for the Presidency. Going to Chicago as the favorite son of Massachusetts, and as the only man capable of pulling the party through an election in that State, and armed with the Anti-Monopoly, Greenback, and Labor Reform nominations, and threatening to set up an independent third party, if not a fourth and fifth also, for himself, he expected to be able to convince the Democrats that if they wanted a really popular candidate, he was the man. Failing that, he would make a bargain in which, in consideration of his hearty support of some one else in the national field, and especially in Massachusetts (where he would probably make everything sure by running for Governor), he would obtain "recognition" from the next administration, or or in other words a place in the Cabinet. The defection of the anti-Blaine Republicans, however, and especially their intention of supporting any respectable candidate the Democrats may nominate, but no other, upsets all these calculations, because it happens that the promised accession to the Democratic ranks is not only anti-Blaine, but is anti-Butler also. Few of those Republicans who hint that they want to vote against Blaine because he fails to represent the "reform spirit," want to vote for Butler, or to help Butler—in fact, to them Butler, though, according to his own professions, the greatest reformer of the day, is no better than an inflationist and a demagogue.

This is especially true in Massachusetts, where the old anti-Butler Republicans are just those who are now anti-Blaine Republicans. They drove Butler out of the party because they thought he failed to represent the reform spirit properly, or to come up to the standard required of our public men. This puts General Butler's position as a favorite son in some doubt. A Democratic candidate may perhaps carry Massachusetts this year; but it will be very dangerous to put up Butler, for that would disgust the anti-Blaine Independents. On the other hand, if General Butler endeavors to make a deal with his State, his carrying the State by running for Governor would be very doubtful, for many of the anti-Blaine Independents who would vote for a Democrat for President would be likely to vote against the General for Governor. His plan, therefore, of marketing his strength in the Convention is seriously embarrassed by the fact that the Independents hold the balance of power. General Butler, in order to meet the occasion, must once more reckon with the reform spirit, and he can only conciliate this by dropping many of the kind friends with whose votes he has set up shop, and a large number of his own so-called "principles." This he cannot do without losing strength to a degree which the ordinary rules of politics utterly forbid. What he will do with his boom under these circumstances remains to be seen.

General Butler arrived in town on Monday and promptly "interviewed" himself on the political questions of the day. The result appears in precisely the same language in several of the morning papers. He thinks Blaine's nomination is the strongest which could have been made; that the Independent revolt in Massachusetts is of small account; that Cleveland will be a weak candidate for the Democrats, because he vetoed the Five-Cent Fare Bill, and approved the measure which deprived the Aldermen of their confirming powers; that Blaine is a protectionist, and everybody knows that tariff defeated Hancock; finally, that it will not do for the Democrats to be defeated this year, for if they are it will be the end of them, and a new party, a "true Democracy," will arise from the débris of the old parties, and march to victory because it will form no entangling alliances with the "Mammon of unrighteousness." It will be seen that Butler stands squarely on Tammany's platform so far as New York issues are concerned. He mentions no candidate who is equal to the demands of the occasion, but there are symptoms that he would do so under pressure.

The Chicago *Tribune* and some other papers are republishing from *Harper's Weekly* of May 23, 1876, what they call a vindication of Mr. Blaine against the charges of the "syndicate of editors," who had accused him of receiving $64,000 from the Union Pacific Railroad Co. The editor of the Chicago *Tribune* having been a member of the syndicate, and having remained unconvinced of the falsity of the charge until Mr. Wm. Walter Phelps kindly explained it away a few weeks ago, naturally seizes with eagerness and without much discrimination anything which looks like a vindication. He does not observe that the so-called vindication in *Harper's Weekly* was published before the Mulligan letters came out, and that it was based for the most part upon Mr. Blaine's denial of the charge, which was subsequently shown to be at variance with the facts, at variance with Mulligan's testimony, and at variance with at least one of his own letters.

The National Bank of Commerce, of Cleveland, was found last week to be $100,000 "short." The deficiency was explained by Mr. Stanley, the paying teller, who said that he had lost the money through the decline in wheat. Whenever a bank loses money in this way there is always some strange story about the last investigation made by the Bank Examiner. In this case the story is stranger than usual. Mr. Ellis, it is said, actually found a deficiency of $15,000, and asked Stanley where the money was. "Here it is," said Stanley, "in gold, in this bag," handing Mr. Ellis a heavy bag. On what little things the fate of banks depends. If it had occurred to Mr. Ellis to count the money, or even to look into the bag, he would have discovered that it contained silver and that Mr. Stanley had told a falsehood. Investigation would have followed, his speculations in wheat stopped, and the bank would have been saved. It seems to us either that the bank examiners ought to verify statements made to them as to the contents of bags supposed to contain bank assets, or else the Government ought to make the depositors good in any case.

The fate of the Shipping Bill in Congress depends upon the disposition made of the clause relating to free ships—that is, to the admission of foreign-built steamers of a high class to American registry, and that relating to ocean mail subsidies. The free-ship clause was adopted by a very decisive majority in the House and was rejected by a very meagre majority in the Senate. It is stubbornly opposed by the protectionists, who are all the time making a great noise about the scarcity of the American flag on the high seas, but are shocked at the proposition of Mr. Austin Corbin to put the flag on half-a-dozen first-class steamers to run between Fort Pond Bay and Milford Haven in six days, if he is allowed to buy them in the cheapest market and in the only market where they can be produced.

There was a tremendous "scene" in the Senate on Monday between Mr. Ingalls, of Kansas, and Mr. Brown, of Georgia. The former charged, "in the most freezing manner possible," that the latter had interpolated in a speech which was printed in the *Record* a sentence which he had not spoken on the floor of the Senate, and proved his assertion by producing the manuscript. There were six words in the sentence, and they were simply a prediction that Mr. Ingalls, who had not made a certain statement in reply to Mr. Brown in debate, would not make it at any future time. They look very harmless in cold print, but Mr. Ingalls soon showed the Senate what a perfect arsenal of depravity they were. He could not tell whether they were "preternaturally prophetic," or whether they implied a "lack of courage or ability to reply" on his part, but he was sure they amounted to "falsifying and forgery," and that while he was "perfectly willing to submit to the daily fortunes of debate," he wished to be secure from the "Parthian arrows which a flying enemy may despatch from the safe ambush of the printing office." He closed by comparing Brown to a "Thug stabbing a sleeping enemy."

The two Senators lifted into public attention by this "scene" are entitled to dis-

tinction for other reasons. Ingalls, as the soldier's friend, has led the Senate Republican caucus into the extravagant folly of adopting his amendment to the Mexican Pension Bill. It is estimated that this bit of demagogue legislation will cost the country at least $275,000,000, but the anxiety of both parties to "catch the soldier vote" is so great that little opposition is likely to be developed in either house. Mr. Brown's strong point is opposition to anti-polygamy legislation on the ground that Massachusetts is a much more wicked community than Utah is. He delivered a scathing speech on this subject on Monday, to an empty Senate, and we are glad to notice that Senator Hoar had the good sense to attempt no reply to it.

All the more important reform measures for this city have become laws. None of the Roosevelt bills were lost, except that relating to the Bureau of Elections, and that was defeated, not by the Democratic Governor, but by a Republican Legislature, under the leadership of Johnny O'Brien. The amendment to the Civil-Service Act, making its provisions mandatory upon the mayors of all the cities in the States, was approved by the Governor. This of itself is a triumph for good government sufficiently great to make the year a memorable one. In his action upon the city bills the Governor has incurred the disapproval of partisans of both political parties. The O'Brien Republicans charge that in vetoing the Tenure of Office Bill he has acted in the interest of Commissioner Thompson. The County Democrats and anti-Blaine Republicans cannot understand why he signed the amendment to the civil-service reform act which exempted the present Bureau of Elections officers from the regulations of the law. We had hoped that he would see his way clear to vetoing this measure, but the fact that whatever partisan advantage there may be in the exemption will be directly against the Governor's political interest is good evidence that he acted in this, as he seems to have acted in all other matters, in a thoroughly impartial and judicial spirit.

The Naquet Bill to legalize divorce in France will doubtless attract a good deal of attention in Indiana and other Western States, though they have nothing to learn from "abroad" in this matter, and have, in fact, completely "swung round" the matrimonial circle, and reached the point at which they begin to look on divorce legislation with suspicion. In Evansville, Ind., a man is trying to get a divorce on the ground of cruelty, his complaint being that his wife prays daily that he may die, and he is afraid her prayer will be answered. Refined cruelty of this sort would probably be a good cause if it were practised on a woman, and if the sexes are equal, why should not a docile, timid husband be divorced for the same reason? The new school of anti-divorce reformers would probably say that a man who could not prevent his wife frightening him in this way was a poor creature; that the proper course for him would be not to take his troubles into court, but to tell his wife to "shut up" or "dry up," or give him a "rest," and if this failed, to use other means. But should the public opinion of a humane and civilized State recognize the utility of such weapons by Man against Woman? We commend the case to the attention of all thoughtful girls and timid men.

That stanch organ of orthodox religious opinion, the *Mail and Express*, takes the same view of Col. George Bliss's conversion as that expressed in these columns. It regrets that any of its contemporaries should speak "sarcastically or in a trifling way" of the event, denounces all such references as "ill-judged, unjustifiable, indecent, and anti-Christian." The official account of the conversion given in the *Sun* showed that it was, as all true conversions must be, involuntary, the Colonel having met and been fairly vanquished in "a fight of mind and argument" with Monsignor Capel, who was sent over by the Pope for the express purpose of bringing back to the Church distinguished and wealthy Protestants. He made a gallant fight, but he was beaten by the prelate's inexorable logic, and his immediate announcement of the fact is a brave and manly act, characteristic of his Stalwart principles and training. A Half-breed or "Judas" would no doubt, in his place, have made a secret "deal" with the Pope, while pretending to maintain his connection with the Protestant body.

The evidence in the Sharon-Hill blackmail case will not bear much quotation, but it has led to the publication of an interesting interview with the ex-Senator on the subject of his son-in-law, Sir Thomas Hesketh. He says that it cost him $10,000 to hunt up Sir Thomas's "record" in England, and it turned out to be that of a "thoroughbred." This is rather surprising, for usually a record that takes $10,000 to hunt up turns out pretty bad. "But," said Mr. Sharon reflectively to a by-stander, "it would have been a jolly idea if Hesketh had concluded at the same time to hunt up mine, eh?" There is a hint in this for an international study by the novelist of the future. A novel with the English lover hunting up the record of his intended American father-in-law, while the latter is doing the same for his, followed by negotiations, with a view to a matrimonial alliance, in which the demands of either side are abated by threats of unpleasant disclosures on the other, would be a taking tale.

Leon Dishowan and Pete Lewis, at Hot Springs, Arkansas, last Sunday had a misunderstanding over the right claimed by both to escort the minister's daughter home after church. This is a matter which often causes trouble between young men, but in the North it is usually settled out of church. In the more impulsive South, however, it is hard to wait for the benediction. While the sermon was in progress of delivery Lewis went quietly into the young lady's pew, whereupon Dishowan, who was there already, pulled out a revolver and opened fire. Lewis was ready with his pistol, and at once replied. The firing alarmed the congregation, which dispersed hurriedly through the doors and windows. The young men were disarmed, probably by the clergyman, who, as parent of the young lady, had to remain and see that the fighting for her was fair, and they agreed to have it out with fists. The clergyman's daughter, however, in a moment's private conversation with Lewis, quietly but firmly placed a derringer in his boot-leg. A moment later Dishowan lay stretched on the floor of the sanctuary shot though the lungs.

The development of coliseums has now been for many years an important feature of the national life, and there is probably no large city, East or West, which has not at one time or another had one—for the modern coliseum, unlike that of the ancient work, is as often as not a temporary structure, erected under a lease, "with privilege of removal." A wooden coliseum, holding from five to ten thousand persons, is just the place for a panic and a frightful loss of life; but we believe the precautions usually taken against this danger are very great. The Minneapolis coliseum, on Thursday, at any rate stood the test very well. It was struck by lightning and took fire while six hundred children were on the stage and the house was crowded. There was a terrible panic and a stampede; but the fire was put out, after half an hour quiet was restored, and it was then discovered that, except for a few bruises, no one had been hurt. It is only fair to say that a heavy storm of rain helped the firemen to extinguish the flames. National Conventions are held in buildings which resemble coliseums, but their proceedings are so often such as to invite the wrath of heaven, that we believe they are now always provided with lightning rods as well as a carefully drilled fire-service.

The Parliamentary elections in Belgium have resulted in a signal triumph for the Ultramontane party. Although the Chamber of Deputies consists only of 132 members, elected for four years, and only half the number of seats is subject to a change in the biennial elections, the Liberals have lost upward of twenty seats. They have besides been beaten in their main stronghold, the capital. The Cabinet of Frère-Orban, which has governed the country since 1878, and has almost constantly been engaged in an envenomed struggle with the Clericals, will now probably make room for an ultra-Catholic Ministry, and the first change in the policy of the kingdom will be the restoration of diplomatic relations with the Vatican, whence the Belgian legation was withdrawn in 1880. To this effect Pope Leo XIII. has already made the first advance by instructions to his representative in Brussels to open friendly negotiations. The most important object, however, before the new Government will be a complete reversal of the anti-clerical educational policy which has prevailed for years. The question of secular or clerical education has been the chief issue between the two great parties in Belgium almost since the creation of the Kingdom, and never has the contention between them risen to a more intense degree of passion and hostility than during the administration of Frère-Orban, nor have the mutual provocations been more galling.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 11, to TUESDAY, June 17, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A LETTER from Samuel J. Tilden to Daniel Manning, Chairman of the Democratic State Committee of New York, dated June 10, 1884, was published on Thursday, in which he absolutely refused to be a candidate for President. In the course of his letter he says: "I ought not to assume a task which I have not the physical strength to carry through. To reform the administration of the Federal Government; to realize my own ideal, and to fulfil the just expectations of the people, would indeed warrant, as they could alone compensate, the sacrifices which the undertaking would involve. But, in my condition of advancing years and declining strength, I feel no assurance of my ability to accomplish those objects. I am, therefore, constrained to say, definitely, that I cannot now assume the labors of an administration or of a canvass."

In the Texas Democratic State Convention on Wednesday, resolutions were passed declaring that a tariff for protection is unconstitutional and unjust, and conflicts with the genius and spirit of a free government. The present tariff is denounced as a scheme for the protection of monopolies, and a masterpiece of injustice and false pretence. The Convention was in favor of the old ticket, and much disappointment was caused by the receipt of Mr. Tilden's letter.

At a meeting of the Connecticut delegates to the Chicago National Democratic Convention held on Friday in Bridgeport, the general expression as to the choice of a Presidential candidate was for Cleveland.

On Tuesday the delegates to the State Democratic Convention were gathering at Saratoga. The sentiment seemed to be in favor of Governor Cleveland as a Presidential candidate, but Mr. R. P. Flower has a number of enthusiastic supporters. The Convention meets on Wednesday.

At Saratoga on Tuesday night, at the meeting of the Democratic State Committee, Tammany made their demand for equal representation with the County Democracy and were refused, 15 to 19. They will go into the Convention the same as last year, with 24 votes, the County Democracy being allowed 38 votes, and Irving Hall 10. The fight will be renewed before the Committee on Credentials, when appointed, and Tammany threatens to send a bolting delegation to Chicago if their request is finally denied.

About 1,500 names of Republicans and Independents were signed to a call which appeared in Boston on Friday morning for a meeting in the afternoon to protest against the nomination of Blaine and Logan. Among the signers were many of the most prominent and influential men in that city.

When the hour arrived for the meeting, the original place chosen, the dining-room of Young's Hotel, was too small, and an adjournment was taken to a neighboring hall which was crowded to the doors with representatives of the best men in Boston, in all walks of life. Henry L. Pierce called the meeting to order, and stated clearly its object, committing it fully to a bolt against the Republican ticket. Colonel Charles R. Codman was elected Chairman, and in his speech said that "the meeting had been called by practical men for the practical purpose of preventing the Republican party from being historically responsible for the record that is written against the candidate of the Chicago Convention." Speeches were made by the Rev. James Freeman Clarke, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, President Eliot, of Harvard, and others. Resolutions were adopted setting forth that Blaine and Logan had been nominated in absolute disregard of the reform sentiment of the nation; that the country will be better served by opposing than supporting them; that the coming nominations by the Democratic party are looked to with solicitude, in the hope that the proper candidates will be named; that an Executive Committee of 100 should be appointed with full power to act; and that they be directed, whatever action is taken by the Democratic party, to call a convention before August 1st to take further action. There was a slight opposition to the mention of the Democratic party in the resolutions. A delegation of twenty-five was named to attend the conference of Independents in New York on June 17th.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, the young Republican reformer of this city, has been represented in a St. Paul despatch as saying that the Republican platform is admirable; that he would not bolt the ticket; that he has no personal objections to Mr. Blaine; that Mr. Blaine will sweep the West and Ohio, carry all New England, and not impossibly carry New York. He is now in Dakota. In reply to an inquiry, on Thursday, he sent the following despatch: "To my knowledge had no interview for publication; never said anything like what you report. May have said I opposed Blaine for public reasons not personal to myself." On Monday he telegraphed a more emphatic denial.

The Senate was in secret session on Wednesday over a mysterious addition of $230,000 to the Consular and Diplomatic Appropriation Bill, to be expended by the President, at his discretion, in maintaining the neutrality laws. Just what this meant was not known until, when the Senators came out of secret session, Mr. Van Wyck, who was opposed to the secret proceedings, moved an amendment providing that no part of the $230,000 shall be used, directly or indirectly, for the purchase of concessions for a canal in Nicaragua. The secret session was then hastily resumed. On Thursday the bill was passed with the appropriation included. The whole appropriation is $8,000,000 greater than in the bill reported to the House.

The treaty which has for some weeks been under consideration in the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations providing for an international copyright and patent system, and which has already been ratified and promulgated by twenty-four governments, was on Thursday night reported adversely by the Committee to the Senate, and after a brief discussion in executive session, was rejected. The position was taken that its ratification would involve radical changes in the American system of patent and copyright laws, while the benefits to result would be very small.

In the Senate on Monday the Army Appropriation Bill was reported. It appropriates $24,539,450, being an increase over the House bill of $295,000 and a decrease from the estimates of $2,350,653.

During the proceedings of Monday Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kan.) called Mr. Brown (Dem., Ga.) to account for having interpolated certain words in a speech of his (Brown's) in the *Record* which were not spoken, "thereby," said Mr. Ingalls, "falsifying the *Record* and committing a forgery upon the records of the Senate." Mr. Ingalls's remarks were so pointed that he was called to order. The dispute was continued on Tuesday, when Senator Brown rose to a question of privilege, and proceeded to excuse himself for the interpolations complained of, and assured the Senate that he had spoken the words alleged to have been interpolated, but that they had been left out of the official report, because, as he supposed, the stenographers had been unable to hear him. Senator Ingalls reiterated his charges with considerable warmth, and said he would not confine his critical remarks to the Senate. A motion to expunge the interpolated words of Senator Brown from the record was finally laid upon the table.

The Senate Appropriations Committee has agreed to recommend a final adjournment on July 3.

The Republican Senators held a caucus on Monday upon the Mexican Pension Bill. The Ingalls amendment proposing to remove the limitations of the Arrears of Pensions Act was so modified as to extend the provisions of the Arrears Act only to cases filed before the 1st of next January, and in this shape it was approved by a majority of the caucus.

The House of Representatives on Thursday struck out the clause in the River and Harbor Bill which appropriates $300,000 to begin the Hennepin Canal.

The House Commerce Committee on Friday decided to report favorably the bill to authorize the American Express Steamship Company to purchase steamers abroad for carrying passengers between Montauk Point, on Long Island, and Great Britain. The bill provides that not less than five steamships shall be constructed at a cost of $1,250,000 each, and of 7,000 horse-power, and capable of making at least eighteen knots per hour, and that the American register shall be granted to them.

The House on Saturday agreed to an amendment to the Post-office Appropriation Bill increasing the Senate amendment of $185,000 for special mail facilities on trunk lines, to $250,000.

In the House on Tuesday Mr. Slocum presented the conference report on the Fitz-John Porter Bill. The effect of it is to insert the words, "Provided that said Fitz-John Porter shall receive no pay, compensation, or allowance whatsoever prior to his appointment under this act." The report was agreed to—yeas 158, nays 61.

The House Committee on Appropriations offered as an amendment to the General Deficiency Bill a clause providing that no official, employee, or person receiving money from the Government for any service, shall contribute any money to any person or party for political purposes. Any person violating this clause shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and subject to a fine of $5,000, or imprisonment for three years, or both.

The House Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday agreed to report favorably on Mr. Hewitt's resolution to ratify the reciprocity treaty with Mexico.

Richard T. Merrick, one of the Star-route counsel, was before the Springer Investigating Committee, at Washington, on Friday and Saturday. He said in the course of his testimony: "On one or two occasions Mr. Bliss said if we had Dorsey out of the case we could easily convict the rest. I had my own opinions and impressions. I knew Colonel Bliss bore close political relations—and thought, personal relations — with Dorsey. While I did not believe Colonel Bliss would be delinquent in his duty, in his heart he did desire that Dorsey should not be convicted. I know of nothing that Bliss did in the trial to protect Dorsey. He made no proposition to me that Dorsey should be allowed to escape."

John W. Foster, Minister to Spain, who has been on a visit to this country and who returned on Saturday under sealed orders, denies that his mission here was to consult with our Government as to the purchase of Cuba. He says Spain would not dispose of Cuba at any price.

Governor Cleveland left unsigned on Saturday night 140 bills passed by the recent Legislature. The thirty-day limit having expired, these measures are dead. Two important New York city reform bills were left unsigned on account of their faulty construction—the Park Department Bill and the Tenure of Office Bill.

Isaac A. Stanley, paying teller of the National Bank of Commerce of Cleveland, O., was arrested on Wednesday evening for embezzling $100,000 of the bank's funds. He confessed the deed.

Commencement exercises were held at Columbia College and Vassar on Wednesday, and at West Point on Saturday. Baccalau-

reate sermons were preached at Princeton, Harvard, Brown, and Cornell on Sunday.

Eight men were killed and a great many injured by a collision on the Camden and Atlantic Railway, near Ashland, N.J., on Saturday morning, between accommodation and excursion trains.

Hiester Clymer committed suicide at Reading, Pa., on Thursday, aged fifty-seven years. He was a lawyer by profession. He served in the State Senate six years, was Democratic candidate for Governor against Geary in 1866; and served in Congress from the Berks district from 1873 to 1881.

Col. Edward R. Pratt, Adjutant-General of the Department of the Missouri, died at Leavenworth, Kansas, on Tuesday. His record during the war was notable, and he was promoted rapidly for bravery at Bull Run, Fort Pickens, and Fredericksburg. He was Judge-Advocate of the Army of the Potomac from 1863 to 1865.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice, Under Foreign Secretary, said that the report which reached London of an extensive massacre at Berber on June 1 was difficult to believe. His reason for this attitude was the fact that a messenger who left Berber on June 3 reported that just before his departure he had seen Hussein Pasha Khalifa, the Governor, who was among those alleged to have been slain.

Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice stated in the House of Commons on Monday evening that the Government had received a despatch from Cairo, from which there is reason to believe that the messengers who reported the fall of Berber were unreliable. He added, however, that General Stephenson, commander of the English forces in Egypt, and General Sir E. Wood, now believe that Berber has fallen.

The London *Times* on Wednesday night received a despatch from its correspondent at Wady-Halfa. According to this, Berber surrendered twelve days ago, and the reports of the massacre that had already been received in London were true. The correspondent had been informed that the rebel General Abaul has collected 100,000 men around Berber. After the fall of Berber 30,000 Arabs were sent to invest Dongola. The Governor of Dongola was ignorant of the surrender of Berber, and telegraphed to Wady-Halfa that no news had come down the river.

Egyptian advices on Saturday stated that an Arab had arrived at Korosko who claimed to be the sole survivor of the Berber garrison. He says he was present when the rebels attacked Berber on May 23. The garrison defended the town for two hours of severe fighting, but the rebels were too strong for them, and forced their way into the city, where they immediately massacred the 1,500 men of the garrison and 2,000 of the male population. The women and children were spared.

Advices from Berber, received on Monday, reported that Hussein Pasha Khalifa, although seriously wounded, had been saved from death.

The reported fall of Berber has caused great excitement at Assuan, but the patrolling of gunboats tends to reassure the natives. It is believed in official circles at Cairo that Khartum is safe.

The Governor of Dongola on Thursday telegraphed to Cairo that El Mahdi had been crushingly defeated by the Takalla tribe.

El Mahdi was reported on Saturday to be marching toward Dongola with 35,000 troops. He hopes to capture that town before the feast of Ramadan, which occurs June 25.

The English sergeants in the Egyptian army at Suakim tendered their resignations on Wednesday, owing to the cowardice of the Egyptian officers and men during the recent rebel attacks.

Admiral Hewett has reached the coast of the Red Sea, ready to embark for home, after successfully concluding a treaty with King John of Abyssinia, securing free transit from the Sudan through Abyssinia to Massowah.

The Porte declines to appoint a delegate to the approaching Egyptian Conference, unless the whole Egyptian question shall be submitted to the Conference or shall have been previously settled between England and Turkey. England has informed Turkey that, if she does not accept the invitation to the Conference as sent, it will be held without her.

Earl Granville, in his note to the Powers giving the programme of the Egyptian Conference, entirely ignores the agreement with France. The note is limited to a general statement of the financial condition of Egypt. It requires a revision of the law of liquidation, and reiterates the desire of England to withdraw her troops from Egypt when order has been restored. The note avoids making definite proposals to the Powers. The Conference will meet in London on July 10.

England and France agreed on Monday upon a verbal form of settlement of the preliminary meeting of the Egyptian Conference.

The Caisse de la Dette Publique, which is to be the foundation of the multiple control over Egypt, and which is to cease to be a mere bank and is to have new and extended authority, will be composed of six members—two English, two French, one Austrian, and one Italian. Germany and Russia will demand membership, on the ground of the extension of the functions of the Caisse.

A party of engineers at Chatham, Eng., was ordered on Monday to proceed to Egypt at once to survey the desert between Suakim and Berber with the view of constructing a railway between those towns.

Sir Charles Dilke's paper, the London *Weekly Dispatch*, says that Mr. Gladstone, in frankly conversing with one of his warmest supporters, declared that he expected to be out of office in a few weeks. The *Dispatch* urges Mr. Gladstone, if defeated on the Egyptian policy, not to resign, but to carry the Franchise Bill to the House of Lords, and then dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country on the general policy of the Government. It is said that electoral agents throughout the country are preparing for an electoral contest.

The Conservative agents in London have instructed local electoral agents in the provinces to prepare for a general election, which they say is imminent.

In the House of Commons on Thursday evening Mr. Woodall's amendment to the Franchise Bill in favor of female suffrage was rejected by a vote of 271 to 135. Mr. Gladstone stated that if the amendment was adopted the Government would not be answerable for the passage of the bill.

A meeting of the Irish Land League was held in Dublin on Wednesday. Donations to the amount of £1,000 were received from America.

Mr. Parnell is preparing a general appeal for a national fund to be used to pay Irish members of Parliament.

A monster meeting of Orangemen was held at Belfast on Saturday. Threatening resolutions were adopted against Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, should he carry out his intention to visit Belfast.

In consequence of the threats of dynamiters a cordon of armed watchmen has been established around Eaton Hall, the Duke of Westminster's residence in Chester, England.

The Court of Appeals in London has dissolved the injunction to restrain the telephone company from erecting overhead wires. The Court holds that inasmuch as the space to be occupied by the wires is above the area in ordinary use for street purposes, the street authorities have no right to interfere.

The American Lacrosse team on Friday, at Belfast, Ireland, defeated a team representing the five clubs of the Irish Lacrosse Union by a score of three goals to two. The team defeated is considered the strongest in the United Kingdom. The Americans were defeated on Saturday by the United Kingdom team, 3 goals to 5.

The election held in Belgium on June 10th, to elect one-half of the Chamber of Deputies, resulted in serious defeat for the Liberals. Riots ensued in Brussels and Antwerp by which much property was damaged and many persons were injured. A new Ministry was formed on Thursday under Jules Malou as Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The French Minister to Morocco has presented to the Sultan of that country a treaty for his signature rectifying the frontier in accordance with the demands of France. The Ministers of Spain and Italy will advise him not to sign.

It is stated in Madrid that France has assured Spain that there is no intention on her part to disturb the integrity of the Sultan of Morocco's dominions.

The French Minister at Lima, Peru, has recognized the Government of Iglesias.

Italy has sent an identical note to London and Berlin on the French policy in Morocco.

The negotiations initiated by Signor Mancini, of Italy, for a European concord to guarantee free trade at all the ports in Asia and Africa held by the European Governments have received the assent, in principle, of England, Germany, and Portugal. No response has been received from France or Russia.

Prince Bismarck has proposed that the difficulty between Servia and Bulgaria be referred to the mediation of Austria and Russia. Servia has accepted the proposal. The Porte will join the other Powers in endeavoring to settle the difficulty.

The International African Association, which has formally placed itself at the disposal of the German Government, has received the following reply from Prince Bismarck: "The German Government is by no means disinclined to enter into permanent treaty relations with the Association, but must first be exactly informed concerning the legal and financial status of the Association."

A man has been arrested in Berlin who is identified by his photograph as Degayeff, the assassin of Colonel Sudeikin. He will be surrendered to Russia.

Prince Krapotkin, the Nihilist, will be released from Clairvaux Prison, France, on July 14th.

The French squadron, consisting of eight men-of-war and two large torpedo boats, arrived on Saturday at Tangier, Morocco. This produced great consternation among the Moors.

The Pope has instructed Monsignor Rinaldini, at Brussels, to undertake negotiations for the restoration of diplomatic relations between the Vatican and the Belgian Government.

The Attorney-General of the Province of Quebec received a telegram on Monday from the British Minister at Washington, ordering that Eno, the late President of the Second National Bank, this city, be held for extradition. The Court, on Monday, decided that he should be held at Quebec for further examination, instead of being sent to Montreal.

The discovery of petroleum at Sibi, near Quetta, in Beloochistan, will have an important bearing, it is thought, on the industrial development of India and the solution of the Central Asian question.

Count Toreno, President of the Spanish Chamber of Deputies, resigned on Monday. He withdrew his resignation on Tuesday, and a political crisis was averted.

King John of Abyssinia has undertaken to relieve Kassala, as a result of Admiral Hewett's mission.

SENATOR BAYARD'S DOVER SPEECH.

THE speech delivered by Mr. Thomas F. Bayard at Dover, Del., on the 9th July, 1861, he being at that time a young man and his father being a Senator of the United States, and both being natives of a slave-holding State, has become a subject of much interest since the withdrawal of Mr. Tilden's name from the list of candidates for the Chicago Democratic nomination. Mr. Tilden's letter opens the field to all comers, and in any such field Mr. Bayard is sure to hold one of the leading positions. His course during the whole period of his service in the Senate has been so high-minded, conservative, and temperate, so free from the arts of the demagogue, so penetrated with the spirit of justice, and so sound in all matters relating to the currency and finance, that he, more than any other statesman of Southern origin, has won the confidence and esteem of a large body of opinion in the North, which is not confined to his own political party. His abilities are not of the showy sort. His character is of the solid kind, best described by the phrase that "you always know where to find him." Once only, so far as we now recall, did he disappoint our expectations. We did not suppose that he would favor so extreme a measure as that which passed Congress against the Chinese. But since this brutal enactment has been endorsed by the National Republican Convention, and the promise has been given that the party will support "further legislation" in the same line, which can only mean something more brutal still, it is not likely that any supporter of Mr. Blaine will throw stones at Mr. Bayard on that account if he should be the Democratic nominee.

Mr. Bayard's Dover speech was delivered three months after the bombardment of Fort Sumter and twelve days before the battle of Bull Run. The tone of the speech was distinctly in favor of peace through an amicable separation of the States, the hope of reunion being held out as the result of reflection on the part of the seceders. We republish three paragraphs which embrace all that would probably be quoted against Mr. Bayard if he were nominated for the office of President of the United States :

"Eleven States have withdrawn from the Federal Union with solemn and deliberate action, and have united under a new Government. They have made their declaration of independence of the Government under which we live, and express their determination to maintain it at every cost. With this secession, or revolution, or rebellion, or by whatever name it may be called, the State of Delaware has had naught to do. To our constitutional duties toward each and every member of the Union we have been faithful in all times. Never, never has a thought, a word, an act of ours been unfaithful to the Union of our fathers — in letter and in spirit it has been faithfully kept by us. But the stern fact is still before us, and but two alternatives present themselves. Shall we make war upon and subjugate this new confederacy, or shall we peacefully treat with them and consent to their self-government, trusting to time, which is the great healer of all wrongs and passions, to bring them again voluntarily into a common government with us ?

"Take the proposition of war—of horrid civil war, my countrymen! Grant to the Northern arms complete success. Suppose that every Southern city be reduced to ghastly ruin, every peaceful Southern home desolated, and every Southern man slain or made captive. This is the evident completest realization of that dream of conquest so horribly satisfactory to those minds who control the Northern press. But what then ? Will a Union with slaves and the possession of a desert satisfy you? You do not and cannot expect love and aid in times of your necessity from those States you have so cruelly subdued. It is too plain, therefore, that your success in such a war would be the most fatal injury to yourselves.

"I believe solemnly that the war inaugurated by Abraham Lincoln and his Cabinet is worse than fruitless—that it will prove more disastrous to the North than to the South, and never will accomplish its professed objects. Already it has driven out of our Union four States, while others stand in doubt. When I take up the public papers and see the markets of the world disordered and depressed by the mere apprehension of this war ; when I turn to our own business circles and see men of wealth reduced to poverty, our merchants bankrupted, our mechanics and laboring men threatened with absolute starvaton, I would fain hide my face in grief. But confronting this wide scene of human distress, I sadly seek to find relief from it. If war, or the mere prospect of it, has in three short months worked all this distress, what an increase of trouble are we to anticipate should it proceed in all its detail of oppressive taxation, destruction, demoralization, and sorrow ! Human governments were ordained for the happiness and protection of society. If peace will restore and secure these blessings to the people of the United States, even though a number of their former associates have gone off under a new and independent organization, in the name of heaven, let us raise our voice for it. Shall this earnest cry for peace be stifled at the bidding of a host of fanatical and cowardly editors, aided by an army of greedy contractors and public leeches, stimulating an ignorant mob to denounce and attack us as traitors and secessionists? We know it shall not, and this day do we proclaim our duty to our country and our intention to perform it."

These sentiments will be judged from several different standpoints. From the standpoint of a Southern Democrat, reared in the unwholesome atmosphere of slavery, the opinion will be commonly entertained that there is nothing in them which ought to surprise us unless it be the moderation of tone as contrasted with that of ninety-nine per cent. of all the Southern Democrats of the period. Nor is there anything for the Northern Democrat to object to, seeing that three years later the party, in its National Convention, demanded that "immediate efforts be made for a cessation of hostilities." This is all that Mr. Bayard had demanded in the beginning.

The third standpoint is that of the Republican party, and here we are bound to say that some parts of the Dover speech are likely to repel many voters who would be glad to cast their ballots in the most effective way against Mr. Blaine. It is not that Mr. Bayard favored peace after war had actually begun. It would not be difficult to show that both Greeley and Seward were in favor of peace at that time, and that while there were shades of difference between them as to the ends to be reached through peace, the views of both would be found as obnoxious to the public opinion of the North to-day as most of the utterances of Mr. Bayard. Mr. Seward, for instance, addressed an official note to our foreign ministers, saying in substance that the only obstacles to a restoration of peace were the extremists of both sections—the Southern secessionists and the Northern abolitionists—classing the two together as alike culpable in bringing the misery of war upon the country. Mr. Greeley's efforts for peace were protracted to a much later period, and finally came to a ridiculous climax. The spirit which prompted them was, however, not essentially different from that which moved Mr. Bayard in 1861. Gerrit Smith was in favor of peace at all times, and other names might be mentioned, within the circle of anti-slavery renown, which were identified with the same views.

The most obnoxious thought which occurs in Mr. Bayard's speech is that which speaks of the war as the aggressive and voluntary act of Lincoln and his Cabinet. This was perhaps a slip of the tongue. It was what might have been said in the heat of debate, when the passions of a whole nation were aroused, without any express intention of charging that hostilities were begun by Mr. Lincoln—as though he had any choice between war and peace. Nevertheless this is what the Dover speech says, and it is what we apprehend will prove a mischievous element in the campaign if Mr. Bayard should be nominated.

MR. CURTIS AND GENERAL McCOOK.

THE *Tribune* publishes an interview with General Anson G. McCook, in which the latter expresses surprise, not unmingled with censure, that Mr. George William Curtis should oppose the election of Mr. Blaine after sitting as a delegate in the Convention where he was nominated. "There was no complaint," says General McCook, "of the absolute fairness of the whole transaction. I recognize," he continues, "the right of a Republican to bolt a nomination when it has been secured by dishonest or disreputable methods, or when he is denied a right to participate in the primary meetings of his party. But when a man has taken part in the proceedings of a convention; when he neither complains of its methods nor enters a protest against the result, I confess that a refusal to support the nominees strikes me as not only wrong in itself, but destructive of party discipline and party organization."

Mr. Curtis will undoubtedly take care of his own reputation in the premises. As his case is not singular, but is akin to that of many other delegates in this and other conventions, General McCook's criticism calls for general attention. It should be observed that the doctrine held by General McCook that a delegate is bound to support the nominee under any and all circumstances, was sought to be put in force by the Convention itself, or a portion of it, and also by the Convention of 1880, and that the attempt failed in both cases, because it had no logical outcome. Such resolutions are never proposed, except where some particular candidate is so objectionable to a portion of the Convention that there is reason to anticipate a bolt if he is nominated. In such cases the endeavor is made to secure a pledge beforehand that everybody will support the nominee, whoever he may be.

In the Convention of 1880, before the Committee on Credentials had made their report,

Mr. Conkling offered a resolution in these words:

"*Resolved*, As the sense of this Convention, that every member of it is bound in honor to support its nominee, whoever that nominee may be; and that no man should hold a seat here who is not ready to so agree."

Three delegates from West Virginia voted against the resolution. Mr. Conkling thereupon moved that they be expelled from the Convention. There was a great uproar over this motion, which was finally withdrawn after Mr. Conkling had vainly endeavored to obtain from the three dissentients an unequivocal statement that they would support the nominee. It was withdrawn for the obvious reason that the Convention had no power to expel a member regularly elected and whose name had been properly placed upon the list of delegates. If the three members from West Virginia could be expelled for voting against a resolution which they did not approve, they could be expelled for any other difference of opinion with the majority, and in fact a majority could always expel a minority for any reason satisfactory to itself.

When the same question came up in the recent Convention Mr. Curtis said that he expected to support the nominee of the Convention because he expected that the nominee would be a person worthy of support. Here is the kernel of the whole controversy. Is a delegate in a Republican Convention bound to support, for instance, a Democrat if a Democrat should chance to be nominated? Is such a thing impossible? Not at all. When General Grant was nominated in 1868 nobody knew whether he was a Republican or a Democrat. The only thing really known was that he had never up to that time voted a Republican ticket in his life. The argument most strongly advanced for his nomination was that if the Republicans did not nominate him the Democrats would. So it appears that it is not outside the bounds of possibility for a Republican Convention to nominate a Democrat for the office of President of the United States. It is allowable for a Republican Convention to nominate a Democrat for any inferior office, and many such have been nominated at various times as judges, mayors of cities, and occasionally as Congressmen.

The question recurs, is a delegate in a Republican Convention bound to vote for a Democrat if regularly and fairly nominated by the Convention? If not, why not? Evidently because, in the judgment of the delegate, this would not be a fit nomination. In such a case the delegate would oppose his judgment to that of the majority of his fellow-delegates. This is all that Mr. Curtis has done in the present case. If a delegate may exercise his judgment in one case, he may do so in another. Suppose the Convention had nominated General Mahone for President. He was deemed a good enough Republican to sit in the Convention—therefore he was good enough in a party sense to have a place on the ticket. If Mahone had been nominated, the larger half of the Northern delegates would have bolted, and there would have been a new convention held and a new ticket nominated. But such a proceeding could be based only upon the right of the individual delegates to exercise their own judgment as to what is a fit nomination and what is not.

It may be true, as General McCook says, that a refusal to support the nominees is "destructive of party discipline and party organization," but there is one thing that is still more destructive, and that is the nomination of candidates who cannot be supported. Mr. Blaine was the only candidate at Chicago whose nomination was held by a considerable body, or by anybody, to be insupportable on moral grounds. This was known to his friends and to all of them, including General McCook. They were amply warned beforehand. There was the whole country to choose from. They chose the only candidate whose name was sure to cause a revolt. Therefore upon them rests the responsibility for the bolt, and it would be far better for General McCook, and all like-minded delegates, to retire into a closet and devote an hour to earnest self-examination than to cavil at Mr. Curtis for doing what they had every reason to suppose he would do if Mr. Blaine were nominated. Mr. Curtis evidently believes that parties and party machinery are a means to an end—the end being good government—and that when the means are not adapted to the end, but the contrary, the paramount duty of the citizen is still to promote good government. If this were his duty before he became a delegate, it is none the less so now.

TRUTH ABOUT THE CONGO.

THE interesting interview with Captain Braconnier, published in the *Herald* on Monday, while it does not throw any absolutely new light on the purposes of the African International Association, brings out one or two points which are of considerable interest to all Americans who are thinking of the possibility of our "taking a hand" in the development of the "dark Continent." Braconnier is a Belgian officer who was selected by King Leopold to assist Stanley on the Congo, and has spent three years and a half in the country.

He reports, first, that no European can live in the country, on account of the fevers. The climate is fatal to most strangers who remain there for more than two years. This does not prevent the establishment of trading posts, but makes it very doubtful whether any permanent European occupation like that of India is possible. As to commerce, he declares that Stanley, in his account of the river, has drawn upon his imagination for some of his facts. The river can be ascended no further than Nokki or Mokki, about eighty-five miles from its mouth; beyond this rapids spoil everything. In this part of the river the travellers are obliged constantly to leave it for the land.

"Steam launches drawing barely two and a half feet of water have had to be dragged along by our men. A whaleboat, the *Eclaireur*, about one and a half feet under water, often grazed the bottom. From Kuamoth (the new station at the junction of the Congo and Kuango) north to Bólóbó and Equator Station, the river seems a hopeless confusion of sand banks, rocks, islands, and rapids. But perhaps when soundings have been made more thoroughly a better channel may be found than we have yet discovered."

Then, as to the crops, the truthful Captain says: "We have been disappointed, too, in the native products." There is ivory, but not so much as was expected.

"We have not yet discovered the great ivory-producing country. Even the natives we have met don't seem to know it. India-rubber is much scarcer in the interior than we thought. Peanuts are also scarce, but might easily be grown, as the soil all along the river is wonderfully rich. I don't see why three crops of not only peanuts, but maize, millet, or wheat should not some day be raised every year. Attempts to introduce European grains have been made at all the International Association stations. At the outset all failed, the stations standing on virgin soil, overrun with thick, rank grass and all but impenetrable bush and swarming with insects of every kind, which will have to be burned out or otherwise utterly destroyed. I should say if this were done, after two or three years' clearing, all African or European grains, as well as potatoes, would thrive. Great care, by the by, must be taken to protect the European seeds and grain from the sun, while allowing them plenty of air. This is done on the Congo by putting them into osier stands raised about two yards above the ground on trestles. We have found plenty of maize, manioca, millet, sago, bananas, pineapples, and lemons. Of gold and silver we have seen no trace. But there is some copper and probably a good deal of iron, for the ground is ferruginous. All the ivory is brought down the Congo from the far interior, passing through a great many hands on the way."

As to territorial rights and international law, there is the same trouble in finding them on the Congo that Artemus Ward had in getting any "monicky" in Canada. There are none there. Captain Braconnier gives the following admirable account of the condition of the native mind as to all such matters. It strongly recalls the state of things on this continent at the time of its first settlement:

"They think there is one great country all the whites come from, called 'Umputu,' and that it is ruled by one great King, 'Fumokoubamoundela,' the King of the Belgians. As to territorial rights they neither understand nor have the faintest intention of admitting such a thing as a 'cession of territory.' If you speak of such a thing they take up a handful of earth and say 'God gave it to our chief. Our chief has given it to us.' Any one can settle on a patch of ground, however, not already occupied, and cultivate it. We of the International Association have never bought ground of the natives. We have invariably rented it—for an indefinite time. This kind of contract they understand perfectly. They admit that, in return for a periodic payment of stuffs, copper, guns, sham pearls, and so on, strangers have the right to settle on a tract of country. Stanley has explained the idea to them a score of times, and I twice as often at least."

Any savage can understand this; what he does not understand is that after a time the period of payment will cease, while the occupation will continue. The fact, however, shows how ridiculous "treaties" in such a country must be.

Another point not to be overlooked is that, like the Sudan, the Congo country is a great slave country. When we hear of great "trade routes" in the interior of Africa, what is meant most often is slave-trade routes. Captain Braconnier says that not only is the slave trade flourishing in great vigor on the upper Congo, but the condition of slavery is

regarded by the slaves themselves as natural and proper; they do not want to be liberated, for they get in return for their involuntary labor protection in life and limb; their master does for them what the police do for us.

If there is any lesson or conclusion to be drawn from all this for Americans, it is how fortunate is that country which has least to do with the "dark Continent." The work that Braconnier, De Brazza, and Stanley are carrying on is not so much one of settlement as of exploration and adventure. It is as yet by no means certain how far the possession of the interior of Africa would be a boon to any civilized government, and in the rivalry for its possession by England, Portugal, Belgium, and France, it is obvious that the old game that was played with the red man by our ancestors, and by Clive and Hastings with the East Indians will be played over again—the game of treaties, war, and mock philanthropy as a cover for treachery, stratagems, and systematic spoiling of the easily deceived natives. The matter will be complicated by the slavery question, as the position of England in the Sudan has been. It is a very awkward thing when an anti-slavery country goes colonizing in a slave country. How fortunate for us that we have no stake in Africa, and that so far as we are concerned it can only be regarded as a promising field for innocent journalistic enterprise.

A QUESTION AS TO SPELLING REFORM.

THE spelling reformers are to have their regular annual meeting at Dartmouth College next month, and have issued the following announcement:

"NEW YORK, June 6, 1883.

"The ninth annual meeting of the Spelling Reform Association wil be held at Hanover, New Hampshire (Dartmouth College), Thursday, July 10, 1884, beginning at 3 o'clock P. M. (shortly after the ajurnment of the Philological Association, which meets at the same place, July 8–10).

"The members of the Association, and all other persons interested in Spelling Reform, ar urgently requested to be prezent. Thoze intending to read papers wil pleaz giv erly notice. All members ar requested to send word whether or not they can atend the meeting. A local committee wil see to the accommodation of vizitors. Adress all communications to the Corresponding Secretary, C. P. G. Scott, 3 Elizabeth Street, Auburn, New York (from July 5 to July 10, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N, H.).

"F. A. MARCH, President.
"MELVIL DEWEY, Secretary."

This card, it will be admitted, even by the most conservative speller, shows rather the moderation than the zeal of the Association. Very few words in it differ from the ordinary form. "Ajurnment" is rather an innovation, and "vizitors" has an odd look, but most of the changes consist merely in dropping silent letters, which but for one thing we should hardly miss. But why is it impossible to avoid smiling at the phrase "wil pleaz giv erly notice"? Probably because it is amusing to find linguistic reformers urging us to spell so much in the way that ignorant and uneducated people spell. There is no getting over the fact that spelling reform once successful, a great deal of the point would be taken out of the humor of A. Ward and even Thackeray. We laugh at what we in our carnal and unregenerate minds call bad spelling, chiefly because it is so laboriously and ingeniously spelt by ear; but the object of spelling reform is to make written spelling conform to spelling by ear. To the spelling reformer "wil pleaze giv erly notice" is no more funny than a tariff for revenue is to an economical reformer. The fact that spelling reform, though advocated for a hundred years, has made little progress thus far suggests one side of the difficulty with which it is struggling. Since spelling became uniform throughout the English-speaking world, the written form of words is a more potent agency in determining the spelling than the sound. The original written spelling may have been frequently accidental, but once adopted, it has remained substantially unchanged. Every educated person being now a constant reader is more familiar, through the eye, with the form of words than through the ear. When we *think* the word "oats," for instance, we immediately have a picture of it in our minds spelled in the usual way. The sound of the word affects our imagination of it but slightly, because no picture or image is produced through hearing. This is easily seen in the case of very common words containing vowel sounds. The word "boat" is written in the same way wherever the English language is spoken; it is pronounced with slight differences in different localities and by different individuals. Another case is so familiar that it furnished *Puck* with the standing joke that "mamma" and "papa" are in nine-tenths of American families wrongly accented "mommer" and "popper," while this corruption has made little headway in England. Every one has heard Worcester and Greenwich pronounced as they are spelled. Few American readers, unless they are very familiar with Pope, have any idea how the name St. John is pronounced in England. But however variously pronounced or mispronounced, they are written in the same way all over the world. The uniformity is that of the visible, not of the spoken or heard language.

It is, in other words, the written form that determines the identity of the word, and not the sound; and, if this is true, it would seem to be almost easier for the reformers to reform pronunciation so as to make it accord with spelling than to accomplish what they have actually undertaken. A glance at the very few changes which have been brought about in the last hundred years will, we believe, confirm this view. The educated world in America has got so far as to drop a silent vowel from such words as honor, labor; but wild horses will not yet induce the educated world at laige to write ax, or theater, or even program. It is done here and there, by a newspaper or by a publishing-house, but these changes are not adopted by general consent.

The fact that the educated man remembers and identifies words chiefly by the eye, or the image presented to the mind through the eye, while it is the uneducated and ignorant who remember and identify them by ear, is what still makes spelling reform food for mirth with the very class to which the spelling reformer must appeal, and makes his work doubly difficult. Spelling reformers themselves now admit that the work must be very slow. They get most help from the press, especially in the West, where tradition in language as in most other things counts for less than in older communities.

AN EDUCATIONAL NEED.

THERE are several distinct types of academic teachers. First, there are professors who do little but keep order, give marks, set and hear recitations from a text-book, and guard their own dignity. Some of them have taught ever since their graduation with little interval for further special study, are saturated with the traditions, petty provincial reverences, and prejudices of their own college, and know very little of sister colleges. They are content to repeat their courses year after year with very slight variations, without having penetrated deeply enough into their specialty to get a broad view of it or to feel the need of one. They may have compiled a text-book, or edited a classic author from German sources, but they have added nothing to the sum of the world's knowledge. They do not believe in elective nor in post-graduate courses, nor in the least approach to intimacy between student and professor, such as seminaries and laboratories necessitate. Some of them get the name of good teachers when they are merely good disciplinarians, with no conception of what good teaching means or can do for bright young men who are far more likely to be crippled by them than dull ones. A promising young scholar lately said of his Alma Mater, where such influences were dominant a few years ago, that it was impossible to get a really good education there, and that a student who wished to do really hard work must do it on the sly, as girls sometimes study Greek, or quite lose popularity in his class. In some faculties this class of instructors is a standing obstacle to every academic reform. It would be hard to find all these characteristics in any one man, but they are far too common and by no means confined to older professors.

Another class, mostly younger specialists, are enthusiastic, capable of original work, with extended courses of study behind them, and could lead but cannot drive students to work. They attempt too much, and assume too much interest in their work, and fail in the arts of adapting the matter they teach to the actual needs and capacities of young men. A class bolts, sends committees to protest against long lessons, becomes disorderly, or, as in a recent case, signs a secret petition to the president and trustees that the young instructor be removed. Thus young professors lose a few years in getting their trade, or perhaps fail of a career for which they are otherwise eminently fitted. These two classes of teachers have a keen sense of each other's failings, and sometimes constitute two parties in the faculty; but in fact both are largely responsible, and perhaps equally so, for the frequency of college bolts, rebellions, and outrages generally. A class really interested in the curriculum has neither the disposition nor the large amount of superfluous time and energy needful to organize any serious insubordination.

Thirdly, there are in most faculties a few born teachers who are not defective in scholarship, who love their work as such, and who often have sympathy and tact to inspire students to do work quite beyond their ken. When such a teacher is also a savant—a combination as rare as it is beneficent—he is sometimes able to raise

the whole educational level of a large college, even unbeknown to those about him. Instances might readily be named and will occur to academic readers. Happy is that college where such a man is the president, or where the balance of power is in such hands. This class of teachers is unfortunately extremely small in most colleges as in our schools. They are as rare as great genius always is, so that art has to come in to do the work of instinct as best it may, here as in every other department of life. It is because these gifts are so rare that the need of some special training for teachers of all grades has always been felt—most deeply in periods of educational interest and advance like the present—from the time of the Alexandria catechists down. "Normal" work has thus been well called the chief function and the main condition of all sound educational organization. All educational laws, all curricula-programmes, etc., without trained agents to carry them out to reality, are merely ideal possibilities, and it is the second class of instructors whom such work can help most.

With some exceptions, schools in this country which train teachers of the lower grades for their work are not, on the whole, now fulfilling the demands of the new education as a new profession; while in our colleges and universities, where a rapidly increasing number of teachers is being trained, nothing whatever is done to aid them. The title of "doctor" is given to men who have not the least knowledge, theoretical or practical, of the art which for centuries gave its meaning to that venerable title. It is far otherwise in the most educationally-enlightened parts of Europe. For nearly fifty years Professor August Boeckh conducted a pedagogical society, founded by Gedike in 1787, the object of which was to fit young men for the function of teaching in the university or gymnasium. To this institution ten students are attached by stipends. These must, and other members may, attend gymnasial faculty meetings, visit the school-rooms, teach an hour or two per week, and make reports and criticisms. Institutions of a similar nature for students of philology and theology, in connection with the Universities of Königsberg and Göttingen, are not less than half a century old, and many younger ones exist elsewhere. In some of these chief, and in others little, attention is given to the arts and methods of instruction, according to the disposition of the director. Herbart, early in the present century, was the first to introduce "pedagogy" into the philosophical department as an independent branch of university study, treating it now for special students of philosophy, now for practical teachers, now for historians, etc., and even establishing a practice school for teaching Homer, the calculus, etc., to boys, under criticism. Each member looked after, and was in a sense responsible for, the progress of one boy in character and conduct as well as in learning. Stoy and Ziller, Professors of "Pedagogy" in the Universities of Jena and Leipzig respectively, who are both in a sense pupils of Herbart, opened some of their courses to those intending to teach in or superintend schools of a lower grade. These have no stipends, and Ziller's seminary is a private establishment, aided by the Government and its own alumni, whose devotion to it is very great. The chief courses are in ethics, psychology, the history of educational ideas and organizations. The seminary of Professor Kleinmann, in Buda-Pesth, has the entire direction of an Untergymnasium committed to it by the Government. Professor Strümpel, of Leipzig, publishes the best essays of his seminarists in a pedagogical journal now eight years old. Professor Willmann, of Prague, and Professor Vogt, of Vienna, admit no university students who have not heard lectures in the philosophical faculty for two semesters; and they have travelling scholarships, the incumbents of which must report in detail on educational institutions in other countries from personal inspection.

It would take far greater space than a single article here even to enumerate all that is now done by the German universities alone to protect the higher institutions of that land from the two great evils of instruction illustrated in this country by the two first classes of teachers characterized above. In the comprehensive University of France, the École Normale (second to none in rank), where Pasteur taught and worked, has produced great teachers and great savants, while in Italy, and even in the slow-paced universities of England and Scotland, chairs of lectureships on education are now being provided in response to a strong demand. The weightiest objection ever urged against this department of academic work is that it interferes with the ideal nature of study, and prevents entire abandonment to the charm of study and investigation for its own sake, or that pedagogic work is professional, and should come after the termination of a course of liberal studies, an objection which concedes its value and questions only its place. Would it detract from the charm of Homer for a classical scholar if he were to take time to study or even write on the value of his poetry as reading for boys, or on grammatical instruction with reference to the different stages of the mental development of boys? Would it injure a student of the Romance languages to discuss French reading with reference to current French text-books? Might not a student of science enumerate and attempt to criticise the best charts, demonstrative and illustrative material, apparatus, etc., in his department? But there is a still greater need. Specialists know what learning is, but not always what culture is. They often need to reflect that they are dealing with whole, many-sided men, and must coördinate and subordinate, and never lose sight of the educational value of other departments. The more connections he can make with these latter, the more he can teach and the more he can ease the strain of learning in these days when brain-work must be hard; for a score of things, if organically connected, are learned more easily than five that are discrete. Professor Willmann, who has very clearly brought out some of these points, believes that a vast amount of labor-saving in the work of both teaching and learning in universities can be accomplished by "considerable multiplication of these chairs of mental economy." During the last few years a new spirit has come over the work in this department. Its scope has been enlarged, its methods improved, its utility recognized, and its adoption in most of our higher institutions of learning is now only a question of time and availability of teachers. The old routine professor is already hard bestead, and the young specialist who has forgotten all the approaches to his department, and cannot teach, must devote himself to the work of increasing, and not that of diffusing, knowledge.

On the other hand, the great educational awakening on which the country now seems to be entering, and which is likely, if it continues to deepen, to reach ere long our professional schools, in some of which the worst teaching that can be found is done, seems to be opening a new profession for young men interested in philosophy or in history. Superintendents, heads of large academies and high schools, and college professors, educational editors, and clergymen, who are preëminently teachers, can and must make their work more strictly professional. As the great body of human knowledge increases and develops, it grows, of course, more difficult, complex, and technical, and more and more art is required to lead the average youthful mind over all the rapidly multiplying *pontes asinorum* to the frontier whence wise men look out over the unknown, that, like the Homeric ocean, flows round all; and in a republic, whose very existence may depend on a struggle against ignorance and its attendant evils, good teachers of high and low degree become a most vital need. Do we or our statesmen or our universities realize this as well in our day of greater need as did the framers of our Constitution or the founders of our colleges?

BISMARCK AND THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, May 30.

WHEN this letter reaches you the corner-stone of the new Reichstag building will have been laid. It is proposed to make the ceremony a great festival. The old Emperor himself will open the proceedings with a speech, and not only the deputies but also all the highest state dignitaries, ministers, generals, and princes have been invited. The new palace will be erected to the right of the Brandenburg gate, on the same spot where the Raczynski Art Gallery stood, just opposite the monument erected in honor of the victories of 1870. The cost will be covered by those 30,000,000 of francs specially included in the war damages imposed on the French. The building is planned in Renaissance style and will require five or six years for completion.

The Reichstag will reassemble a day after this festival. In the meantime new bills are daily pouring in. If only one-half of the business prepared for it were finished by the Reichstag, it would be obliged to sit through the whole summer. In my opinion, however, it is impossible to keep the members together beyond the beginning of July. Bismarck knows that as well as any other man. Having been baffled in his schemes to dissolve the Reichstag under a popular pretext, he now lays another set of meshes for the purpose of catching the popular vote in the approaching elections. Thus, for instance, a new bill trebling the duty on several articles of luxury has quite unexpectedly been published, but only for electioneering purposes. Champagne, brandy, and liquors of all kinds, as well as silk, ladies' dresses, laces, embroideries, and watches form the chief items on this list. As there is no time left for discussing this bill at so late an hour, the Chancellor is sure of its rejection, but he wishes to arraign the Reichstag before the people. A better means of agitation among the masses can scarcely be found than the reproach that the deputies have no heart for the poor classes, that they look to their own interests only, and make the poor bleed. At the same time it is intimated in the memorial accompanying the bill that this improvement on the present tariff is only a forerunner of a more thorough reform, provided, of course, that the Reichstag will not interfere. It will be remembered that in 1879, when the new tariff was adopted, the Government promised it a fair trial; now, scarcely four years after it has taken effect, the consequences of the protective system begin to be noticeably felt. All classes of manufacturers are giving the alarm; they fill the lobbies of the Reichstag and the offices of the secretaries, petitioning the authorities to better their situation. The agrarians, north and south, cry loudest for the granting of a higher tariff on rye and wheat. Their interest stands in the first line.

Connected with the tariff reform, and inspired by the same sentiment, is the new bill which, in the words of the Government, taxes the transactions of the Stock Exchange, but in

fact submits all kinds of business to the arbitrary control and intermeddling of the officers of the internal revenue. Out of spite at their defeat of last year, the Government has now brought in a new bill which makes no distinctions in the character of the business, but taxes all transactions in checks and bills exceeding the amount of 300 marks, and in merchandise exceeding 1,000 marks—as, for instance, goods and wares which are sold by weight, measure, or number, such as breadstuffs, fruits, lumber, coal, or metals. The Stock Exchange, of course, which our agrarians hate as the Indians hate civilization, will receive the first stroke, but all other trades and industries will suffer proportionally. This result the Prussian Secretary of the Treasury, the father of the bill, has entirely overlooked; and instead of earning the thanks of the middle classes, he is censured like a schoolboy and contemned by everybody. The Chambers of Commerce all over the country loudly protest against this measure, to which, moreover, a number of exasperating bureaucratic requirements are attached. Thus, for instance, every trader and business man has to keep a book in which he must enter all his transactions, and in which he must specify the nature, amount, and time of each of them. At the end of the month he is obliged to deliver it up to the Internal-Revenue Office, which examines it for the purpose of finding out whether the other parties had not omitted the corresponding entries. The fine imposed on the trespasser is, at its highest limit, five-hundred-fold the amount of the tax. The officers are at liberty, also, to demand the correspondence and books of each business man, and to examine all of them at their pleasure. There is not the least chance that the bill will pass. Even the Government itself does not expect it will; but the cry for the approaching elections is given out, and the so-called social reform of the Chancellor will be the *mot-d'ordre* for all stumping demagogues. In this way we are drifting into all sorts of socialistic illusions. The wilder a scheme is, the more adherents it finds; and the young ambitious clerks would go to even greater lengths than their master, Bismarck.

On the other hand, prudent and sober business men no longer know how to manage their affairs. The coalition of the Conservatives with the Ultramontane Centre annihilates all hopes of repose and steadiness. Every day produces a new adventurous plan. The establishment of a colonial bank; colonization schemes in Africa, where Angra Pequeña, a barren desert north of the Orange River, has been placed under the protection of the German flag; the new line of steamships to eastern Asia and Australia, dependent on the support of the Government; the rights of labor and the new coöperative institutions for the benefit of the working classes—all these and other measures are proclaimed as Bismarck's social and economical policy, which finds its most ardent admirers among the middle classes. Even their representatives in the Reichstag, the National Liberals, do not hesitate to follow their master in his most erratic excursions. This state of things is aggravated by the new coalition of the National Liberals with the Right. "As free and independent men," they lately offered their gratuitous services to the Chancellor. Thereupon the reactionary parties above named became uneasy, and offered a compromise to the Government for the purpose of carrying through the bill for insurance against accidents and the new law against shareholders. In their turn, again, the National Liberals did not like to be left behind, and immediately followed the lead of their former opponents. Now Bismarck has finally brought about what for more than ten years he longed for in vain. He matches the two parties, and by their rivalry forces each to the highest bid for his own favor and protection. I believe that the next elections will sweep the demoralized National Liberals from the field; but in the mean time they may do a great deal of harm, and during the rest of the present session they will at least pass such bad laws as those named above, in regard to the shareholders and accident insurance. The first result of the latter will be the ruin of the private insurance companies.

In other respects our home policy has not changed. The Emperor has, of course, refused Bismarck's wish for a partial retirement from his office as Prussian Prime Minister. This matter has a long history of its own and finds its explanation in the efforts of the Chancellor to revivify the old State Council, which for years has been inactive but still exists by virtue of the Statute Book. Bismarck, by carrying out this plan, aimed to kill two birds with one stone. First, he would by law have become what he is in fact, the omnipotent ruler of the empire, to whose will every one would be bound to bow; next he intended to bind the hands of the Crown Prince and make him responsible for, if not identical with, his own policy. With this in view Bismarck offered him the presidency of the State Council; but the Crown Prince has thus far rejected all offers of that kind and seems to have shown the cold shoulder to the tempter. It is for his own interest that he sticks to his resolution. In my opinion he will do so, for he has and will have a policy of his own. † † †

Correspondence.

THE HURRAH IN THE CONVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Attendance at the proceedings of the recent Republican Convention has indelibly stamped upon my mind the certain conviction that the present mode of selecting the Presidential candidate is not the best.

Aside from party feeling, aside from personal preferences, and aside from all issues tending to limit the breadth and fairness of argument, can it be that a single eye-witness will deny that the popular enthusiasm and demonstration at the recent Convention affected the decision of that body? Admitted, as I think it must be, that the audience did influence the decision of the delegates, the next question arises, Was this proper? was it right? The delegates, the voters in that Convention, were not there to express individual and personal preferences, which they were at liberty to shift and change at pleasure. They were there *as representatives;* they were there to deliberate, and by the application of cool reasoning to select the man best qualified in all respects to satisfy the majority of those conferring the honor and placing the trust. *Perhaps* that choice was made. I shall at any rate avoid discussion of that particular point. But will any one say, does any thinking man maintain for one moment, that the constituents standing behind five hundred and forty four of those delegates favored the nomination of James G. Blaine as leader of the Republican party and President of the United States? Did his most sanguine leader ever for a moment entertain an idea of his receiving more than 450 votes? If not, the question arises, Where did the remainder come from? And I answer, *entirely* from the enthusiastic demonstration of five or six thousand men, women, and boys, who were stimulated to excitement by every cheap device which the fertile brains of party leaders could suggest.

Would it be reasonable for a jury, holding a man's life in their hands, to be surrounded by the court-room crowd during their final decision on a verdict? Would any one expect a just trial if all the prisoner's friends were allowed to attend the deliberation, and cheer and howl at every favorable suggestion? Would such verdicts be reasonable? would they be fair to the public? The same principle should apply at our national conventions. Why should the local enthusiasm of one city, or one State, or one section of the country be thrown into the balance to the prejudice of any other? Why should that instrument of war be put within the power of the candidates, and be made sharpest and most effective in the most unscrupulous hands?

Does not the introduction of plumes and placards and roosters on such an occasion bear on its face a weak and utterly unworthy stamp? and would not our deliberative assemblies and their decisions command more respect if they freed themselves from such mistaken influences?

Very respectfully, Felix Rackemann.

Chicago, Ill., June 9, 1884.

A REPRESENTATIVE CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have three brothers living in three States who have always voted the Republican ticket. We will next fall cast four votes for the Democratic candidate, if he is a man of, say, Governor Cleveland's stamp.

There seems good reason to believe that the woods are full of Republicans who are so ill satisfied with Mr. Blaine that they are prepared for this once to vote with the other side if given decent encouragement—they are certainly not prepared to vote for some old Bourbon with a bar'l.

Please give us your powerful assistance in scaring the Democrats into doing the right thing. J. D. R.

Riverside, Ill., June 9, 1884.

A VERY GLOOMY VIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The nomination at Chicago has carried consternation to the hearts of a good many stanch Republicans. To none has it caused greater surprise and grief than to myself, and yet there is a melancholy satisfaction in seeing one's theories worked out even if more rapidly than is welcome. Often during the last winter, in maintaining that Butler's campaign was not a mere result of popular wickedness, I have said to friends that it was lucky for Massachusetts that it was Butler, and not a man like Blaine, that they had to deal with. Little did I think that within the year the same problem which had been placed before Massachusetts would be presented to the nation by the hands of that very man. In order to show that the same principle is involved, I must ask leave to repeat a more than thrice-told tale. From the beginning of this Government a conflict for power has been going on, not only in the nation but in the States and the cities, between the legislative and executive branches. If it was true that the facility of usurpation was much greater on the side of the legislature, as holding the money power, it was true also that the danger in their case was much less obvious because it was impersonal. The result has been that the legislatures have usurped all power and that the executive has been reduced to a figure-head. General Sherman, though a soldier, has shown more political insight than any public man in the United States, when he said that he did not want to be President because Congress was the only power in this Gov-

ernment. Now, if there is one thing that not only our own but all history demonstrates, it is that a legislature cannot govern. It has not the necessary unity of purpose or action, or continuity of existence. Therefore it is that there is not a single social problem which Congress since the war or any State government ever has been able successfully to deal with. The country has not been governed, it has *drifted*. Not only so, but government by legislature has killed all individuality, and the character of our public men has been steadily sinking into insignificance, not because we had not great men, but because there was no field for them. In like manner the executive chair, being a position of no meaning, has been filled by a succession of nobodies, that is, as far as public action is concerned.

The people have become thoroughly tired of anarchical and helpless legislatures and dummy executives. That transparent fallacy, "a government of laws and not of men," is contrary to the first principles of human nature. The world always has been and apparently always will be governed by men. The people will have a leader: good if they can get one, bad if they cannot. One thing the Chicago Convention has probably settled, that the "dark-horse" period has gone by. The Blaine men were distinctly defeated in the matter of temporary Chairman. He had but 332 votes on the first ballot, and if there had been any other name strong enough to unite the opposition he might have been defeated. But there was not, and henceforward both Butler and Blaine have pointed out that the most available way to get a nomination is to cut a figure in the eyes of the nation. Does anybody believe that if James G. Blaine enters the White House next March (which I sincerely hope he will not) he will subside into the obedient servant of Congress? As the boys say, "Not much!" We may as well be prepared in that event for fireworks and sensation. But inasmuch as, in the way our Government is now conducted, he has no legitimate power, he will be forced to use illegitimate. Nor will it be very safe to rely on constitutional checks. In the temper of the people at present, checking the Executive, if he plays his cards well—and he is a very different man from Butler—will be a dangerous game. It was with the tacit consent of the nation that Cromwell turned out the Long Parliament. Napoleon would have been crushed in his conflict with the Directory if France had not been wearied out with a long period of no government. Of course it is ridiculous to talk of anything like that in this country, but there are a great many intermediate stages. Four years under Mr. Blaine would form the longest step that the United States has yet taken towards irresponsible despotism.

What course is the average voter to pursue? I have steadily voted the Republican ticket for thirty years, but I ask now, what is the Republican side? If it means the string of platitudes called a platform issued at Chicago, I can see nothing to bind allegiance. If it means the followers of James G. Blaine, I am distinctly not one. If the Democrats could ever get a ray of common sense and nominate a Bayard or a Cleveland, I should be tempted for the first time. In fact, they could hardly name a worse candidate than Blaine unless it was Butler, and would not that be a curious campaign?

There must be thousands, if not hundreds of thousands, in the country sighing for an available third party. It seems, no doubt, Utopian to talk of a National party, which should take for its principle the giving to the President, the only representative of the nation, a position of proper dignity and influence, enabling him, through his Cabinet, to have a due share in the policy and conduct of the Government, awakening by this means interest and enthusiasm in the people, and giving able and honorable men an opportunity of appealing to popular support, instead of leaving the field to charlatans and demagogues. And yet I believe that such an issue might be presented in a way, if not to win this campaign, at least to lay a foundation for the future as did the Free-Soil party thirty years ago. Of one thing I am sure, that nothing else will save the United States from ultimately landing in irresponsible despotism. G. B.

BOSTON, June 7, 1884.

A JAPANESE WORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Japanese language has enriched the English by the addition of one word that has come to stay—namely, *hara-kiri*. The dictionaries and newspapers, in adopting it, wrote it *hari-kari*. But now that the dictionaries have corrected themselves, will not your paper lend its influence in favor of the proper spelling of this word that has had untold influence in Japan, and that has become so well known in America? Any one who has read the intensely-interesting 'Tales of Old Japan,' by Mitford, or 'The Loyal Ronins,' by Greey, will never go astray on this word. *Hari-kari* may mean either *hunting for thorns* or *borrowing a needle;* but *hara kiri, stomach-cutting*, is *the* word that for centuries ruled the code of honor in Old Japan.

All this, because the *Nation*, March 27, says: "If the practice of the *hari-kari* were in vogue, Mr. Ochiltree might well avail himself of its privileges."—Yours truly, J. H. DEFOREST.

OSAKA, JAPAN, May 7, 1884.

KEMEYS AND BARYE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly allow me space for a few remarks on some of the excellences and defects of the animal sculptors Kemeys and Baryé? While the article in the *Century* may have had too much the air of a Kemeys "boom," there are others besides Mr. Hawthorne who think that were Kemeys as well and widely known as is the French sculptor, he would be ranked as the equal at least of Baryé, possibly as his superior. Baryé's numerous small bronzes are scattered far and wide, while most of Kemeys's work has not been duplicated, and exists only in plaster models which, until recently, have been inaccessible to the public. This in itself is sufficient to create a prejudice in favor of Baryé, since work that is well known is usually *supposed* to be superior to that which is comparatively unknown. This prejudice can be removed by time alone, and I sincerely trust that Kemeys's merit may not be recognized too late. If I understand the matter rightly, art in animal sculpture consists not so much in rendering the *form* of any given animal as in catching the *spirit* of that animal and infusing it into the "enduring stone" or "lasting bronze." This Kemeys certainly does, and in this respect he is assuredly the superior of Baryé, whose pieces are too often mere anatomical studies, the purpose of which seems to be to display the sculptor's myological knowledge. The correct modelling of external anatomy surely is not in itself art, or else the manikins of Auzoux would be artistic in the extreme. Yet this is the chief excellence of Baryé's walking lion and tiger, and here the effect is marred by the greatly exaggerated size of the muscles. Baryé's fondness for anatomical detail is shown by the fact that the muscles show plainly in his wolves and other fur-clad animals, in which there is really only an indication of the more prominent ones. In the "Jaguar and Hare" the great cat is exerting force enough not only to bite through a poor little hare but to crush a mud-turtle. Again, in the "Puma and Deer" the puma is fully twice the size of his prey in order that the muscles may show to good advantage. Really, the puma should be about half as large as a male Virginia deer, which is the species here represented, and while from an artistic standpoint it *may* be allowable to exaggerate muscles, it certainly is inartistic to completely reverse the size of the two animals. Moreover, Baryé is guilty of placing some of his animals in wholly unnatural attitudes. His lion, tiger, leopard, jaguar, and wolf are all represented as pacing, *i. e.*, as moving both legs of a side together, a gait, so far as I am aware, confined to half-a-dozen mammals. The giraffe and llama walk in this manner, and the camel, if you will pardon the Hibernicism, paces when it trots, but these are merely the exceptions to the rule that the right fore and left hind foot move together. It would be easy to point out other and similar defects in the work of the great French sculptor, but I will merely add that the standing greyhound is an abnormality, possessing an extra pair of ribs. None of the above-mentioned defects are observable in the sculptures of Kemeys, for his anatomy is kept under control and his animals do not offend the eye by parading in impossible attitudes. The greater number of Kemeys's pieces represent animals in action, but in those which have animals in repose for their subject the lax muscles and air of ease show that the animals are resting and not posing for their pictures. The "Panther and Young" and "After the Feast" are good examples of animals in repose, the gaunt, flat-sided form of the panther being imbued with all the looseness of joint and laxness of muscle so characteristic of the cats when at rest. In the "Deer and Panther" fighting we have, on the other hand, animals in violent action, and here the panther's form is highly suggestive of strength and suppleness. The fierce intensity of purpose of both animals is admirably expressed, and while the tense muscles indicate strength, they are not so overdrawn as to become caricatures. The panther is represented as a female weakened by the care of her young, and the deer as a full-grown, powerful male; thus, the observer's appreciation of the combat is not marred by sympathy for either combatant. It is to be hoped that some day this fine group may be cast in bronze and of life size. Various little details show the care with which Kemeys has studied animals and their expressions, and how well he understands the significance of each movement of the ears or peculiar contraction of the lip. In short, faithfulness of attitude and correctness of anatomy are points wherein Kemeys is true to nature, while in selection of pose, in the grouping of his figures, and in expression of emotions he is true to art.—Very respectfully,

FREDERIC A. LUCAS.

UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM,
WASHINGTON, D. C., June 3, 1884.

[Mr. Lucas misapprehends the question at issue. We have studied Mr. Kemeys's works, and without any prejudice whatever, on grounds of purely artistic quality, do not accept them as equal to those of Baryé. We know nothing of any "spirit" of an animal except as we see it in the "form," and such a distinction as Mr. Lucas would make is irrelative; the only distinction admissible is between a type of form that conveys the idea of motion or action and one which shows merely the inert body. Anatomy, as science,

has nothing to do with art, and it is from the artistic, not the scientific point of view that we object to the comparative rank which Mr. Lucas contends for between the two sculptors. Without Baryé's works before us it is of course impossible to reply to Mr. Lucas's strictures on them.—Ed. Nation.]

HASTY NAVAL LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Had I seen the article entitled "Hasty Naval Legislation," published in your issue of May 31, in a periodical of less standing than the *Nation*, I should have deemed it unworthy of attention; but the high character and general reputation for fairness of your paper lead me to believe that you have been entirely misinformed, and I therefore beg to call your attention to what I consider to be grave errors in the aforesaid article.

The foundation upon which it was based was that the report of the Naval Committee in favor of the bill to abolish the grade of junior ensign was made *solely* upon the ground that the officers of that grade receive less pay than their co-graduates of the engineer and marine corps. A perusal of the report will, I believe, satisfy an unprejudiced mind that it was the question of an equalization of *rank* which induced the Committee to decide as it did. Although in the report of the Superintendent of the Naval Academy (quoted at length by the Committee) the question of pay was introduced, yet no attention whatever was paid to it by the Committee.

While I honor the men who hold commissions as engineers, and especially those who entered the corps in its infancy and who have helped to raise it to its present position, yet to assume that they "constituted the picked technical corps of the navy proper" is not, I submit, borne out by the facts in the case. Those gentlemen who entered the service prior to 1866 were (with but few exceptions) warranted as third assistant engineers; they were considered as being under instruction, and were assigned to duty as *water-tenders* in the fire-room, a duty now performed by enlisted men. The requirements for entrance were of the simplest possible kind, as may be seen from the following extract from the Navy Regulations of 1865, the italics being my own:

"A candidate for appointment as third assistant engineer must be not less than nineteen nor more than twenty-six years of age; he must be of moral character and correct habits; he must have worked not less than eighteen months in a steam-engine manufactory, or else have served not less than that period as an engineer on board a steamer provided with a condensing engine, and have secured a favorable impression of the director or head engineer as to his ability; he must be able to describe and sketch all the different parts of the marine steam-engine and boilers, and to explain their uses and mechanical operation, the manner of putting them in operation, regulating their action, and guarding against danger. He must be well acquainted with *arithmetic, rudimentary mechanics, mensuration of surfaces and solids;* write a fair, legible hand, and have some knowledge of the chemistry of combustion and corrosion."

After two years of sea service came the examination for second assistant; this was but a trifle more difficult, as may be seen by referring to the same regulations—the mathematical portion embracing in addition only "a knowledge of *rudimentary mechanics* and the *elements of geometry, including descriptive,*" and the practical part being only what a man with average common sense could readily acquire in two years.

Although the requirements for first assistant were higher, both practically and theoretically, yet the mathematical part included only "*fundamental mechanics, theory of the steam engine, use of logarithms, solution of simple algebraical equations, a competent knowledge of the first six books of Euclid, plane trigonometry, descriptive geometry, and conic sections.*" When we examine the requirements for chief engineer, we find that, while the practical examination was much more extended, yet theoretically there was no great advance upon those just enumerated, "*applied mechanics*" being the chief into which the higher mathematics enter. In other words, so far as *mathematics* were concerned, the amount of knowledge *required* was *less* than that demanded of a midshipman at the Naval Academy after his four years' course. That many of the chief engineers exceeded these requirements is undoubtedly true, but upon how many of them "has devolved the important duty of planning and designing the engines of our ships of war"? Does it really require the large number of seventy chief engineers for this purpose?

In your enumeration of the duties of the engineer corps, only an incidental mention was made of that which must ever be the business of the majority, viz., "the running and repairing of the engines designed by their superiors." For this duty no higher science is necessary than is found on board the passenger steamers of the day; there is no mystery about this part of the work, and for this we need only a "body of skilled mechanics." But for the higher work of designing the engines of our vessels of war, and for the designing of the *vessels themselves*, we do most emphatically need a "scientifically educated corps of naval engineers." It is obvious, however, that this corps must be small in numbers, and it should be the highest prize in the naval service—a position reached only after thorough training, strict examination, and ruthless weeding out of all who do not reach the high standard that should be set.

As to the cadet-engineer system, now extinct, it is to be observed that while the examination for entrance was more searching (as asserted by you) than that of the cadet midshipmen, yet for the first two years of the course their studies were precisely the same. A consultation of the merit rolls of the third and fourth classes for the years that they were thus together shows that the great mental superiority of the engineers, so largely claimed by you, has but little foundation in fact; and a comparison of the records for the entire course shows that the percentage graduating with credit is practically the same.

During the seven years from 1876 to 1882 inclusive, there were in the fourth classes of

	Cadet Mid'n.	Cadet Eng'rs.
	469	190
Number receiving 75 per cent. of maximum.....	137	92
Percentage.....	27	48

Not a very great disparity, when the standards of the entering examinations are considered, and when account is taken of the fact that the engineers were the picked 190 of more than six times as many applicants.

During the same seven years there completed the four years' course:

	Cadet Mid'n.	Cadet Eng'rs.
	339	106
Number receiving 75 per cent. of maximum.....	131	42
Percentage	38+	39

The cadet-engineer system broke down from its own weight, as must have been foreseen by any unprejudiced mind. Under its operation we were adding to the list over twenty graduates annually, for whom the outlook was quite as bad as was that of the junior line officers; and it was only a question of time as to when the number of graduates of both kinds should be reduced.

Some six or seven years ago a bill passed the Senate reducing the number of cadet engineers to twenty-five, a number quite sufficient to repair the waste of the corps; but through the influence of the engineers it was defeated in the House Committee. Had the bill become a law, you would have had no cause to write as you did.

There are many points involved in the discussion of your article, to touch upon which I will not trespass further upon you, save to state that the condition of the senior passed assistant engineers is at present an anomalous one, owing to the operation of peculiar causes; their status is no worse than that of the lieutenants will soon be; seventy-five of whom have now held their commission fourteen years, and when the seventy-fifth one is promoted he will have been not less than twenty years in his grade.

I trust that you will give to this the same publicity as was given to your own assertions, and beg leave to subscribe myself,

Very respectfully,

A Line Officer.

[Our correspondent's letter scarcely touches upon the main points of the *Nation's* argument. When we spoke of the engineers as the picked *technical* corps of the navy we had this in view: The work of designing a modern marine engine, of calculating its economy and efficiency, and of judging in advance how any engine, especially one of a new type, is going to perform, requires a higher and rarer grade of natural mathematical ability and special training than any other naval duty. In every school there are plenty of bright boys who can be trained into capable surgeons, paymasters, or commanding officers, but only here and there is one found who can be trained into a thorough mastery of all the principles of thermodynamics. Now, it was officially stated, as one of the reasons for the legislation referred to, that the best trained graduates of the Naval School were, or might be, assigned to the line, and our correspondent not only does not deny this, but bases his argument upon it. In maintaining that "we do most emphatically need a scientifically educated corps of engineers, which should be the highest prize in the naval service," he takes the same ground as the *Nation*. This ground is opposed to the policy of the last two years, which has tended the other way, first, by abolishing the separate special course for engineers, and now by seeking to attract the best trained graduates from the engineer corps into the line. The *Nation* will heartily support any measure for the formation of a special highly educated corps of constructing engineers.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

A German translation of Appleton Morgan's 'Shaksperian Myth,' by Dr. Karl Müller, of Stuttgart, is in hand, and will be issued, with an introduction by the translator, from the Tauchnitz press early in the fall.

Jas. R. Osgood & Co. are the American publishers of Austin Dobson's 'Thomas Bewick and His Pupils,' which will soon be put to press.

'The Fallacies in "Progress and Poverty,"' a criticism of Henry George and Dunning McLeod from a social reformer's point of view, is in the press of the Fowler & Wells Co.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'Black and White,' an economical discussion of the

social status of the negro race, by T. Thomas Fortune.

A new edition of Rimmer's valuable 'Art Anatomy,' which has long been out of print, is in preparation by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

We have received from the Right Rev. Monsignor Capel a thick pamphlet entitled "'Catholic': an Essential and Exclusive Attribute of the True Church." It is an attempt to show that the Roman Church alone possesses the right to this appellation, which was decreed by the early fathers in general council to be a necessary mark of the Christian Church. To his treatise are appended several writings of the third and fourth centuries in support of the view taken.

The sixth number of Charles Scribner's Sons' "Philosophic Series" is Dr. McCosh's 'Agnosticism of Hume and Huxley with a notice of the Scottish School.' Its character is sufficiently indicated by its authorship.

'The Government of England' (Rivingtons) is the first of a series called "Highways of History." It is after the style of the primers now in vogue upon nearly all subjects. This series will be confined to English history, each number being devoted to some leading topic. In the present volume, which is by the editor, Louise Creighton, an historical view is given, briefly and clearly, of the successive changes in the Constitution and mode of government of England from the earliest time to 1867. It is thus a very handy book for reference on simple points, and will prove of great convenience to the student who has only mastered general outlines and has yet to learn how to fill them in at once with comprehensiveness and accuracy.

Charles Scribner's Sons offer for sale a limited number of folio India-proof impressions of Burt's engraving of William Cullen Bryant. These were taken from the plate made for Bryant and Gay's 'History of the United States,' before all letters, and are signed by the poet.

'The Papers and Biography of Lion Gardiner' is a semi-historical, semi-genealogical work relating to the early colonial period of Connecticut, just issued in St. Louis. It contains some hitherto unpublished documents, contemporary notices of the Pequot wars, letters to John Winthrop, jr., an account of the settlement of Gardiner's Island, etc, etc. Only fifty copies are for public sale.

'Lady Blake's Love Letters,' translated from the French by Page McCarty, just published by Carleton & Co., of this city, is a translation of George Sand's 'Lavinia.' It is not easy to understand why the name of the author is not given in the book. One would suppose that any work of George Sand's would sell better with her name on the title-page than without it. An attempt to create an interest in the book is made by stating on the title-page that it is "the theme from which Owen Meredith took his famous poem of 'Lucile.'"

'Rambles in Old Boston, New England,' announced for publication by Messrs. Cupples, Upham & Co., is a work of some importance in both an historic and artistic sense. The text is by the Rev. E. G. Porter, whose studies have been for several years directed especially to our Revolutionary history, and the illustrations, some eighty in number, are from drawings by Mr. G. R. Tolman. It is designed principally, if we are not mistaken, to give some account, for the purpose of preservation, of noted buildings, both public and private, which are of any historical or antiquarian interest. To detailed descriptions will be added the quaint legends and stories which still linger about many of these old structures. The work, which is to be issued in ten numbers, is very appropriately dedicated to the Bostonian Society.

Little, Brown & Co. publish an 'Historical Summary of Metallic Money,' by Mr. Robert Noxon Toppan. The author has succeeded remarkably well in compressing a large quantity of facts and figures within the compass of eighty pages, and yet in making quite a readable narrative of it. The general effect of the essay, as the author doubtless intended, is to illustrate the irresistible force of popular determination as to the value of money when opposed by legislative fiat. It is somewhat discouraging to observe that the policy of some of the ancient states of Greece and Asia in regard to bi-metallism was more enlightened than that of the American Congress; but as the platform of the Republican party promises us the best possible money, and that of the Democrats is not likely to promise anything inferior, our future is evidently brightening. The danger to society arising from large fortunes is not a very modern one, judging from the story told by Herodotus of a certain Lydian who had in his house 3,993,000 gold darics, which Xerxes in a generous mood rounded up to 4,000,000. At $5 the daric, this would amount to $20,000,000, a fund which, if exhibited to the Lydian "street" during a period of depression, might well have had as great an influence as the display of $20,000,000 of Wabash and Texas Pacific stock nowadays.

Among the interesting discoveries of old papers that have recently been made are two of considerable importance. Doctor Stern has found in the town library of Breslau, among the correspondence of Ch. Garve, several letters by Kant that throw light on the history of his works; and in the Royal Library at Windsor Mr. Holmes has come upon the drawings of the Elgin marbles, made in Greece, by J. P. Gandy-Deering before they were removed from their place, which were executed for the Dilettante Society, and have been lost sight of since 1813, when they were sent to the Prince Regent. Another find is a boxful of letters, two hundred in all, from Jane Austen to her niece Lady Knatchbull. These will be published by Lord Brabourne's direction in the fall.

The Oriental exploring expedition referred to last week, which will be known as "The Wolfe Exploring Expedition to Babylonia," from the name of the donor of the funds, is to start next autumn under the auspices of the Archæological Institute. Dr. Ward, who will head the expedition, will be accompanied by some of the members of the late expedition to Assos. The work of this expedition will be tentative and preliminary.

The Vicomte H. de Bozemont has contributed to the geographical and ethnological series in 18mo, now being edited for popular use by M. Richard Cortambert, a volume on 'L'Indo-Chine Française.' It describes Annam, Tonquin, Cambodia, the Land of the Laos, and, more fully, Cochin-China, stating natural features, resources, ethnography, political divisions, etc. It also contains brief historical narratives, particularly illustrative of the complications which have led to French intervention and annexation. A handsomely executed and comprehensive but somewhat obscure map is added.

Under the title of 'An Eastern Journey' (*Eine Orientreise*), the state printing establishment of Vienna puts out the prospectus of Crown Prince Rudolf's Eastern travels in a large folio of 180 pages, two parts. The sample of text and illustrations which we receive from F. W. Christern gives promise of a fine work, the woodcuts being particularly spirited. There will be 37 etchings and 100 woodcuts.

The completion of Victor Hugo's 'Légende des Siècles' has been celebrated by Mr. Swinburne in a poem of some 400 lines, in the intricate and characteristic metre and versification of "The Eve of Revolution" in 'Songs Before Sunrise.' The chief feature of the new poem is its descriptions of the extraordinary sunsets which occurred in England last winter. It is based upon the analogy between the close of the year and the close of the poet's life, the former going out in its most splendid colors, the latter giving to the world his greatest work in the winter of his old age. The poem will not be printed (except in a few copies privately, that it may be presented to its illustrious subject) until its author has written sufficient new matter to form a volume, Mr. Swinburne's custom being to give his readers liberal measure in this respect.

The *Art Union* for May comes late, but in good form. The history of the old Art Union, which is concluded, and a very thorough and kindly criticism of the exhibition of the Society of American Artists, are the principal literary features, and several spirited reproductions of drawings, the artistic. We learn from it that "the Trustees of the Hallgarten prize fund of $5,000, for the benefit of deserving students in the National Academy Schools, have held a joint meeting with the Trustees of the Harper competition prize fund," and have resolved:

"That the Trustees of the Harper and of the Hallgarten funds agree to combine the interest accruing from their respective funds for two years, the same to be applied to the sending of a deserving art student abroad, and, . . . furthermore, that the method of choosing the jury to select the holder of the scholarship shall be by artists' suffrage."

The first scholarship will be competed for next December upon terms to be published hereafter.

The *Fortnightly Review* is returning to its former custom of publishing a serial story among its weightier articles. In the June number appear the first chapters of a novel called "Diana of the Crossways," by George Meredith, whose 'Tragic Comedians' was first published in its pages several years ago. Mr. Meredith, by the way, was included by Mr. Walter Besant, in his recent lecture, among the novelists whose names will live because of a single work—in this case, 'The Ordeal of Richard Feverel.' Under its new editor the *Fortnightly* is becoming the most popular magazine of its class, its circulation having largely increased since Mr. Escott took charge of it.

—Few people are acquainted with the curious circumstances under which the novel of 'Called Back' has advanced from obscurity to its present extraordinary notoriety. The name on its title page, "Hugh Conway," is the *nom de guerre* of Mr. F. J. Fargus, a member of a firm of auctioneers in Bristol, Eng. It has been known hitherto only as that of a writer of graceful songs, among them being the authorized transposition of the broadly-humorous "Silver'd is the raven hair," from "Patience," into the serious drawing-room form of "In the twilight of our love." 'Called Back' appeared originally in a Bristol publication of local repute only, named *Arrowsmith's Almanac*. Somewhat to the publisher's surprise, calls for this began to come from many quarters, and several editions proved inadequate to supply the growing demand. As soon as it became clear that 'Called Back' was the attraction in the number, a separate edition of it was issued at the low price of a shilling. This came to the notice of Mr. Comyns Carr, the editor of the *English Illustrated Magazine*, who saw the dramatic possibilities in it, and soon afterward a highly eulogistic review in Mr. Labouchere's newspaper, *Truth*, brought the book prominently before the public. Edition after edition has been issued, until now the circulation has reached its eightieth thousand. An admirable

dramatization of it, by Mr. Comyns Carr and the author, has just been produced with great success at the Prince's Theatre, and it bids fair to enjoy a long run of popularity there also.

—An example of the minute textual criticism to which the English classics are subjected in Germany may be seen in K. Borchard's essay on Thomson's 'Seasons' in a recent *Anglia*. All the editions of the poem beginning with the first English edition of 1726, and ending with the best German (Tauchnitz) edition of 1853, are scrupulously compared, with a result both curious and entertaining to those who like to study the internal economy of a poet's mind. Each poem of the four constituting the 'Seasons' is found to grow in length if not in grace from the important year 1730. Thus Spring, the initial eclogue, begins at that date with 1,082 lines and ends with 1,176 lines in 1746 (the year of the last edition before the poet's death). The Summer increases during the same period from 1 206 to 1,805 lines. Autumn gains 104 lines during the like sixteen years of interval, and Winter runs from 781 to 1,069 lines. The concluding Hymn diminishes from 121 to 118 lines. These results are patiently tabulated by the essayist, and are accompanied by a vast quantity of grammatical, stylistic, and metrical criticism; innumerable verbal deviations among the various ever-growing editions are noted; and, in fact, one grows almost chill at the cold-blooded method and completeness with which the poetic laboratory is laid bare.

—Almost equally remarkable, though in a different direction, are the methods used and the conclusions reached by Mr. J. L. Cheney in his essay on "The Sources of Tindale's New Testament," in the same number of *Anglia*. He shows exhaustively that Tindale's Testaments exhibit traces of the four versions found in Wiclif, Luther, Erasmus, and the Vulgate edition; that these traces of agreement, quite inconsiderable as regards Wiclif and the Vulgate, show the influence of Erasmus far more than of Luther; and that of the versions by Erasmus, the Latin version, as well as the Greek edition, was followed and the Latin was at times preferred. Mr. Cheney's general conclusion is that Tindale's Testament was substantially an independent translation from the original; in which he is supported by the fact that the Authorized Version very fully retains the substance of his translation. The best scholarship of later generations, too, retains his renderings. The Revised Version of 1881 returns in several cases to the translation made by Tindale, somewhat altered by later revisions. But for the diligence, accuracy, and independent scholarship exhibited by the poor fugitive, convict, and martyr, his name and his writings would long since have sunk into oblivion. As it is, both receive an imperishable monument in the English Bible.

—German unity has not put an end to the bewildering multiplicity of occasional dissertations. At one time it seemed as if it might be possible to do something in the way of concentration. Here and there a university like Leipzig, Strassburg, Erlangen, would gather up its best dissertations in volumes; but with so many centres of philological activity, with so many ambitious scholars desirous of a vent for their learning, the "programmes" swarm as distressingly as ever. One has not the time to read them as they come out, and after a few weeks many of them disappear and hide in corners, whither even the wonderful system of the German book trade cannot follow them. A few years pass, and American scholars, infected by the German mania for completeness, are left to pine for some minuscule dissertation printed in some out-of-the-way village of the German empire. To be sure, when the game is captured, it is too likely to be hardly worth the quest; and when it does turn out to be worth having, the sympathetic soul is too often tortured by the knowledge that the copy secured is a present made by the author to some unsympathetic friend. A doctor's dissertation in fine binding is a sad commentary on youthful aspirations. But we must not quarrel with good work, no matter in what form it comes, and the annual reports of the famous Joachimsthal Gymnasium of Berlin are apt to bring good work. The last one for 1884 contains an account of Dr. Georg Schneider's explorations in the MSS. of Diodorus Siculus, an author whose importance does not diminish as the years go by. The only result of Dr. Schneider's researches that can be mentioned here is the special stress laid on Vindobonensis D, which, together with Clæsomontanus F and Vaticanus C, constitute the basis for the text of the first five books.

—In the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for May will be found a curious article by the well-known professor, historian, and political orator, H. von Treitschke, on the Berlin Royal Library. It appears that, apropos of the new building for which the Prussian Parliament recently made a large appropriation, two propositions have been made which excite Professor von Treitschke's disapproval, and to combat which he publishes his article. The first of these is that the building shall include a reading-room, like that of the British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale, in which all books belonging to the library could be consulted; *i. e.*, that circulation should be permitted only in the case of duplicates. The second suggestion is that the library be made an imperial instead of a royal institution, by which means it would not only have larger pecuniary means at its disposal, but, like the national libraries of other countries, would have the so-called copyright "privilege." To the first, Professor von Treitschke objects that it would abolish the one feature in which German libraries are superior to all others, viz., the generosity with which books are lent; and, with true German complacency, he regards the experience of Great Britain, France, and Italy as of no account. The advantages of their system, he thinks, are not the convenience of the public, but only that of the library servants, together with the better preservation of the copies, though he admits that it would be a good thing always to be able to find a given book. In Germany, he remarks, "it has long been the rule that the rich are seldom cultivated, and the cultivated seldom rich," a state of things, he adds, not changed by the great progress in material prosperity; for, though more money is spent for books, it is not for serious works, but for picture-books, encyclopædias, and trashy periodicals. But one great improvement the professor regards as feasible, viz., the preparation for the Berlin library of a universal catalogue of all books contained in other Prussian libraries—an arrangement which, as he truly observes, would enormously facilitate the labor of scholars. As to the new building, it will, he thinks, be a great step in advance, but the additional room will suffice only for twenty years or so, and meanwhile the library suffers greatly from insufficient funds for books and labor. It appears that every fourth book asked for is "out," and every seventh "not in the library."

—The number of text-books for the study of the German classics has been increased by the addition of two volumes of selections from Heine: 'Selections from the Reisebilder and Other Prose Works,' edited with notes and introduction by C. Colbeck, M.A. (Macmillan's "Foreign Classics"), and the 'Harzreise und das Buch Le Grand,' edited for students by Prof. James A. Harrison (Henry Holt & Co.). The former is made up of selections from the 'Harzreise,' 'Das Buch Le Grand,' 'Norderney,' and the various prose writings. The introduction contains a brief but clearly-written and very satisfactory life of the poet. The notes are an admirable commentary upon the language, being especially felicitous in illustrations and explanations drawn from the storehouse of idiomatic and literary use. The literary references are full and in the main exact. An occasional slip appears, as when Duke Ernst, the hero of the popular legend, who died about 1186, is said to have lived from 1551 to 1567, and to have been the friend of John Frederic, Elector of Saxony. Bramarbas (p. 13, l. 25) was a character in one of Holberg's dramas; and the statement that "Prosit" is used most commonly in "Prosit Neujahr," could only have been written by one who had forgotten for the moment its varied and almost universal use. The American volume contains the 'Harzreise' and 'Das Buch Le Grand,' with few omissions, and though more extensive is less satisfactory and less correct. Thus we find on a single page, *Konsiliirt*—that is, the *consilium abeundi*, or rustication—translated 'summoned'; *Schnurren*, watchmen, rendered 'beggars'; *Promotionskutschen*, in the English university sense of "coach," rendered 'tutor,' *Profaxen*, 'profooleries.' Some of the notes are misleading, as those upon *Thran* (p. 13), *lösch-papierig* (p. 15), *Steiger* (p. 17), *Glück auf* (p. 19). But in spite of these errors and others which might be noted, this edition will be found a useful addition to the ordinary school texts for the study of German literature.

—There is much pleasant descriptive and historically-retrospective talk, on countries generally very little known, in a small volume recently published by the Vicomte de Caix de Saint-Aymour, and entitled 'Les Pays Sud-Slaves de l'Austro-Hongrie' (Paris, 1883). The Vicomte, being seized one day in the spring of 1879 with "that thirst for locomotion and adventure which renders civilized life burdensome," suddenly bade adieu to his family and pleasant home, and departed for the land of the Bosniaks, recently occupied by the Austro-Hungarian armies. M. Jules Ferry, then Minister of Public Instruction, was kind enough to bestow upon the excursion the semi-official dignity of an archæological mission, which secured some advantages. The traveller visited Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Dalmatia, returning after two months with notes, fragments, copies of letters, sketches—and a fever. The latter and various occupations prevented an immediate publication of the book of travels now presented to us. The chief attraction of the volume lies, perhaps, in its illustrations of an ethnographic character, which are, however, in great part borrowed from Evans's 'Through Bosnia and Herzegovina during the Insurrection.' The author started with the intention of seeing first and forming his ethnological conclusions afterwards, but he never forgot for a moment that he was wandering among peoples hostile to the domination and influence of the German nation, the inveterate enemy of his country. He is an ardent advocate of South-Slavic independence and federation, and anxious to see Austria-Hungary transformed into a loose union of various nationalities, among which the Slavs are to predominate, instead of the Germans and Magyars, whose present lead in the empire of the Hapsburgs he finds dreadfully oppressive. The great advance in autonomy and general influence which the Czechs, Poles, and other Slavs of that dual empire have

made since 1879, under the new direction imparted to its affairs by the *entente cordiale* which Bismarck and Andrássy brought about between it and the German Empire, seems to have escaped the Frenchman's attention. It is curious to see how he depicts to himself the master-hand of European politics pulling the diplomatic wires in Berlin so as to insure, first, Austria's complete veering around toward the East; next, the Germanization of all her tribes; and, finally, the falling of herself and of the entire Balkan Peninsula, "as a ripe fruit, into the hands of the northern Gargantua, who would then be able to leave the sad banks of the Spree, and transfer his capital to the fertile shores of the beautiful Danube, if not to those of the blue Ægean."

—The papers just published by the English Government as a Parliamentary Blue Book on the departments of agriculture in foreign countries contain a vast amount of information that may be of service to all who are interested in what governments do, or ought to do, in behalf of agriculture. The valuable information here brought together is the result of inquiries prosecuted by British representatives in the countries concerning which the reports are made. The departments described in the volume are those of France, Germany, Austria, Italy, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and the United States. In the language of the report, the object has been to show "the staff employed, the total amounts provided annually by the several states, the various objects on which the expenditure is incurred in each country, with a general review of the results obtained." Of these reports by far the most important are those relating to France and Prussia, each of these nations having peculiarities that are especially worthy of study. In France, even under the Republic, there has been a strong tendency towards the concentration of all agricultural supervision in the hands of a central department. Accordingly, in 1881 a distinct Ministry of Agriculture was provided for, and was given control of the several departments of agriculture, woods and forests, and roads and bridges. What may be called the constitution of this ministry is too elaborate to be described in any brief account. Besides four principal bureaus, there are divisions and subdivisions in confusing number, each devoted to some particular branch of the service. For example, one of the subdivisions has charge of veterinary interests; another, of agricultural societies; another, of advancement in farm practices; another, of silk culture; another, of vine culture; another, of agricultural statistics, etc. For woods and forests there is a separate department of the ministry, also one for agricultural schools. For matters of education there is the same elaborate provision. Besides the National Agronomic Institute at Paris, with twenty professors and twenty-four other teachers, there are four "national" schools, six "practical" schools, and twenty-four "school farms." It is also required that classes for agriculture shall be established in all the normal primary schools. Four chairs of agricultural chemistry and three "nomadic" professorships of arboriculture and horticulture, as well as three veterinary schools, have been provided for by the Government. The school of forestry at Nancy has eleven professors; and there are thirteen agronomic stations in the different parts of the country. Of the 48,000,000 francs required for the administration of the interests of agriculture, 38,500,000 are provided by the income from the state forests, leaving only 6,500,000 to be provided for by direct appropriation. The Ministry of Agriculture in Prussia has been developed by a steady process of evolution since 1848. The organization is very complicated, and but for the admirable results obtained, one would be led to suppose that all vitality would be smothered by officialism. Besides the great agricultural schools, there are sixteen schools of comparatively elementary character for boys, and there are seventeen agricultural stations. The experiments conducted at these stations are of the greatest importance, a large proportion of the knowledge recently gained by agricultural chemists having originated with them. It is evident that an organization like that of France or like that of Prussia would be possible only under an efficient civil service.

—For the fourth time, M. Jules Claretie has gathered together into a stout volume the *chroniques* he contributes weekly to the *Temps*, under the alluring title of 'La Vie à Paris, 1883' (Paris: Havard; New York: F. W. Christern); and this time he has prefixed a little essay on "Politeness in Literature," which is pleasantly written and to the point, like most of this author's writing. But it is to be regretted that M. Claretie cannot extend to a whole people the politeness he is careful to extend to individuals. Throughout these lively pages we seem to detect an increasing acerbity toward the American abroad. Moreover, it is clear that his dislike extends to the American at home, who never did any harm to Paris at large or to M. Claretie personally. This being he terms a Yankee, and he quotes with fear and trembling, and yet with a certain ill-defined acceptance of the prophecy, a definition of "Yankee" which declares him to be the "Parisian of the future." M. Claretie says ditto to M. Renan, when pronouncing Americanism the lion in the path of Parisian progress. For the rest, we find in his volume the usual pertinent anecdotes and interesting autograph letters which distinguish the series. As instructive in a way as anything in the book is his description of one of the play-books of Rachel, from which she studied her lines: the pages of her part worn, marked, soiled, but the rest of the book as clean as though it had never been read.

—The death of Alphonse Lavallée at the early age of forty-nine is announced. M. Lavallée was the most famous of modern European collectors and students of trees, and his arboretum at Segré near Paris, where during the last twenty-five years he has assiduously brought from all parts of the world every tree and shrub he could procure which could be induced to withstand the somewhat trying climate of Central France, was the richest in species and varieties and the most complete in existence. M. Lavallée studied his collection critically and thoroughly. The published catalogue of his arboretum is a model in its way. Later he commenced the publication of the 'Arboretum Segrezianum,' a superbly and accurately illustrated work; in this he described some of the most interesting plants of his collection. Five parts, or about one-quarter of this work, only have appeared. M. Lavallée's latest publication is an illustrated monograph of the large flowering *Clematis*; although at the time of his death he had almost ready for the press a new and enlarged edition of the catalogue of his arboretum and an illustrated monograph of the difficult genus *Cratægas*. His early and entirely unexpected death is a serious loss to his numerous correspondents, the learned societies with which he was actively associated, and to all students and lovers of trees.

—The question of a change in the location of the National Observatory, agitated with somewhat of vigor at Washington a few years ago in relation to our own Naval Observatory, has lately assumed a definite form at Paris, in the proposal of Admiral Mouchez, the Superintendent of the National Observatory of France, that the grounds surrounding the present establishment, and which are only useful astronomically to isolate the building, be for the most part sold, and that the funds derived from the sale be employed in the construction of a new and first-class observatory near Paris, which shall be furnished with all the improvements and accessories suggested by the state of modern astronomical science. Admiral Mouchez indicated in his memoir to the Academy of Sciences that while other national observatories are located outside of cities and towns, the Observatory of Paris was situate in a part of the city becoming more and more populous. He would propose, however, to retain at the present building the museum of general astronomy, an office for computations, and three or four instruments for the purpose of instructing pupils. The Committee of the Academy to whom the question was referred exhibited a strong feeling that no portion of the grounds of the present observatory should be disposed of, and that, if a new observatory or branch of the present establishment were to be founded, it would be preferable to grant anew the appropriations necessary for its organization. When it is recalled that Congress, acting doubtless under the best advice, has so far refused or neglected to proceed with the long-expected removal of our own observatory until it shall be fully apparent that great and sufficient advantages will accrue from the new situation, it will excite no surprise that only two members of the Committee of the French Academy supported Admiral Mouchez's motion with regard to the Paris Observatory, and that the proposal was finally negatived by a large majority.

MARCUS AURELIUS.

Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. By Paul Barron Watson. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1884. 8vo, pp. 338.

MR. WATSON'S 'Marcus Aurelius' is in every way a creditable piece of work, marked by thorough scholarship, industry, and a clear judgment of historical relations, and by an excellent English style; and if here and there the writer has been led to expand and illustrate more than the jejune text of his authorities would warrant, he has at any rate made a readable book. We must take some exception to his arrangement, which is neither purely chronological nor purely topical. Thus the "Thoughts" are brought into the chapter on the Third Marcomannian War, while the general subject of "Legislation," which deserved to be made a chapter by itself, is sandwiched in the middle of an account of the Parthian War. This discussion seems to us, on the whole, the most satisfactory part of the book. The author has taken up in succession the several departments of legislation —changes in procedure, laws regulating personal status and family relations, laws of inheritance, as well as those of a more public character—and has shown by abundant citations from the Digest and other sources the specific reforms attributed to the enlightened legislation of Marcus, in connection with the evils which they were intended to remedy.

In this difficult and skilfully conducted inquiry, it would not be strange if some oversights or errors had been made, and we find, on page 123, a translation and explanation with which we cannot agree. It is upon the subject of the *annona*, or public administration of the corn supplies. Mr. Watson, like many writers, appears to confound this with the public *distribution* of corn, which at any rate made only a part of it; and it is not even certain that this fell to the

duty of the *præfectus annonæ* at all. Writers on political economy sometimes comment upon the certainty and regularity with which food is supplied to a great city through a multitude of independent dealers and marketmen, as being much greater than would be possible under any single or public administration. However this may be at the present day, it was by the opposite method that the enormous population of Rome was fed. And, indeed, it appears to have been only by this public administration that terrible famines were prevented. It is not private enterprise but universal rapid transportation that has put an end to famines in the civilized world. Under the Roman Empire the Government undertook the function of seeing that the markets of the capital were regularly supplied with corn, and, as a result, there appears to have been no serious famine in Rome after that of A. D. 5, which occasioned the public organization of the *annona*. The corn provided by the *præfectus annonæ* was, for the most part, obtained by the regular contributions in kind of the provinces, especially of Africa and Egypt, and was levied through the intervention of the municipalities, which, being territorial divisions of the provinces, had in charge certain parts of the regular administrative machinery of the provinces; when it arrived at Rome it was sold at the market price—a part only being employed in the distributions, whether gratuitous or at a reduced rate. Now the rescript of Marcus Aurelius, *minime æquum est decuriones civibus suis frumentum vilius quam annona exigit vendere*, evidently has reference to this function of the municipalities, and forbids the municipalities to sell *to their own citizens* at less than the market rate fixed by the *præfectus annonæ*. Mr. Watson, in speaking of it, takes no notice of the words *civibus suis*, and, moreover, gives *vilius* the meaning of the modern word *vile*, "of an inferior quality," which is not, we think, warranted either by usage or by the context. Similarly, upon page 98 we find the assertion that a father "possessed the right of having his child divorced after the marriage had taken place." This is of course true of a son *in potestate*; it cannot, however, be true of a daughter, for the daughter passed by marriage out of the control of her father into that of her husband. In relation to the judicial authority of the Emperor (p. 69), it is stated that this was delegated to various officers in different parts of his dominions, but that "all such officers, be they consuls, prætors, ædiles, or tribunes, possessed that authority only by virtue of the *imperium* with which they were clothed." The four classes of officers here mentioned were found only in the city of Rome, the provinces being governed by others; moreover, neither ædiles nor tribunes ever had the *imperium*, nor did they continue, under the empire, to exercise judicial authority.

This brings us to what we must consider the principal defect of the book, which is an inadequate treatment of the condition of society and institutions at this period. We would not have a treatise upon antiquities, but more of the fruits of antiquarian study would have added to the intelligibility and instructiveness of the work. The author does not seem thoroughly acquainted with the outlying knowledge relating to his subject. For example, on page 126, the provision "that every man chosen a member of a colonial senate was bound to accept the duties to which he was elected," is made to seem a slight and unimportant matter; and there is no indication that it marked an important phase of a fundamental revolution, accomplished at this epoch, not merely in the constitution of the municipalities, but in the whole structure of society. The account of the Marcomannian wars is excellent. We wish it could have been introduced by a study of the condition of Germany at this epoch—nearly a century after Tacitus—as thorough and exhaustive as that which is bestowed upon the legislative activity of Marcus Aurelius. The materials are no doubt deficient; still, enough exists to make possible a sketch which would add much to the interest of the military history.

The chapter upon "The attitude of Marcus Aurelius toward Christianity" is an able presentation of the thesis that the main cause of the persecutions under this Emperor was that the Christianity with which he came in contact "was heresy, and he rejected it" (p. 308). This is an interesting point of view, and no doubt brings into prominence a set of facts which is usually overlooked; we cannot but think, however, that its importance is exaggerated. As is shown in the narrative, there were three distinct acts in these persecutions, associated with the names respectively of Justin at Rome, Polycarp at Smyrna, and Blandina at Lyons. Now, at Lyons no doubt the Montanist heresy was rampant, although it does not appear that Blandina was a follower of it; and certainly no heresy is to be ascribed to Justin or Polycarp. Of course his meaning is that the numerous heresies, or diverse schools of thought among the Christians, had prejudiced the popular mind and the mind of the Emperor against the entire body: just as "the variations of Protestantism" have been a chief ground of accusation against the Protestant body. And it may well be that this had some influence. But we must remember that the pagan world cared nothing for dogma, and that the dissensions among the Christians cannot have affected their minds as Protestant sectarianism scandalizes devout believers in the Catholic doctrines. What the Roman people and magistrates saw first of all was a body of persons holding an exclusive faith which made them disloyal to the primary idea of the empire, the cult of the Emperor: and this made them bad citizens. At the same time, Mr. Watson appears to have proved that these persecutions under Marcus Aurelius did not emanate from the Emperor himself, and that we cannot therefore ascribe to him any deep hostility to Christianity or any settled policy of persecution. He points (p. 301) to the significant fact that this Emperor was held in high esteem by Christian writers, such as the composers of the Sibyllic oracles and Zonaras.

The philosophy of Marcus Aurelius, however, by far the most vital part of his memory, demands a different and fuller treatment from that which has here been given to it. Mr. Matthew Arnold has compared Emerson to him, as being "the friend of those who live in the spirit," and at the same time he (followed by Mr. Morley) denies Emerson the title of *philosopher*. In truth, this title belongs rightfully almost as little to the wise Roman Emperor as to the wise American citizen. There were as large *lacunæ* and as numerous illogical associations of ideas in one mind as in the other. Nevertheless, we talk with reason of the philosophy of Marcus Aurelius; for, so far as the word is used to indicate a scheme of personal life founded upon noble endeavor, so far is it peculiarly applicable to his thoughts. But if it were held to imply a well-considered system of unquestionable truths, we should lose sight, in attributing such a system to him, of an essential quality of the Emperor's mind, and of the inconsistency of some of his admonitions with some of the fundamental facts of humanity; facts not unrecognized by himself. The quality of mind we ignore is the habit so seduously cultivated by him of viewing all things from a height; the facts which oppose his wisdom are those which result from each man being one of a crowd.

In one of the most inspiring passages of his writing, he defines his own philosophy thus:

"What, then, is that which is able to conduct a man? One thing and only one—philosophy. And this consists in keeping the dæmon within a man pure from all stain, superior to pains and pleasures, doing nothing without a purpose, nor yet falsely and with hypocrisy, not feeling the need of another man's doing or not doing anything; and, besides, accepting all that happens and all that is allotted as coming from thence, wherever it is, from whence he himself came; and, finally, waiting for death with a cheerful mind."

But how can this "philosophy" be brought into accord with those facts of mutual dependence and interaction among men, on the force of which no one has insisted with more earnestness than Marcus Aurelius? "The man who is such as no longer to delay being among the number of the best," he says, "remembers that every rational animal is his kinsman, and that to care for all men is according to man's nature." And again: "We are made for coöperation," he says, "like feet, like hands, like eyelids, like the rows of the upper and lower teeth." How, then, his listeners ask, can we ever be removed from "feeling the need of another man's doing or not doing anything"? or, as he says elsewhere, "that a man's wrongful act is nothing to thee"? "Thou existest as a part," is his constant refrain; ". . . for of this common nature every particular nature is a part, as the nature of the leaf is a part of the nature of the plant." But he immediately adds: "The nature of the leaf is part of a nature which . . . is subject to be impeded; but the nature of man is part of a nature which is not subject to impediments."

In what sense are we "not subject to impediments"? In one sense, he says, because "all is opinion"; and "Take away thy opinion and then there is taken away the complaint 'I have been harmed.' Take away the complaint 'I have been harmed,' and the harm is taken away." And he adds, "I can have that opinion about anything which I ought to have." "In a manner," to use his own phrase, this is true; but it is a truth of which the exact opposite is no less true. This opposite truth—that some influences are essentially harmful to man's nature and some essentially beneficial—is by us in these days unquestionable. The only question for us—a question so intricate as to be eternally unanswerable—is *what* is harmful, what is beneficial to us. In another sense—shall we call it a more practical sense?—we are, according to Marcus Aurelius, "not subject to impediments," because

"that which rules within, when it is according to nature, is so affected with respect to the events which happen that it always easily adapts itself to that which is possible and is presented to it. . . . So far as some men make themselves obstacles to my proper acts, man becomes to me one of the things which are indifferent, no less than the sun or wind or a wild beast. Now it is true that these may affect my action, but they are no impediments to my affects and disposition, which have the power of acting conditionally and changing. . . . For the mind requires no definite material, . . . and it makes a material for itself out of that which opposes it as fire lays hold of what falls into it; . . . when the fire is strong it soon appropriates to itself the matter which is heaped on it, . . . and rises higher by means of this very material."

Nothing can be more admirable than these beliefs, nothing can be more true; but their light is useless and their strength is idle in those dark hours of "mortal moral strife," when truths even are slaughtered by the power of Truth itself—that supreme Truth whose mysteriousness encircles and enclasps all the mysteries of our existence, the mysteries of pains and pleasures, of serenity and agitation. In these personal conflicts with Truth, when, like Jacob, we cry,

"I will not let Thee go except Thou bless me," it surely is made clear to us that pain—pain of body or pain of soul—man does not truly conquer by asserting its powerlessness. And not less that the power of pleasure to nourish, to inspire, and to humanize the soul is felt by the noblest natures.

Calmness is well, but calmness is not the best that life can give us. Rather it is indeed only what life can *give* us: it is not life itself. It is not that Life, victor over Death, which lies in *living*, in the responsive vibrations of the whole nature to all the inseparable causes of enjoyment and suffering. That the anguish of imaginative sympathy with universal sorrows—the "majestic pain" of humanity—was as little known as the agonies of personal despair to the imperial wisdom of Marcus Aurelius, has countless proofs. "When thou art troubled about anything," he says, "thou hast forgotten this"—this, the very *remembrance* of which is to the souls of to-day the cause of deepest trouble—"everything which happens, always happened so, and will happen so, and now happens so everywhere." From all that perturbs the soul he took refuge in lofty isolation; all that crushes it he lifted with supreme strength and gave in keeping to that Nature, the sum of Being, whose enduring might encompasses and receives our transient existences. The outcry against the incomprehensibleness of the Almighty which found voice in the Book of Job would have seemed to him irrational rebelliousness.

In a moment when his eyes were fixed exclusively on one aspect of things, he writes: "Nothing happens to any man which he is not formed by nature to bear." But at another time he says with more justness, though still without the reasonableness of complete knowledge: "Everything which happens . . . thou art formed by nature to bear it, or thou art not formed by nature to bear it": if the first, "do not complain, but bear it"; if the second, still "do not complain, for it will perish after it has consumed thee." He was under a delusion—must we not think?—who supposed that in that "for" lies any availing aid to endurance. And that "it" covers but a small number of the various forms of human suffering arising from what "happens": no deep griefs, in truth, but those which death causes. Such words, whatever power they may have had for him, are meaningless to the great multitude of those who are "consumed" by woe, even the very woes he personally knew or others as bitter—the fathers and mothers disgraced by their children, as he by Commodus; the husbands of women like Faustina; or unloved wives, or forsaken friends, or those bereft of their beloved by insanity; or the lovers of men embruted by drinking, degraded by women, led astray by money, weakened by the world; or those "consumed" in fighting for the poor and oppressed the endless battle against injustice. The innumerable army of martyrs was unseen by the noble spirit of the Emperor.

Neither did his mind feel or perceive those unanswerable questionings which are the martyrdom of the intelligence. Contrast the thoughts of Pascal with the thoughts of Marcus Aurelius: if these are loftier, those are the more profound. And the difference is not due so much to the direct influences upon the two men, as to the eternal individualities of personal nature. It is not merely ancient and modern conceptions which they represent. Plato, better than Marcus Aurelius, would have understood Pascal. Marcus Aurelius says, "All that is from the gods is full of providence; . . . nor is it possible that it [the nature of the universe] has made so great a mistake, either through want of power or want of skill, that good and evil should happen indiscriminately to the good and the bad. . . . Therefore they [death and life, honor and dishonor, pain and pleasure] are neither good nor evil"; but, when we read this, we remember that Plato believed, "God, if he be good, is not the author of all things, as the many assert, but he is the cause of a few things only, and not of most things that occur to men; for few are the goods of human life, and many are the evils; and the good only is to be attributed to him: of the evil other causes have to be discovered." We must not seek direct aid from Marcus Aurelius in the search which the human mind has entered upon in these days for the "other causes" of the evils of human life. But no voice has uttered with more authority than his, words which, even while we walk in paths unknown to him, may guide us on our way. And no intelligence has seen more clearly the highest aims of human life. "The prime principle in man's constitution is the social," he says, and adds: "Take pleasure and rest in this, in passing from one social act to another social act, thinking of God."

RECENT NOVELS.

An Average Man. By Robert Grant. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The San Rosario Ranch. By Maud Howe. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

A Roman Singer. By F. Marion Crawford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

John Holdsworth, Chief Mate. By W. Clark Russell. New York: Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Remarkable History of Sir Thomas Upmore, Bart., M. P. By R. D. Blackmore. New York: Harper's Franklin Square Library.

There Was Once a Man. By R. H. Newell (Orpheus C. Kerr). New York: Our Continent Library. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Phœbe. By the author of 'Rutledge.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In some recent French memoirs, the author bewails the fate of a friend whose book, one in every way worthy of success, passed by unhonored, unknown, because it had the ill-fortune to appear just upon the eve of the *Coup d'État*. The author of 'An Average Man' would certainly have preferred that New York and Wall Street should not have offered so signal an illustration of the temptations and dangers of an ambitious career at the very moment that his story reached its catastrophe. A work of great genius would only have been illuminated, heightened in effect by the intense light of reality, but Mr. Grant's is but a puppet-show, in drapery and setting that look faded and distorted when thrown into such imperative comparison with things as they are. The story is of the oldest: it is the theme of the model Sunday-school book. The two young men—one always doing good, the other always evil—have walked side by side in fiction these many years. It is all the worse, then, that they should have been taken in hand by a writer so devoid of imagination as Mr. Grant. Even hackneyed incidents can be helped by variety, but the tintype is bestowed on both heroines, the same roses appear again and again, while lunch and tea, Bar Harbor and Newport, differ only in name. Worse than this, all the people talk alike. It would be something if they were clever, but the author throughout is in the same strait as his own good hero: "The wished-for epigram failed to respond to his need." The difference in tone between the best and the worst is scarcely perceptible. The sentences of the circus-rider's daughter and of the child of generations of culture could be interchanged without detection. The whole object is to show the villany of which a refined nature, carefully educated, is capable. The difficulty is, that in Mr. Grant's portraiture the refinement is entirely wanting. He makes the further mistake of suiting his own style to the low plane of his characters. He need not go further back than Thackeray to learn that the satirist, of all others, must stand plainly apart from his work. By no possibility should his voice be confused with the voices of those he condemns. We object always to the "purple patch," whether in stuff or style; but to have religion or religious feeling pieced upon a story as in this is to the last degree reprehensible. The scene with the crucifix in Ethel Fielding's boudoir is sacrilege—nothing less. As to the general argument that the average is an average of badness, the mere fact of the existence of civilized society is proof to the contrary.

'The San Rosario Ranch' is a beautiful survival of the old romantic school. The hero comes riding in on a gray mustang with a dead stag lying on the saddle before him. "Taking her outstretched hand (the châtelaine's) in his own, he dropped upon one knee and kissed it respectfully. 'My dear lady, I have come to wish you the happiest New Year and to join in your loving cup,'" etc. Even Siegfried fought with but one *Wurm*, but this knight kills two, and rattlesnakes at that. He is an artist too grand to paint for money, and nurses a solitary grief in the old tower of the mission church. The lady is a fitting companion, in sea-green cashmere, with "manifold strings of tiny seed-pearls." "She has a strange, white, luminous face, . . . strange hands, that made her cheek look brown by comparison. The fingers were long and taper, at the tip of each a drop as of water ready to fall from the pink digits." She has had the great London world at her feet, and has broken her heart in the woes of a secret marriage to a man who already had an insane wife; but she has regained calm and peace of mind in an æsthetic home at Venice, where she has made herself the centre of a group of admiring and sympathetic friends. Grieved at the third marriage of her father, she accepts the invitation of a half-brother and travels "from the coast of the Adriatic Sea to the shores of the Pacific Ocean, with no companion save her maid and her own painful thoughts." All this has happened before she is twenty-one. She has had time withal to provide herself with a miscellaneous philosophy. On her arrival, when asked to join in family prayers, she replies: "Being an agnostic, I should hardly be in sympathy with your service." Next morning she unpacks her sixteen boxes and sets up "a little majolica shrine with a figure of San Antonio" and lays before it "a parchment missal of the fifteenth century, with beautiful illuminations," a mouse-gnawed Dante, and "Lear's Nonsense Book." Alas! that modern realism demands in this romantic picture such prosaic details as "a dressing-bag filled with ivory brushes and silver-topped bottles engraven with M. A." We spare our readers the story—escapes from drowning and from abduction, imprisonment and trial for life, in which the *beau rôle* is always the heroine's. The hero's rôle is to be always too late. The novel is an echo of echoes, reproduced in high-sounding platitudes or in a gushing naïveté. Memorable for its nonsense it may be, but few persons would covet such distinction.

We fully agree with the general opinion that 'A Roman Singer' is far better than either of the author's earlier novels. The story itself is of that simple type which no amount of repetition makes quite stale. A fair lady, a tyrannical

father, a rich wooer, and an impassioned and at last successful lover, make a group always sure to attract sympathy. Into all his tales Mr. Crawford puts movement, and much of their vogue is due to the fondness of people for what they call "go." In the garrulous talk of a fond old man there is a good deal to increase this effect, and so far the choice of that form for the story was well-advised; but in every other aspect it is a mistake which betrays the 'prentice hand. There is no older canon for guidance in narrative composition than that the soliloquy can be used in a narrative only when the speaker is the central figure. If any other personage attempts it, a great deal can be given only at second-hand, much must be dragged in, and some things cannot decently be told at all. Mr. Crawford proved at the outset that any such trifles as literary rules would be no hindrance to him; so he manages his queerly constructed tale to suit himself, letting the old Grandi describe in full detail the most intimate scenes, and then pulling him up with an apology or an explanation. "You cannot suppose that I know exactly what was in the letter." Grandi, when he is Grandi, is a delightful old man, but his voice is lost very often in Mr. Crawford's own, especially when one comes to the moral reflections. These might easily be interpolated in any of the previous books, and no one be the wiser. We had supposed Mr. Crawford's resources wider, but there are the same "waves of hair like spun silver," the same parade of trite catchwords, the same grandiloquent enumeration of nothings. "She rose and swept her silken morning gown between the chairs and tables, till she reached a deep divan on the other side of the room. Then she sat down." Was she likely to sweep the dress *over* the tables? What was fantastic in "Mr. Isaacs" becomes broadly grotesque in "Baron Ahasuerus Benoni." Grotesqueness in a modern novel is out of place, and here it is exaggerated to repulsiveness. Nino and Hedwig are undeniably charming in the grace of their youth, and there are more and better glimpses of Italy than in 'To Leeward'; but when all is said Mr. Crawford has only the cleverness, and, we fear, the trickiness of the scene-painter. Effective, brilliant for a moment, upon study it shows itself staring and gaudy. When Millets are exchanged for the "flats" and "sets" of a theatre Mr. Crawford's productions will find a permanent place in literature.

A solid, well-built story never shows to better advantage than by the side of the work of the tyro or of the adventurer. The common reading world is too willing to accept the theory that there is no art of fiction—that to write a successful novel is only a lucky accident. A lucky accident it may be that makes a book talked of by everybody for a day, but all the literature of fiction fails to supply an instance where permanent success has followed anything but actual hard work. There are numerous instances where a first novel has found instant and permanent favor, but it was from a hand that had been carefully trained in some not alien task. Mr. Clark Russell and Mr. Blackmore are always sure of a reading. The former proves that his resources for a sea-story are not yet exhausted, though he finds it well to vary his subject by interweaving an Enoch Arden incident, and by making his plot turn upon that alleged fact of mental constitution—the possibility of the total loss of memory while all other faculties remain unimpaired.

Mr. Blackmore's 'Tommy Upmore' might bear for a second title "A Tale of the Real and the Unreal," though his deft and facile pen contrives to make the supernatural traits of his hero as solidly material as the whimsical oddities of his parents, who are homely folk of the soap-boiling interest. No living writer has tried so successfully such different themes in fiction as Mr. Blackmore, and no one can maintain better than he a style devised for a special book. Some of this story shows him at his happiest. It does not pretend to the romantic interest of 'Alice Lorraine,' nor has it anything to compare with the archaic style of 'The Maid of Sker'; but every page is amusing, and it is almost wonderful that, pure "skit" as it is, it should strike with such true aim so many ways at once.

The original design of 'There was Once a Man' appears to have been to do honor to that noble Englishman, "the last Crusader," Sir James Brooke, Rajah of Sarahwak, in Borneo. The author has frustrated himself by his own capacity for story-telling. An heroic figure like the Rajah, or a promising monkey, furnish themes equally pleasing to him. The Rajah's deeds are nearly buried beneath the adventures of an American family, the craze of a naturalist over "the missing link," and the tracking of a will lost for forty years in the wilds of Borneo. Any one interested in his career will learn ten times as much of him from the sketch published under the editorship or direction of Miss Yonge than from the five hundred pages here printed. They have no literary characteristic whatever, unless an indefinite continuance of commonplace improbabilities (the phrase is not a paradox) be one. Still, while Mayne Reid is read and 'Kaloolah' is remembered, it cannot be said that nobody will care for such a book.

'Rutledge,' we have heard, still survives in successive small circles that have more youth than literary experience. For their sakes, 'Phœbe' should be distinctly condemned. The early incidents are wantonly shocking, and all the rest would be possible only in a world where neither logic nor morals exist.

Property and Progress: or, A Brief Inquiry into Contemporary Social Agitation in England. By W. H. Mallock. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It is safe to say that those who are acquainted with the writings of Mr. Henry George, or of Mr. H. M. Hyndman, will take up this book with very agreeable anticipations. Every one that has the spirit of a man loves to see a good stand-up fight, where everything is fairly conducted and no one cries quarter. It is true that not many men can safely measure swords with Mr. Mallock when he is upon his own ground. There are passages in some of his critical writings that are of almost incomparable brilliancy. Mr. George, however, is entirely capable of taking care of himself. He needs no sympathy even if he deserved it. Yet in spite of these favoring circumstances, we must confess that our expectation of enjoyment has not been completely fulfilled. Bayle tells of a certain Turkish Ambassador who said, after being taken to a tournament: "If it is for sport, it is too much; if for earnest, it is not enough," and we are tempted to make a similar comment upon this performance. Its title is a happy inspiration. It is almost too good for the book, which is not a connected treatise, but a reprint of three articles from the *Quarterly Review*. They are in the traditional *Quarterly* style, and Mr. Mallock, when he chooses, is master of a better style than that. There is a little too much of the elaborate preliminary announcement of the total overthrow that the reviewer is about to bring upon his adversary, and of the triumphant flourish that calls attention to the thoroughness with which the bloody work has been completed. Such sentences as these are hardly worthy of Mr. Mallock: "Mr. George delights in illustrations, and with illustrations we have answered him. His are exceptional, and do not prove his point; ours are normal and homely, and altogether disprove it." Surely readers might be allowed to judge for themselves in such matters.

We should be giving an altogether wrong impression, however, if we led any one to suppose that Mr. Mallock did not most completely refute his antagonists. He has not replied to them as a trained economist would have done, but their arguments were not addressed to economists. He has replied to them in a way that is most effective, for his purpose at least, by showing the absurdities in which they have involved themselves. He shows that they are wrong, but we do not think that he is equally successful in showing why they are wrong. Nothing could be better than his refutation of Mr. George's theory of wages up to a certain point, but when he comes to state the conditions that actually determine the rate of wages, he makes some statements that Mr. George would be likely to use against him with effect. His reply to Mr. George's views on the population theory hardly goes to the root of the matter, but is perhaps more effective as a reply on account of its moderation. We cannot resist quoting a portion of it. Mr. George having remarked that a country like Pitcairn's Island offered an exceptional case, Mr. Mallock continues:

"However true may be his own theory generally, it is, at all events, false there. He has driven Malthus ignominiously out of Europe and America; but the dishonored philosopher has found refuge at any rate, where to this day he reigns like a fallen angel, and Mr. George descries him in the remote Southern seas, still sitting on his dolorous throne, and watching one wretched population pressing against the limits of subsistence. In Pitcairn's Island, as Mr. George admits, Mr. George is wrong, and Mr. Malthus is right. Now what is the reason of this? The reason, says Mr. George, is that the island is 'cut off from communication with the rest of the world.' Plainly, however, he cannot mean this statement absolutely. Pitcairn's Island is not in the moon. It is washed by a terrestrial sea. Ships have touched at it, and ships do touch at it. All, then, that Mr. George can possibly mean, is not that it is cut off from communication with the rest of the world, but that it cannot communicate with it without a certain effort and difficulty. But Pitcairn's Island is not peculiar in this. The condition is essentially that of every other country and the difference between it and them is one of degree only."

It requires but a moderate amount of philosophy to view with calmness the sweeping attacks made by communists upon private property as an institution. However specious a case they may make out—and no one that ever owned so much as a sheep would be convinced by their arguments—the matter is to be settled by force, not by reason, and the holders of property have, and always will have, sufficient force to protect themselves against robbery. Particular forms of property, however, may be imperilled by being attacked separately, and this is why Mr. George's proposals have excited so much attention. Mr. Hyndman, therefore, who is the foe not only of landlords, but also of capitalists, is much less dangerous than Mr. George, who is the foe of landlords alone. He does not on that account fare any better at Mr. Mallock's hands. Mr. Mallock has done something as a prophet himself, and there is no more important prophetic function than that of exposing false prophets. Mr. Hyndman's statistics are very easily shown to be a tissue of impudent falsehoods, and his reasoning from them is refuted with more pains than it deserves. No intelligent person needs to be told that such a statement as this is a lie: "The average age of the well-to-do has now reached fifty-five; the average age of the workers is twenty-nine."

Mr. Mallock furnishes some calculations of his own, which, not having his statistics to examine for ourselves, we cannot vouch for, but which are enough at any rate to silence a good deal of idle clamor. Taking the gross annual income of England as estimated by four very good authorities, Giffen, Baxter, Mulhall, and Levi, it appears that during the last forty years the richer classes—those having incomes of more than £150—have increased in numbers 200 per cent., while the poorer classes have increased by but 20 per cent. Moreover, upon the average, every family among the poorer classes had in 1843 about £40 of income, while it has now between £95 and £100. So much for the cry that the poor are growing poorer; as to the cry that the rich are growing richer, it appears that "the class with incomes between £150 and £300 has increased during the past thirty years by 148 per cent.; the class with incomes between £300 and £600 by 130 per cent.; the class with incomes between £600 and £1,000 by 77 per cent; and the class with incomes above £1,000, by 76 per cent." But we ought not to mar the argument by taking extracts from it. Of course every one reads what Mr. Mallock writes for the sake of the style; and, apart from that consideration, those who are interested in social questions will be very well repaid for whatever time they may spend upon this book.

Vacation Cruising in Chesapeake and Delaware Bays. By J. T. Rothrock, M.D. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. 262.

YACHTING in Chesapeake Bay, if we may judge from the experience of Professor Rothrock, is attended with more than ordinary difficulties. The seeker after pleasure or rest must expect the constant recurrence of baffling winds, sudden storms, rough seas, and harbors though numerous yet often hard to find and dangerous to enter. Notwithstanding all these obstacles to perfect enjoyment, a vacation could be well spent in a month's cruise along the shores of the bay from Elk River to Fortress Monroe. Though our author gives us but few descriptions, except when upon the James River which he ascended to City Point, yet it is evident that both the country and the people present peculiar points of interest to a visitor from the North. It is to be regretted that Professor Rothrock has not given more local color to his book. It would have added not only to its interest, but also to its value. Had he introduced, for instance, some more detailed account of the James River region, the quality of the land, its price, the crops, the market, and the feelings of the people toward Yankees, he might have done a real service to young men who are seeking Southern homes. As it is, there is little more than the names of the different headlands and harbors, interspersed with newspaper scraps, quotations, and many excessively commonplace reflections on a great variety of subjects utterly unconnected with the subject of his book. Even in treating of the natural history of the regions through which he passes, the Professor fails to interest, less, we are inclined to think, from lack of ability than from want of painstaking. The following fact, however, is new to us:

"Squids' eggs are those half-jelly-like, olive-shaped bodies which one finds so often in September adhering to the shells of the living oyster. Some people call them sea-grapes, but the oyster-men have fearful names for them. They are little, if any, heavier than water, and hence, when agitated by a heavy storm, the water sweeps over the cove bottom, and the light bunches of sea-grapes float away bodily along with the oysters, which they help to buoy up. The oyster-farmer may thus find his whole crop carried away by the wind and waves."

Of the people whom he saw, both white and black, he speaks favorably. But he is at his best when he confines himself to yachts and the theory and practice of yachting. His advice to amateurs seems very sensible and worthy the attention of all who intend to cruise in those waters. He insists upon the absolute necessity of a careful and constant watch of the barometer, and lays an especial emphasis on the fact, often overlooked, that a sudden rise is as surely indicative of wind as a sudden fall. With what he says in regard to the advantages of yachting, in giving entire rest to the wearied body and over-taxed brain, we thoroughly agree, and can commend his book to all needing such relief after a peculiarly trying winter and spring. As to the expense we will let him speak for himself: "A party of, say, four congenial companions could make such or more distant [trips], in a larger boat, spending a month in doing so, and, after paying for the vessel, hiring a captain and a cook, purchasing the provisions, still find that the expense for each man did not exceed $50 for the whole trip"

Haushalt der arbeitenden Klassen. Von Paul Ballin. Berlin: F. Luckhardt.

THIS is a careful study of the economical literature on the subject of the earnings and expenses of representative German workmen. The wage-earning classes are estimated at 38 per cent. of the total population, and nine-tenths of these follow agricultural pursuits, and about 60 per cent. of these again are day laborers. Land-holders, mainly owners of only a house without ground enough to support a family, vary from 23 per cent. in East Prussia to 68 per cent. in the Rhine Provinces, marking distinctly the difference between the poverty of the region of great land-owners and the comparative comfort of the district where men own their own homes. The average wages of the workingmen are about $180 a year, as against about four times that amount in this country. Analysis shows that workingmen spend nearly 70 per cent. of their earnings in the purchase of the necessaries of life. The revolution of 1848 was more successful socially than politically, and ever since it has been a serious problem with all European governments, how to bring wages up to the requirements of living. Berlin and Frankfort and other German towns, large and small, have set on foot inquiries as to the daily earnings and expenses of types of different classes of their population, and from these returns Ballin has chosen examples showing how closely the balance is struck, and exactly what must be the wages which will feed and clothe and house and nurse and bury a German household.

The compulsory economy enforced by the high cost of living and the low wages in Germany, is manifested by the small proportion of meat in the food of the working classes, although there are some curious local habits that must puzzle an American with his few but hearty meals. In Berlin a first breakfast, a second breakfast, dinner, a vesper meal, supper, beer, brandy, and tobacco are all set down as among the necessaries of life. On the other hand, the universal custom of membership in beneficent societies, for aid in sickness and death, might well be adopted here. The ownership of most of the mines in Germany by the Government has the advantage of compensating for low wages, by free medical attendance and medicine and funeral expenses, as well as by pensions for disabled workmen and provision for their widows and orphans, a custom dating back at least as far as the fourteenth century, and enforced by the Mining Laws of the country as late as 1854. The recent gradual reforms in Germany as to legal restriction on the employment of women and children, are described by the author at length, but it is evident that a long time will elapse before there is any such exemption from hard labor as makes this country the paradise of women. Altogether the book might well be translated as material for study, by Congressional committees in search of information.

The Story of the Coup d'État. By M. de Maupas (former Minister). Freely translated, with notes, by Albert D. Vandam. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

IT is difficult to conceive what benefit the American reader will derive from the perusal of an apology of the indefensible *Coup d'État* through which Louis Napoleon Bonaparte became Emperor of the French thirty-two years ago, unless it be that he may learn from it how the President of a Republic may trample upon the Constitution, and, by trickery and violence, deprive the people of their legal means of redress. That such was not the object of the translator is apparent from his notes. Evidently, he believes in M. de Maupas, and it is unwittingly that he has illustrated the Italian proverb: *Traduttore, traditore.*

The ex-Prefect of Police seems to have had in view his own glorification as much as the justification of his Imperial master. The naïveté with which he describes the progress of the liberticide plot, while trying to show that the "Prince-President," in self-defence and from a laudable desire to "save" France, was compelled to violate his sacred oath and oft-repeated pledges, is equalled only by the complacency with which he dwells on the important rôle that he, the Prefect, played in the conspiracy. Saint-Arnaud and Morny are thrown entirely into the shade. Maupas is the *Deus ex machina* who pulled the wires and secured the happy result. The testimony offered by M. de Maupas makes up a strong case against his client. The situation was this: The Legislative Assembly suspected the Prince-President's motives. Their suspicions received sufficient confirmation to justify his impeachment before the High Court of Justice. This was the legal means provided by the Constitution, and the leaders of the Opposition were preparing to resort to it. Now, were those suspicions well founded? Speaking of the services rendered by Colonel Fleury, M. de Maupas says:

"In fact, for more than a year, since it had become patent that the conflict between the two great powers [the President and the Legislative Assembly] could only be solved by an appeal to force, the Prince had been compelled to gather around him an army devoted to his cause. Colonel Fleury had served in Africa; the fame of his bravery as much as the charm of his intellect had created a good many affectionate and intimate relations between himself and the generals and superior officers of the army. Endowed with rare penetration, he knew every one's weak and strong side. He knew to what degree such and such an officer, such and such a regiment could be relied upon; one might say that, thanks to his recollections of Africa, he had chosen one by one almost the whole of the generals of the Army of Paris. The most important of his selections was assuredly that of General de Saint-Arnaud. It was, in fact, the young Colonel who, at his own suggestion, had been charged by the Prince to go and seek General de Saint-Arnaud in Africa, and to ascertain his feelings with regard to the great events that might eventually take place, and to finally prevail upon him to promise his coöperation. It was also Colonel Fleury who had designated the regiments that garrisoned Paris on the second December; and his choice had been a good one."

The wonder is that the Prince's adversaries allowed so carefully prepared a plot to mature. They were divided; they hesitated, and were lost. But we cannot follow M. de Maupas any further; we have given his book already more attention than it is worth.

On the Nature of Light. By Professor G. G. Stokes, M.A., F.R.S. London: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

THIS little book is one of a class quite numerous in England, but not often produced in any other country, of which the object is to make known the methods and results of scientific investigation to those who are not professionally educated in the subject. In the case of natural science, where no knowledge of mathematics is necessary to understand the reasoning, such attempts have a high educational value; but where all the explanations and results depend upon the interpretation of mathematical formula, the possibility of giving the non-mathematical reader a really clear idea of the method of investigation may be doubted. We must, however, concede to the work before us the merit of going as far as it is possible to go in the attainment of this object. It comprises a course of four lectures delivered at Aberdeen, under a very old foundation, the income of which was applied to this purpose. The lecturer is one of the few greatest physicists not only of England but of the world, who unites with scientific ability an unusual power of clear and concise statement. We may describe the result as an exposition in non-mathematical language of the most remarkable phenomena of light and of the explanation of these phenomena by the hypothesis that light is an undulatory motion in a universal ether. Just how far down in the scale of education and intellect this exposition can be mastered it is difficult to say; but we know of no better manual for the study of one who has had some elementary training in physics and desires to learn the subject without going through any difficult mathematical process. The professional student would be better pleased with the work if it went a good deal further in the discussion and explanation of recent theories respecting the luminiferous ether. Indeed, it seems surprising that Professor Stokes, who has devoted so much attention to the subject, should have passed over the difficulties associated with it, and the methods of explaining them. For example, the electro-magnetic theory of light, which is suggested by the singular agreement between the velocity of light and the velocity of propagation of an electro-magnetic disturbance, is not alluded to. The various discussions which have arisen about the combined results of aberration and diffraction and the velocities of different colored rays in passing through a transparent medium are also passed over in silence. The course is to be continued during the next two years, and it is to be hoped that the author will avail himself of that opportunity to complete his work in these respects.

Cicero de Senectute (on Old Age). Translated with an Introduction and Notes. By Andrew P. Peabody. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1884.

DR. PEABODY here gives us the second instalment of his translation of Cicero, of which we noticed the *De Officiis* some months ago. He prefaces it with a judicious and appreciative introduction, including short accounts of Cato, Atticus, and Scipio. Some useful notes are appended to the text. There are many translations in English of this fascinating treatise of Cicero; two of them famous for bibliographical rather than literary interest, printed as they respectively were by William Caxton and Benjamin Franklin. It is not probable, however, that any translator has ever felt the meaning and beauty of the *De Senectute* more thoroughly than Dr. Peabody. He recognizes very thoroughly what a romance it all is: that Cicero's Cato is as little like the red-haired, green-eyed old Censor, whom Proserpine was loth to admit into Hades, as Cicero himself tells us Xenophon's Cyrus is to the fierce and crafty founder of the Persian Empire. It may be questioned if the translator's own innate refinement can accept the coarseness which was ingrained in even the most spiritual of the Romans. In the 11th section he would have done better, we think, to keep up the athletic metaphor by literally translating *desudans atque elaborans* "while I sweat down and work off"; and these compound verbs suggest another place where it seems to us no authority has hit the force of the compound *depugno*. In the 10th section Cato, speaking of his last military service, says, *depugnavi apud Thermopylas, i. e.*, "fought it out," "finished my fighting," like *deprœliantes* (Horace, Carm., I. ix. 11). In the first section Dr. Peabody appears to have overlooked the view that *Ille vir* is not Ennius himself, but an Epirote guide of Flamininus. One has to look closely to find anything to criticise in this pretty book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Advantages and Necessity of Frequent Communion, Asserted and Proved. By A. C. Detroit: L. F. Kilroy. $1.
Anderson, D. "Scenes" in the Commons. Scribner & Welford.
Barnard, F. A. P. The Imaginary Metrological System of the Great Pyramid of Gizeh. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Batterson, Rev. Dr. H. G. A Sketch-Book of the American Episcopate during 100 Years. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Blake, H. G. O. Summer: from the Journal of Henry D. Thoreau. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bose, Ram C. Brahmoism; or, History of Reformed Hinduism, from its Origin in 1830 to the Present Time. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.25.
Brackenbury, Col. C. B. Frederick the Great. G. P Putnam's Sons.
Bradley, Dean. Aids to Writing Latin Prose. London: Rivingtons.
Brooks, N. Our Baseball Club, and How It Won the Championship. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Brownell, Brig.-Gen. W. H. Formations for Street Riot Duty. Army and Navy Journal.
Byrne, E. F. A Fair Country Maid. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library, 20 cents.
Carpenter, H. The Mother's and Kindergartner's Friend. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Cholmondely-Pennell. From Grave to Gay. Selections from the Author's Poems. George J. Coombes. $2.
Coleridge, S. T. Aids to Reflection and Confessions of an Inquiring Spirit. Scribner & Welford.
Coues, Elliott, Ph.D. Key to North American Birds. Second Edition, Revised to Date. With which are included General Ornithology and Field Ornithology. Profusely Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Creighton, L. The Government of England. London: Rivingtons.
Daudet, Alphonse. Sapho. Mœurs Parisiennes. Paris: G. Charpentier et Cie. 1884. New York: Westermann.
Davin, N. F. Eos: a Prairie Dream, and Other Poems. Ottawa: Citizen Printing and Publishing Company.
Dole, C. F. The Citizen and the Neighbor; or, Men's Rights and Duties as They Live Together in the State and in Society. Boston: Unitarian Sunday School Society. 25 cents.
Domett, H. W. A History of the Bank of New York, 1784–1884. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Falkner, W. C. Rapid Ramblings in Europe. Philadelphia. J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.
Forbes, Archibald. Chinese Gordon: a Succinct Record of his Life. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Gautier, Judith. The Usurper. An Episode in Japanese History. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Goethe, J. W. Early and Miscellaneous Letters including Letters to his Mother. Scribner & Welford.
Harris, Joel Chandler. Mingo, and Other Sketches in Black and White. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Hopkins, Ellice. Work amongst Workingmen. Fifth Edition. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Howe, Maud. The San Rosario Ranch. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Hughes, T. G. T. T.: Gone to Texas. Letters from Our Boys. Macmillan & Co.
Jewett, Sarah Orne. A Country Doctor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Johnston, H. H. The River Congo, from its Mouth to Bólóbó; with a General Description of the Natural History and Anthropology of its Western Basin. Scribner & Welford.
J. S. of Dale. The Crime of Henry Vane. A Study with a Moral. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Jukes-Browne, A. J. Handbook of Physical Geology. Scribner & Welford.
Kerr, Mrs. Elizabeth. The American Horsewoman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Lichtenberg, I. N. The Widow's Son. A Story of Jewish Life of the Past. Maccabean Publishing Co.
McCosh, Pres. J. Agnosticism of Hume and Huxley. With a Notice of the Scottish School. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Neuer Deutscher Novellenschatz. Herausgegeben von Paul Heyse und Ludwig Laistner. Band I. München und Leipzig: R. Oldenbourg. 1884.
Ohnet, Georges. La Comtesse Sarah. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Brentano Bros.
Oliver, Marie. Margie's Mission. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Paige, Mrs. Simon B. A Lovely Girl's Letters. A Spicy Novel. American News Company.
Phœbe. A Novel by the Author of 'Rutledge.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Rae, J. Contemporary Socialism. London: William Isbister.
Ranke, Leopold von. Universal History: the Oldest Historical Group of Nations and the Greeks. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Roosevelt, Blanche. Stage-Struck; or, She Would Be an Opera Singer. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.50.
Roth, E. A Short Arithmetic. Part I. Philadelphia.
Rothrock, J. T. Vacation Cruising in Chesapeake and Delaware Bays. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Sand, George. Œuvres complètes. Correspondance. 1812–1876. V. Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1884.
Stevens, C. W. Fly-Fishing in Maine Lakes; or, Camp Life in the Wilderness. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Sundberg, Dr. J. C. Health Hints for Travelers. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton.
Tapley, D. J. Amateur Photography. A Practical Instructor. S. W. Green's Sons. $1.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 26, 1884.

The Week.

THE outcome of the Saratoga Convention is regarded as a practical victory for the friends of Governor Cleveland. He is believed to have a clear majority of the seventy-two delegates, and as they are instructed to vote as a unit, the expectation now is that he will be presented to the Chicago Convention as the unanimous choice of the Democrats of New York for President. The lowest estimate of the number of delegates for him now is forty-one, and the highest is fifty-two. He is likely to gain the support of many of those who are now either uncommitted or are put down as for Flower. The Flower boom went out of existence during the sessions of the Convention, and will probably not be heard of again. Mr. Cleveland had the united support of all the respectable elements in his party, and his friends conducted their campaign with such moderation and good judgment that there is not a sign of a break in the party in any portion of the State. In 1876, when the delegation was instructed to vote as a unit for Tilden, there was a bolt by the anti-Tammany faction, at that time under the leadership of John Morrissey and Senator Bixby. This year there will be no bolt. The party is not only harmonious, but it is committed solidly to the support of a man "whose character and public reputation," according to the platform, "shall give to the whole people assurance of an honest, impartial, and efficient administration of the laws without suspicion of personal ends or private interests."

The admission of the Tammany delegation to the Democratic Convention on an equal basis of representation with the County Democracy was not only a just recognition of Tammany's numerical strength, but it was also a direct blow at trickery in our local politics. John Kelly is in politics mainly as a trader, but in order to be a successful trader he must maintain his reputation as a loyal Democrat. In other words, he cannot "go back" on the regular party ticket, unless he has a grievance which will permit him to bolt and still retain his character as a Democratic leader. Every time that his claims for recognition have been denied by a Democratic Convention he has returned home and opened negotiations with Johnny O'Brien, the final result of which has been the election to local offices of some of the worst men who have ever disgraced the city. Whenever the Democrats have tried to reform him out of their party the Republican managers here have received him with open arms, and have greatly increased his power for evil. This year there will be no excuse for a Tammany bolt, and whatever may be the result so far as the city is concerned, we shall have a clear issue between the two parties and shall be able to hold somebody to account for it.

John Kelly is one of the delegates to Chicago, and there is no doubt that he will go to the Convention and do his utmost to secure the nomination of "any good man." It is noticeable that he does not talk much about his candidate, who is variously alleged to be Mr. Flower, Mr. Bayard, and Mr. Cleveland. He will probably play a strong silent part in the "supreme councils" of the party, and we must say that we rather regret this. If he would go in his true colors, with all his war-paint and feathers, and do his utmost to explain to his fellow-delegates exactly why he detests Governor Cleveland, and the grounds on which he thinks his feelings ought to be respected, he would make the situation in New York clearer than ever. Southern politicians of position and character, like Messrs. Bayard, Garland, Gibson, Hampton, Lamar, Morgan, Carlisle, and Tucker, will have a great deal to say as to the candidate, and they would probably be impressed by the Tammany arguments on the subject of Governor Cleveland's "misuse of the veto power," his attitude toward the freedom-of-worship job and the Five-Cent-Fare Bill, in a way that John himself might not anticipate. What a pity it is that Johnny O'Brien is not Kelly's alternate! He is such everywhere except at conventions.

Official notification of his nomination was given to Mr. Blaine, at his home in Augusta, on Friday, by the committee appointed for the purpose. An elaborate address was made by the Chairman, Mr. Henderson, and we do not see how it could have failed to have a depressing effect upon the persons who heard it. We doubt if a similar address was ever made to a Presidential candidate. It began with a statement that Mr. Blaine, though not nominated without opposition, was really the first choice of the Republican States, and was finally named because of an "irresistible popular demand," and not because of any "ambitious desire" of his own or "any organized work" of his friends. After this surprising information, Mr. Henderson went on to say that it was not to be expected that every member of the party would be satisfied with any nomination; that there were many Republicans who were disappointed when Lincoln was nominated; that there was pronounced discontent in 1872, and that for many weeks after General Garfield's nomination defeat seemed inevitable; but that sober second thought saved the party in each instance. This was equivalent to saying to Mr. Blaine: "Don't be worried by the Republican revolt which has carried with it a large portion of the influential press of your party, and is consolidating into an organized protest of the intelligent sentiment of the country against your candidacy. It really does not amount to anything, and will all blow over presently. I would not speak of it at all only I am afraid you may think it is more serious than it is."

The meeting of anti-Blaine Republicans in New Haven will give the Blaine managers food for serious reflection. Like all previous demonstrations of the kind, its success was far in advance of the expectations of its promoters. The number of Republicans who attended not only filled the hall to overflowing, but was great enough to have more than filled the largest hall in the city. The character of the attendance was as remarkable as its size. It was a genuine "dude-and-pharisee" gathering, in the Blaine sense of that term. A college professor presided, and the foremost citizens of New Haven, representing all professions and occupations, took part in the proceedings. We commend the plain words of the speeches and resolutions to the sanguine Blaine workers who are cherishing the belief that the revolt is going to blow over presently. They will find in them the spirit of the independent voters everywhere, stated in terms of great plainness and accuracy. There is no doubt in their minds why they are opposed to Blaine. The speakers were very emphatic in their language, and the meeting put its approval of what they said into formal utterance by adopting a set of resolutions which declare that the Chicago platform departed from the principles on which the party was founded, and from the purposes for which the party exists; that the Convention disappointed those who desire a pure administration and an advance in the standard of political action by the nomination of Blaine and Logan; and that those candidates are unworthy of Republican support. To carry these declarations into organized action a committee of twenty-five was appointed to correspond with Independent Republicans elsewhere and to attend any general conference which may be called. The Committee is composed of six large manufacturers, six prominent merchants, five leading lawyers, three Yale professors, one capitalist, two mechanics, one real-estate dealer, and one physician. There is one free-trader among them, but he is so greatly outnumbered by the manufacturers that it will be difficult to dispose of the revolt as a mere free-trade demonstration. The significance of a movement of these formidable proportions in a State which is so close that the change of 1,500 votes turns it from Republican to Democratic, need not be pointed out.

The Independent Republican Committee of New York has appointed a Finance Committee, and taken another important step toward organized opposition to Blaine and Logan by the adoption of the following declaration, which will be circulated for signatures:

The undersigned, protesting against the nomination of Mr. Blaine and Mr. Logan, propose to join their fellow-Republicans and the Independent voters in sending representatives to a general conference, to be held immediately after the Democratic National Convention, which shall consider, in case the Democratic nominations do not justify the support of the protesting Republicans, what further action may be necessary to secure candidates who will appeal, in the interest of clean and honest politics, to the sober moral sense of the American people.

All those desiring to sign this are requested

to send their names to Mr. George W. Green, No. 11 Pine Street. The declaration puts the point at issue plainly and accurately. With every day's developments the Blaine canvass becomes a more open defiance of the "sober moral sense of the American people," and no Republican who believes that there should be morality and intelligence in the administration of our public affairs can sustain such a canvass. Many Republicans who are accepting Blaine under protest say that they do so because they hope that he and his managers are merely trying to "catch votes" now, and that after he is elected he will behave all right. This is the weakest of all delusions. There is no concealment about the Blaine plan. He is running on the supposition that the ignorant vote of his party is vastly greater than the intelligent vote. If he were to be elected, he and his supporters would regard the result as a vindication of that view, and his administration would be conducted on the basis of his canvass.

The fact is not generally known that there was an animated discussion in the Committee on Resolutions of the Chicago Convention, on the tariff plank of the platform. A representative of the New York Free-Trade Club attended the Convention, and presented to the Committee a petition in favor of tariff reform. He found an earnest friend and advocate in the person of Mr. N. S. Harwood, the member from Nebraska. Mr. Harwood, in a very forcible speech to the full Committee, approved of the petition, and stated that he should insist upon having full discussion of it unless something satisfactory was reported by the sub-committee. When the sub-committee reported to the full Committee its proposed platform, Mr. Harwood objected to the tariff plank and offered a substitute. He was seconded in speeches by the delegates from Minnesota and Oregon. On the vote Mr. Harwood's amendment was supported by the members from Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Texas, and by each member from the eight Territories. Although the amendment failed, it is believed that the decided stand taken by the sixteen members who were in favor of tariff reform had the effect of modifying the tone of the resolutions considerably and of preventing the Committee from yielding to the demands of the wool-growers, who insisted upon a specific pledge in favor of the restoration of the duties as they existed prior to the year 1882. Instead of this, they only secured a promise of "a readjustment of the duty on foreign wool in order that that industry shall have full and adequate protection"—which may mean anything or nothing.

The Blaine and Logan combination is beautifully balanced in many ways, but a mark of homogeneity which has not been noticed heretofore is pointed out by the *Sun*, and is likely to hold a prominent place in the public attention during the canvass. In printing the Mulligan letters, in response to a request from a correspondent, the *Sun* is struck with the fact that it was Logan to whom Blaine, as Speaker, sent his page with a request to make the point which saved the Land Grant Bill of the Little Rock Road from destruction. Logan made the point, and the bill was saved, and Blaine detailed the circumstances of the affair, with handsome credit to Logan, in one of his letters to Fisher, in which he showed so much anxiety to be rewarded for the service rendered. The *Sun* rather unkindly remarks that it has "not heard, however, that Blaine ever applied to Fisher and Caldwell for an interest in the road for Logan, on the ground of *his* services." It is to be said in Logan's favor that he never applied on his own account.

An unexpected development of good sense in the Senate has resulted in the defeat of the most obnoxious amendment to the Pension Bill, that proposed by Mr. Ingalls, and in the adoption of others which so much improve the measure that it is doubtful if the pension-raiders will take sufficient interest in it hereafter to press it to a final passage. The defeat of the Ingalls amendment was due primarily to some very sound remarks by Senator Sherman, who not only said that the measure was so extravagant that it ought to be defeated for public reasons, but declared boldly that the plank which had been inserted in its favor in the Chicago platform was no argument in favor of its passage, since it would be foolish to try to guide the Senate's action by a party platform. He went so far as to speak slightingly of the Chicago platform as a whole, saying that it was the work of forty-two men who had been reeking in sweltering heat for hours, and that to call such a document a guide for the Senate was extraordinary. We are afraid that this will raise suspicions in the minds of the Blaine devotees concerning the heartiness of the Senator's support. There was no such faltering on Senator Logan's part. He voted in favor of retaining the Ingalls amendment, and will probably point to his act with pride on the stump as one more reason why the soldier vote should be cast for Blaine and Logan.

The House bill to prohibit the importation of "contract labor," passed on Thursday, makes it unlawful to enter into an agreement or contract with any foreigner or alien to perform labor or service of any kind in the United States, or to prepay the transportation or in any way assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien or foreigner under any contract or agreement, special, express, or implied. It declares all such contracts void, and makes it a crime, punishable with fine and imprisonment, for any master of a ship to land such aliens or foreigners in any United States port. The act is not to apply to contracts for skilled workmen in any new industry not at present established here, provided that skilled labor for that purpose cannot be otherwise obtained, nor to professional actors, lecturers, or singers. This bill does not seem to go far enough. If it is to be made a crime to land a man who has made a contract for a day's labor, we cannot see why the landing of actors, lecturers, or singers should be treated as an indifferent matter. They compete with native laborers in their own field, just as the "cheap Italian brigand" competes with the domestic Irishman. Every time that Henry Irving acted in New York he simply got so much money to take out of the country, which perhaps might otherwise have gone into the pockets of enterprising native Shaksperian actors with less capital and plant. We demand that this measure be made thoroughgoing. Its principle is just as applicable to intellectual and artistic labor as any other. Make it a capital offence to land anybody except Cook's tourists and visiting noblemen, and give the new system a fair trial.

The new Utah bill repeals all territorial laws incorporating, continuing, or providing for the corporation known as the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, and also the incorporating ordinances, so far as these may preclude the appointment of trustees by the United States. It also provides that the President of the United States, with the advice of the Senate, shall appoint fourteen trustees of the corporation, who shall have the powers of trustees and assistant trustees provided for in the act creating it, shall hold office two years, and shall each give bond in an amount to be fixed by the Secretary of the Interior. They are to make an annual report to that Secretary of all the property, business affairs, and operations of the said corporation; and the General Assembly of Utah is not to have power to change the laws respecting the corporation without the approval of Congress. The law, if signed, will of course be contested in the courts, and it is difficult to see how, under the Dartmouth College case, these sections can stand. Is it worth while to embarrass anti-polygamy legislation with such very doubtful provisions?

The remarkable testimony which the Government counsel in the Star-route cases are giving against one another is likely to make a very effective Democratic campaign document. A more disgraceful exhibition of mismanagement it would be difficult to conceive. Instead of selecting as prosecuting counsel men who could work together honestly and harmoniously, the Government hit upon the novel plan of intrusting the cases to two Democrats and one Republican, for the alleged purpose of keeping politics out of the litigation. The immediate result was to introduce politics in a most aggravated form, as almost any one at all familiar with the peculiarities of Colonel George Bliss would have foreseen would be the effect of putting him in as the personal and particular friend of the Administration. Whatever his understanding of his duty may have been, there is no longer much doubt that he devoted himself mainly to getting all the big rascals clear. That they were rascals there has never been any doubt, and that they have all been allowed to escape punishment, and that some of them are now acting as leaders in the Republican campaign, are facts which will not be without influence during the next few months.

The futility of stock-watering receives a fresh illustration in the fate which has overtaken Union Pacific. In the year 1879, while the stock of this road was selling at or above par, Mr. Jay Gould conceived the idea of buying up the stock of the Kansas Pacific, the

Denver Pacific, and a lot of tributary roads not worth one cent per ream in any market in the world, and consolidating the whole with Union Pacific, issuing the stock of the latter company for that of the worthless concerns, share for share. He bought the Kansas Pacific stock (some $10,000,000) from parties in St. Louis at twelve and one-half cents on the dollar. He gathered in the Denver Pacific and other rubbish at a trifling cost. He then made a "deal" with the other large holders of Union Pacific, "letting them in" for their share of the profits in order to get their consent to the consolidation. The necessary consent was obtained, and Union Pacific stock was issued in exchange for the collection of rubbish. Strangely enough this enormous addition to the capital of the Union Pacific led to no immediate decline in the quotations of the property. It lifted the stock and bonds of the worthless roads up to the level of Union Pacific, and everything went swimmingly for a few years, until the law of competition fixed its glittering eye on the joint concern. Capitalists said to themselves, "If this property can earn dividends on fifty millions of *water*, the country and the traffic which yield such vast returns can easily support another road built for cash." They accordingly put up the cash and paralleled the Union Pacific the whole distance from Omaha to Salt Lake by way of Denver. The water commenced leaking out of Union Pacific as from a sieve. The stock, which was once quoted above par, is now down to 35. The property, which was selling at the rate of more than $50,000,000, is now worth, in the estimation of the public, only $17,500,000. Even this shrinkage represents only a part of the loss, since the multifarious bond issues of the joint concern have declined heavily at the same time. The moral of the story is that stock-watering carries its own punishment, and that no possible legislative remedy could be half so severe or half so certain of execution as the natural remedy.

The change of management by which the control of the Union Pacific Railway passes into the hands of Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., is an event of much interest in the development of the railroad system of the country. Mr. Adams has spent a large part of his life in doing what he could to call attention to the necessity of reform in railroad management. The attention which he gave to the subject led him to undertake a thorough investigation of the railroad system, and to the establishment of the Railroad Commission of Massachusetts. At the head of this he for several years issued reports upon the railroads of that State, which were really an exhaustive and interesting review of the whole railroad "problem." In these reports his principal aim has been to show that the key to proper railroad management is publicity, accountability, and honesty; that the natural product of secrecy in railroad accounts and railroad management is intrigue, fraud, and disaster. Acquiring through his supervision of the railroad system of Massachusetts a very minute knowledge of this subject, he has lately been occupied in the active management of railroad property, and has forced his way to recognition as a practical railroad man, an expert, whose experience, knowledge, and integrity are relied on by the owners of the trunk lines in the settlement of their never-ending disputes over the division of their business. The task of bringing order out of the chaos of Union Pacific which he has undertaken is a gigantic one, and his efforts will be watched with interest not only by the stockholders, but the public at large.

As the annual hot-weather article and the article on New York as a summer resort still fail to appear, the hot-weather editors being probably afraid of being accused of overproduction, we venture to suggest yet a new branch of the discussion—the effect of Anglomania on the native straw hat. The Anglomaniac, it is well known, affects a black hat, not because it is well adapted to our summer climate, but because light-colored hats are not worn by gentlemen in England. By a misapplication of this principle it has been extended to straw hats. The hat, however, which it is "caddish" to wear is a white "plug" or tile; but cads in England do not wear straw hats, and therefore it is erroneous to apply the rule against the white plug to the straw. The trouble with the Anglomaniac is that, like all zealots, he goes to irrational lengths.

The latest religious sensation is the development of a sect called the "Hallelujah Lassies," the lassie at the head of it being known to the faithful as "Happy Josephine." The object of the movement is to get the poor to attach themselves to Christian churches of any denomination. This is a very good object. Many of the Christian sects carry on missionary work among the poor already, but then it is partly in their own interest; while the lassies make their appeals without bias or self-interest of any kind. Should they have any marked success, it will be one more proof of the weakening of the force of modern dogmatic belief; for it is obvious that missionaries who convert the heathen at home, professing utter indifference as to whether they become Episcopalians, Unitarians, Baptists, Methodists, or Calvinists, care far less for dogma than any regular proselyting body that has done much work in recent times.

The "exhaustion" of Cuba by the Spaniards is an old story; the process has been going on for a generation. The Spanish official in Cuba is a plunderer by profession, and with all the better will because he is a foreigner. Whether there is anything in the rumor that a failure of crops is really driving the sugar planters away, we are not likely to know for a long time; but if it is true, it shows all the more clearly what a worthless possession the island would be to the United States. If we wanted to buy territory anywhere, it would probably be far better to make an offer for Mexico. That people should be discussing such a silly thing as the purchase of Cuba is one of the natural results of the nomination of Mr. Blaine.

The preparations for the conference as to Egypt are badly hampered so far as England is concerned by the condition of her domestic politics. Mr. Gladstone, with his Irish problem, and his Egyptian problem, and his extension of the suffrage problem, and with his diminished majority in Parliament, is struggling with heavy odds; and when we consider his age, and the fact that parliamentary government affords the worst possible machinery (except when the Government is in complete control of the Legislature) for a vigorous foreign policy, his success in retaining his hold thus far is marvellous, and a striking indication of the general confidence in the sincerity of his intentions, and of the popular distrust of the Tories.

According to the new agreement between England and France, England undertakes to withdraw her troops from Egypt at the beginning of the year 1888 in case the Powers shall consider such withdrawal possible without endangering public order. The Caisse de la Dette Publique after 1885 will have a consultative voice in regard to the budget, and will have the right to veto any increase of expenses on the part of the Government. It is to continue to exercise the right of financial inspection after the evacuation of the country by the English in order to insure the complete and regular collection of the revenue. England also undertakes during her occupation to propound schemes to the Porte and the Powers for the neutralization of Egypt, like Belgium, and for the neutralization of the Suez Canal. Mr. Gladstone, in making the announcement of this understanding in Parliament yesterday, reminded the House of Commons that the Conference of the Powers was to meet on Saturday, and that its province would be to decide with regard to Egyptian finances; but that no decision would be of any force without the assent of Parliament.

At the same time M. Ferry, in the French Chambers, reviewed the Egyptian question as follows:

Since 1883 France has been quite inactive so far as Egypt is concerned, inasmuch as she declined to take part in the British expedition. It is too late now to think of reviving the scheme of condominium. It is altogether impossible. Egypt is neither French nor English. Her fate is a matter of concern to all Europe, and what it is to be will always be a European question. Mr. Gladstone's Government recognized this fact and was the first to propose the neutralization of Egypt. France has the last chance possible to settle the question with the Gladstone Cabinet. It is necessary that harmony be maintained between the two nations whose accord is so important to the peace and liberty of the world. It is necessary, also, to limit the English occupation of Egypt, but France has no intention of substituting French occupation therefor."

There seems to be nothing final in this understanding, which, it should be observed, is thus far only an agreement between the two Cabinets. It gives England four years more in Egypt, but at the end of that time her withdrawal will depend upon whether the Powers consider it possible "without endangering the public order," a stipulation of the vaguest description. In case of a disagreement among the Powers as to the necessity of England's presence to maintain the public order, a new agreement on the subject would apparently be necessary.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 18, to TUESDAY, June 24, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE New York Democratic State Convention met in Saratoga on Wednesday. In the morning a conference was held between the Chairmen of Tammany, Irving Hall, and the County Democracy, at which it was agreed that the representation of New York County should be as follows: New York County Democracy, 31 delegates, Tammany 31, and Irving Hall 10. This compromise was accepted by the State Committee in the interest of harmony. The Convention was called to order at 1 P. M., and William E. Smith was unanimously elected temporary Chairman. A resolution was passed that of the New York representation the County Democracy have 4 Presidential electors and 7 national delegates, Tammany 3 electors and 7 delegates, and Irving Hall 1 elector and 2 delegates. The Convention at 2:15 adjourned until 7 P. M.

At the evening session a platform was adopted reaffirming the State platforms of 1874-76-82, recognizing the duty of the Legislature to respect the popular vote of 1883 for the abolition of the contract-labor system in prisons, commending the administration of Governor Cleveland, and instructing the delegates to Chicago to vote as a unit in accordance with the will of the majority. Daniel Manning, Edward Cooper, Lester B. Faulkner, and John C. Jacobs were elected delegates-at-large. Sixty-eight district delegates were also elected and Presidential electors named. Judges Andrews (Rep.) and Rapallo (Dem.) were nominated by acclamation for the Court of Appeals. Two of the delegates-at-large are anti-Cleveland men.

The Indiana Republicans on Thursday nominated Col. W. H. Calkins, at present a member of Congress, for Governor. The platform makes no mention of the prohibition question, and there is some opposition among the temperance people.

The Tennessee Democrats on Thursday adopted a platform denouncing the present tariff as a masterpiece of injustice, inequality, and false pretence. The minority platform, virtually endorsing the Ohio platform, was tabled by a majority of 300.

Mr. Blaine, on Saturday, was officially notified by the National Convention Committee of his nomination. General Henderson presented the address of the Committee.

Senator Logan was on Tuesday notified of his nomination for Vice-President by the same committee. In his reply to the address General Logan signified his hearty approval of the platform. The ceremony took place at the Washington residence of General Logan.

A call was printed on Friday in New Haven for an anti-Blaine Republican meeting on Monday night. The call was signed by over 150 of the most conspicuous residents of the city, who declared that they "have always been in sympathy with the principles on which the Republican party was founded." The meeting was held on Monday night and filled the hall to overflowing. The audience comprised representatives of the Yale Faculty, the professional men of the city, and its business interests. Resolutions were passed condemning both the platform and candidates of the Chicago Convention, and appointing a standing committee of twenty-five to correspond with other Independent organizations and to represent the sentiments of the meeting at any general conference which may be called.

There is another Presidential ticket in the field. The American Prohibition party at Chicago on Friday nominated ex-Senator Pomeroy for President, and J. A. Conant, of Connecticut, for Vice-President.

The Senate on Wednesday passed the Utah Bill by a vote of 33 to 15. It provides that a lawful husband or wife may be compelled to testify in prosecutions for bigamy, polygamy, or unlawful cohabitation; that prosecutions may be commenced within five years of the commission of the offence; that women shall not vote in the Territory; that every marriage ceremony in any Territory shall be certified in writing, which shall state the full names of all persons taking part in the ceremony, and shall be signed by them, and shall, by the officer or priest solemnizing the marriage, be filed with and recorded in the Probate Court; such certificate shall be prima-facie evidence of the facts stated in it. All laws of Utah relating to the Perpetual Emigrating Fund Company are annulled.

The Senate on Friday debated the Pension Arrears Bill. Mr. Van Wyck favored wiping out the limitation clause altogether. Mr. Voorhees's amendment removing all limit of time for filing petitions for arrears was lost—12 to 34.

The Senate on Monday, by a vote of 39 to 26, defeated Mr. Ingalls's amendment to the Mexican Pension Bill striking out all restrictions to the Arrears of Pensions Bill. Logan voted with the minority. Mr. Harrison offered an important amendment, which was adopted, limiting the provisions of the bill to veterans who served at least fourteen days in Mexico or on the coast or frontier of that country, or en route thereto. The bill was passed on Tuesday, the majority consisting of Republican votes with three Democrats.

The House of Representatives on Thursday passed the Pacific Railroad Bill, extending the Thurman Act to the Kansas Pacific, Sioux City and Pacific, and central branch of the Union Pacific Companies. It also passed the bill to prohibit the importation and migration of foreigners and aliens under contract to perform labor.

The House on Monday passed the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill under a suspension of the rules. The provision that no speech shall be printed in the *Record* which has not been spoken was stricken out. It contains a provision that no bills or resolutions of a private nature shall be printed except after a favorable report from a committee.

The House Committee on Ways and Means on Tuesday by a party vote of 7 to 2 agreed to report favorably on the administrative portion of the Hewitt Tariff Bill so far as relates to customs duties.

Before the House Committee investigating charges of lobbying by ex-members in the Peelle-English contested-election case, on Wednesday, Mr. W. H. English, of Indiana, testified that he had been frequently on the floor of the House, and had there presented the rights of his son to a seat in Congress to various members; that it did not occur to him that he was violating a rule of the House, and that if he had done or said anything in violation of the rules he was frank to say he regretted it. He denied having had a talk with Mr. Weller in the cloak-room, and said any statement that he had influenced that gentleman was absolutely false.

Before the Springer Committee in Washington on Wednesday, Mr. George Bliss, Government counsel in the Star-route cases, denied the insinuations of Mr. Ker that he wanted to procure the immunity of Dorsey. During Mr. Bliss's testimony on Wednesday, when asked whether he ever received advices or solicitations that favor should be extended to any one of the defendants, he said: "I have not conversed with Mr. Blaine since I went into the Star-route cases; I have not communicated with him directly or indirectly, and neither he nor anybody else ever approached me on that subject." On Thursday he denied the charges of Walsh and Ker as to his sympathy with Dorsey and Kellogg. Mr. Ker took the stand on Friday and emphatically denied many of Mr. Bliss's assertions. He alleged that the latter, though a shrewd lawyer, frequently injured the case for the prosecution by offending important witnesses on his own side.

J. B. Colgrove, a Government contractor, who was before the Springer Committee on Saturday, testified that Judge Key, his counsel, told him that Mr. Ker, Government counsel, told him that for $5,000 the Star-route charges against him (Colgrove) would be dropped. Mr. Ker emphatically denies this assertion, and on Monday, after consultation with Judge Key, Mr. Colgrove admitted to the Committee that he had been mistaken.

Commodore C. K. Garrison, who was supposed to be worth twenty million dollars, made an assignment on Friday. His friends say that after all his creditors are satisfied he will have a surplus of several million dollars, and that the assignment was made because age and trouble have incapacitated him for dealing with the present financial depression. It is said that several hundred thousand dollars in cash would have averted the catastrophe.

Great surprise was created in Wall Street on Tuesday morning by the announcement that the banking-house of M. Morgan's Sons, No. 39 William Street, had suspended. The house is one of the oldest banking firms in the city, having been founded by the late Matthew Morgan some fifty years ago. It was rated as being worth $1,000,000, and has been considered by bankers to be worth, really, nearer two and one-half millions. It is supposed that the failure resulted in part from the unwillingness of a member of the firm to ask aid from any one.

Commencement exercises were held on Wednesday at Princeton, Rutgers, and Brown. Princeton conferred the degree of LL.D. upon President Arthur, Gov. Abbett, of New Jersey, and Justice Harlan, of the United States Supreme Court.

Harvard won the four-mile eight-oar straight-away race over Columbia at New London on Wednesday evening. The contest was very close, Harvard winning in 24.31 by eight seconds.

The inter-collegiate four-oared boat race for the Childs Challenge Cup took place on the Schuylkill River at Philadelphia on Thursday. The course was one and a half miles straight-away. The University of Pennsylvania won by half a boat's length over Cornell in 9.06¼. Princeton was third.

Bishop Matthew Simpson, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, died in Philadelphia on Wednesday, at the age of seventy-three. He was ordained a Bishop in 1852, and has been considered the most noted orator in his denomination.

FOREIGN.

It was officially announced in London on Monday that, under date of June 16, Earl Granville, Foreign Secretary of State, addressed a note to M. Waddington, the French Minister, the substance of which was as follows: England undertakes to withdraw her troops from Egypt at the beginning of the year 1888 in case the Powers shall consider such withdrawal possible without endangering the public order. The Caisse de la Dette Publique after 1885 shall have a consultative voice in regard to the budget, and the right to veto any increase of expenses on the part of the Government. It shall continue to exercise the right of financial inspection after the evacuation of the country by the English, in order to insure the complete and regular collection of the revenue. In his reply M. Waddington gave assurances of the satisfaction with which France noted the points suggested by Earl Granville.

The following named statesmen will probably compose the Egyptian Conference: Earl Granville, Lord Fitz-Maurice, M. Waddington, M. Barrère, French Diplomatic Agent at Cairo, the Earl of Munster, Herbert Bismarck, Count Károlyi, Count Nigra, of Italy, Musurus Pasha, and Herr Mohrenheim.

Earl Granville's note to the Powers in relation to the Egyptian Conference, after stating

that an *entente cordiale* has been established with France on the questions of the Reform Commission and the Egyptian debt, declares that the whole financial question will be left to the discussion of the Conference. The question of the English occupation of Egypt is left undefined.

The French Ambassador at Constantinople has informed the Grand Vizier that Turkish intervention in Egypt or the Sudan is excluded under the terms of the agreement between England and France.

The Porte does not feel altogether reconciled to the condition and outlook of affairs in Egypt. It has addressed a circular note to the various Powers, in which it insists that "England's self-imposed task of restoring order in Egypt is so far completed that the army of occupation ought at once to be withdrawn." "The moral authority and prestige of the Sultan are amply sufficient," it says further, "to assure the internal tranquillity of Egypt."

It is believed now that the Governor of Berber escaped unharmed with $400,000 of Government money in his possession. On Thursday it was reported that the rebels had captured Ghia, a town near the Abyssinian frontier.

The report that Kassala has fallen is not believed in military circles at Cairo. Colonel Wood has been ordered to echelon with the whole Egyptian army between Assuan and Wady Halfa by the end of the present month.

Twenty-one pilgrims arrived at Suakim on Friday from Khartum, and that place was safe when they left it on May 25.

It was rumored in Cairo on Sunday that the rebels were advancing on Korosko.

It is asserted that the Porte has 15,000 men ready to send to Upper Egypt. This sudden change of front is due to news that there is imminent danger that El Mahdi's movement is spreading into Hedjaz.

In the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Gladstone made a statement concerning the Egyptian question which fully confirmed the official report of the substance of the recent correspondence between Earl Granville, Foreign Secretary of State, and M. Waddington, the French Ambassador in London. The neutralization of Egypt, the Prime Minister said, is to be deferred until England withdraws from the country. Prime Minister Ferry also made a statement, which was received with great favor, in the French Chamber of Deputies. Intense discontent with Mr. Gladstone's statement prevails among the group of Independent Liberals. A coalition of this group and the Parnellites with the Conservatives against the Government is probable.

The Conservative leaders held a conference at the house of Sir Stafford Northcote, on Tuesday, on the question whether a new motion of censure against the Government should be made. No decision was reached. The proposed arrangements for the future of Egypt have created a most favorable impression in Cairo.

Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, performed the ceremony of unveiling the Queen's portrait at Belfast on Wednesday. On reaching the Town Hall the Lord Lieutenant was greeted with mingled cheers and groans. In his speech he referred to the troubles of Ireland, and dwelt upon the reviving prospects of the country.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* on Friday telegraphed: "James Stephens, the ex-Fenian Head Centre, has forwarded to an active member of the brotherhood at Chicago a manuscript circular summoning an early meeting at Chicago of prominent Irish-Americans, who are willing to join a new movement in favor of a military organization on the lines proposed by the late John O'Mahoney. Mr. Stephens declares that the services of several distinguished European officers have already been placed at his disposal. No definite plan of action will be proposed until the convention of Irish patriots, which it is proposed to hold soon in Paris. To this convention the Chicago conference is invited to elect delegates. Among the plans of operation mooted is the scheme to despatch balloons manned with desperadoes over England to drop explosives upon the cities and towns below." Chicago Fenians ridicule the plan.

The Court of Queen's Bench, Dublin, on Wednesday fined Mr. William O'Brien, M. P., editor of the *United Ireland*, £500 for contempt of court. This happened in connection with the action for libel brought against Mr. O'Brien by Mr. Bolton, Prosecutor for the Crown.

Patrick Joyce, an Irish-American, was arrested at Queenstown on Saturday on the steamer *Illinois*. A mysterious wooden tube was found in his baggage, and it was thought to be an infernal machine. On investigation it proved to contain nothing but oil, and on Monday he was discharged.

The third General Council of the Reformed Churches throughout the world, known in ecclesiastical circles as the Presbyterian Alliance or Pan-Presbyterian Council, convened at eleven o'clock on Tuesday morning in Belfast, Ireland, in St. Enoch's Church. The church was thronged with a vast assembly of people, and delegates were present from every quarter of the globe. The opening sermon was preached by the Rev. Dr. Watts, Chairman of the General Committee.

A jubilee in honor of the fiftieth birthday of the Rev. Charles H. Spurgeon was held at the Holborn Tabernacle, London, on Wednesday and Thursday, more than 5,000 people being present. Speeches were made by Mr. Spurgeon and Mr. Moody on Wednesday evening. Speeches were made on Thursday by the Earl of Shaftesbury, Canon Wilberforce, the Rev. C. P. Gifford, an American, Newman Hall, and others. A check for £4,500 was handed to Mr. Spurgeon.

The sale of the Fountaine collection of art treasures in London realized £91,112.

The Paris *Matin* on Wednesday published an interview with the Portuguese Minister at Paris. He says that Portugal is disposed to make important concessions in regard to the Congo. She is willing to include representatives from all nations interested in Central and South Africa as a Congo Commission modelled after the International Danube Commission. Portugal has no desire to extend her territory. She wishes merely to preserve her rights.

The latest news concerning the movements of the French in Tonquin is to the effect that after the occupation of Lang-son and Caobang shall have been effected, a part of the French forces will return to France.

The French Senate on Friday adopted, by a vote of 87 to 82, an amendment to the bill re-establishing divorce, permitting a wife to demand a divorce on proof of adultery by her husband, even if the act is not committed under the conjugal roof, and rejected an amendment, by a vote of 136 to 131, demanding that cruelty constitute a cause for separation only, not for divorce.

A French committee has decided that it is more advisable to widen the Suez Canal than to build a second parallel to it.

The French Imperial Committees have re-elected M. de Cassagnac President, and have approved Prince Victor's resolve to obtain his independence, and declared him the representative of religious liberty and order in the democracy. Prince Victor said that the principles expressed were his own.

Toulon, France, is in a state of panic, owing to a number of deaths from cholera. Eight thousand people left the city on Monday. The Minister of Commerce has issued a notice that it is sporadic, and not Asiatic cholera. The first death occurred on June 4, but was kept secret. Eighteen deaths occurred on Monday The unclean condition of the city is said to be a sufficient cause for the disease. The French Board of Health was convoked on Tuesday to take measures to suppress the plague.

The Paris *Figaro's* correspondent at Rome says that President Arthur has instructed the American Minister there to act in concert with the Ministers of England, Austria, and Spain in an effort to obtain from Signor Mancini, Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, a mitigation of the decision of the Court of Cassation in regard to the properties of the Propaganda. Signor Mancini, it is said, has promised to regulate the matter in a manner satisfactory to the Vatican. This report has been contradicted in Washington.

The programme of the new Belgian Ministry includes a revision of the School Law of 1879, which deprived primary public schools of the supervision of the clergy, and reforms aiming at an increase of the electoral power of the rural communes.

The Prince of Orange, heir apparent to the throne of Holland, died on Saturday, at the age of thirty-three. The King of Holland has returned from Carlsbad, and has held a conference with the Cabinet. The Cabinet has decided to resort to the provisions of the law of November 3, 1848, and will convene the Chambers forming the States-General in a plenary Congress of 78 Senators instead of 39, and 172 Deputies instead of 86. This Congress will proclaim Princess Wilhelmina successor, under a Council of Regency, with Queen Emma as Regent, and the President of the Council as Chancellor. The Cabinet has determined to refuse to share tutelage with any German branch of the royal family.

Semi-official advices from Berlin are to the effect that assurances have been given to the Dutch that they need not fear aggression on the part of Germany, whose territorial ambition only extends to uncivilized countries beyond the seas.

Bismarck made some remarks on Monday before the German Budget Committee, in the course of which he said he had hopes to arrange with Portugal for free commercial traffic on the Congo. He had obtained Emperor William's sanction for pursuing a colonial policy. This was not modelled after the French system, but was directed to the protection of German commerce.

Several important arrests were made in Berlin on Thursday in connection with an incendiary conspiracy. This conspiracy, it is asserted, has ramifications in America. Should inquiry prove that the German conspirators have received funds from America, immediate diplomatic action will be taken by the German representative at Washington.

The Bulgarian elections have resulted largely in the success of the Liberals and Radicals.

Portuguese advices state that the situation in Guinea is critical. The revolt of the blacks continues.

One of the five Spanish Commissioners now in Cuba will soon be sent to New York and Washington to inquire into the sentiment of the United States in regard to the purchase of Cuba. The nomination of Mr. Blaine and the report that he said Cuba was worth $500,000,000 to the United States has led to this action. The Commissioner will confer with the Spanish Minister in this country respecting the future neutrality of the American Government, and the chances of obtaining for the island the $500,000,000 of Mr. Blaine's alleged valuation. He will then return to Cuba, and with his four colleagues prepare a report to send to Madrid. The Spanish representatives in this country profess to be ignorant of any such proposal.

Madame Patti will sing in America next season under the management of Colonel Mapleson.

COMMUNISTIC FEATURES OF THE CHICAGO PLATFORM.

"My opposition to the Chicago ticket," said one of the speakers at the Tuesday evening conference (a life-long working Republican), "is quite as much against the rotten platform adopted as against the candidates nominated." He proceeded to denounce the unrepublican features of the platform, showing that it is essentially a departure from the old teachings of the party and a violation of some of its most cherished principles. The speaker was Mr. Jackson S. Schultz, whose name has been associated with the Republican party from its birth and whose labors in its behalf are second in importance to those of no man in the city of New York.

A close examination of the platform shows a plain streak of communism running through it. We have already adverted to the clause which "denounces the importation of contract labor whether from Europe or Asia as an offence against the spirit of American institutions." This is as much as to say that foreign immigration should be prohibited or restricted, whether from China, or Ireland, or Germany, or Norway, if it can be shown that the immigrant has come to this country under an agreement to work for his living. If he has come as a pauper, without any idea of what he is to do, the platform has no objection to him, but if he has made an agreement to work on somebody's farm or in somebody's mill he ought to be met at Castle Garden and hustled on board the next outgoing steamer. It makes no difference whether he has money in his pocket or not. If he has postponed his coming until he knew that somebody would pay him a fair day's wages for a fair day's work he ought not to be allowed to land. This is what the platform means if it means anything. The Know-Nothing party of 1854–6 never said anything more contemptible.

The spirit of the resolution, however, is something different from that of the Know-Nothings. The latter aimed to curtail the influence of persons of foreign birth in our political affairs. It did not seek to put restrictions on immigration, but upon the right of immigrants to vote and hold office. The most characteristic plank in its platform was that which demanded a residence of twenty-one years in this country as a condition of naturalization. The party went before the people on this issue in 1856 and was crumbled to powder. It never held another National Convention. The Chicago platform, in its avowed hostility to foreigners, proceeds upon the theory that wages can be and ought to be made artificially high by limiting the number of laborers. It has no objection to foreigners as foreigners, but only as workers. The purpose is essentially communistic, and the resolution which declares that immigration of the kind described is "against the spirit of American institutions" is a barefaced lie.

A few years ago a gentleman of Northern birth conceived the idea of cultivating oranges on a large scale in Florida, using for this purpose lands which until then had been absolutely worthless. He embarked a large amount of capital in the enterprise, but soon found that the supply of labor in Florida was deficient. He sent an agent to Sweden to hire two hundred men with families to come to this country to settle, and become American citizens, and work on his orange plantation. The men came. They came under contract. They settled in Florida. Some of them kept their contract and some did not. Many of them found that they could do better for themselves than by working for Mr. Sanford, and they repudiated their bargain. There was no means of enforcing it even if there had been any desire to do so on Mr. Sanford's part. Some of them went into the business of orange-growing in competition with Mr. Sanford, and are in that occupation now. The net result is that Florida has secured a colony of industrious, enterprising, sober, wealth-producing men and women, and has turned a large belt of wilderness into a blooming garden, by a process which the Chicago platform says is "against the spirit of American institutions." If the platform had been in force it would have been the duty of some officer, clothed with the authority of the Republic, to meet these Swedish immigrants at the steamer, and say to them: "The spirit of American institutions forbids your landing here. You have come hither under an agreement to work. Your labor is *servile*. We have abolished all servile labor. You must go back to your own country and cancel your badge of servitude. When you come again, if we have not meanwhile gone a step further and resolved against all immigration, we will let you land on the soil of the free and home of the brave."

On all fours with this rotten plank in the platform is the one which calls for "the enforcement of the eight-hour law." Labor is to be made artificially scarcer in two ways: first, by excluding foreign laborers, and second, by forbidding anybody to work more than eight hours. If the enforcement of the eight-hour law does not mean this, it is a sham. Probably the framers of the resolution considered it a sham and adopted it knowing that it could not be enforced, knowing that the question how many hours a man shall labor cannot be regulated by government, but only by the needs and inclinations of the laborers themselves. None the less have they committed the party to one of the most arrant communistic delusions of the day.

A third resolution declares that "we are opposed to the acquisition of large tracts of lands by corporations or individuals, especially where such holdings are in the hands of non-resident aliens, and we will endeavor to obtain such legislation as will correct this evil." This is a declaration against free trade in land, and consequently against land ownership; because, if a man is not allowed to sell his land for the best price offered, whether by a corporation or an individual, by a citizen or a foreigner, he is deprived of what is, in the eyes of most American land-owners, his most valuable possession. A law which prohibits the buying of land by certain persons and in certain amounts necessarily prohibits the selling. What is a "large tract of land"? Upon this point there is every diversity of opinion. According to Henry George, any tract is too large to be owned in fee simple by anybody, whether a native or a foreigner. The idea embodied in the platform is evidently borrowed from Mr. George. It will be pretended, perhaps, that it applies only to the public lands, but land ceases to be public as soon as anybody acquires a private claim to it, and unless restrictions are imposed to prevent the sale of lands the resolution becomes nugatory and worthless. We note its introduction and adoption as another sign of the low demagogism which prevailed on the Platform Committee, and which sought to gather in a few votes by catering to the tastes and dogmas of the communists.

THE DUDE-AND-PHARISEE ARGUMENT.

THE dude-and-pharisee who edits *Harper's Weekly* gently but firmly insists that the Blaine men who are so precise in their description of their opponents shall be equally so in answering one question, viz.: Did Abraham Lincoln, or George Washington, or any other occupant of the Presidential chair ever use his official position as a means of private gain? Is it fitting that persons holding official position should make use of it for purposes of private gain? Did not Mr. Blaine make use of his official position for that purpose? Did he not acknowledge that he had done so in his letters to Warren Fisher, jr., dated June 29, July 2, and October 4, 1869? If so, what have his supporters to say for him or for themselves after they have finished their remarks on the important subject of the dude-and-pharisee? Obviously there is only one thing to say, and that is that they approve of the practice of public men using their official position for purposes of private gain. It is important to know how far they would go in this direction—where they would draw the line; and also what kind of a republic we would have if each man in official position should be left free to decide for himself how much and how often he should use his position for purposes of private gain. The Republican platform makers were singularly remiss in not putting in a plank defining the reasonable limits of such practices. They ought to have reported a resolution something like this:

Resolved, That it is allowable in any man holding official position to use the same for the purpose of making money for himself, provided the bargain is made after he gives his vote and not before.

All this, be it observed, is beyond the region of dispute. Nobody denies the authenticity or the purport of the letters to Warren Fisher, jr. The $64,000 obtained from the Union Pacific treasury does furnish ground for a dispute; for, while the evidence points strongly to the conclusion that Mr. Blaine got the money from that quarter, and paid it over "within forty-eight hours" to his friends in Maine, after the Little Rock and Fort Smith speculation had turned out badly, nevertheless he always denied it, and his denial is accepted by his friends. The Northern Pacific "block" which he was peddling about the same time he said he was peddling for "a friend" and not for himself. He acknowledged that it would have been grossly improper for him, while Speaker of the House, and while

the Northern Pacific Company was seeking legislation, to handle this kind of property on his own account, but he could see no impropriety in handling it for a friend. (The name of the friend was never mentioned, but it was supposed to be "Bill" King, who was popularly known as the "King of the Lobby" at that time.) As Mr. Blaine was by his own statement acting as a broker, with or without commission, and not as a principal, his friends allege that no fault can be found with him except by superfine casuists and by the dude-and-pharisee. But as to the letters to Warren Fisher, jr., in which he makes an official act the reason for his applying for a pecuniary emolument, there is no dispute or difference of opinion as to the fact.

This matter has not been much discussed thus far in the campaign. But it was well known to the Chicago Convention which nominated Mr. Blaine, and this fact enables us to estimate the value of one of the arguments now advanced in support of the Republican ticket, viz., that the preservation of the party is of much more importance to a patriotic citizen than the fortunes of any individual; that Mr. Blaine will have to go with his party and be governed by it, and that he can do no great harm without the party's consent and coöperation. This argument would have some force if Mr. Blaine's nomination had come about by accident, or if the facts had been discovered only after the nomination, when the party might be considered powerless to find a remedy for hasty and ill-considered action. But the facts are totally different. Mr. Blaine's railroad career was carefully considered and emphatically endorsed by the party as represented in National Convention. It was endorsed by a very large section of the party in two previous conventions. No step was ever taken with more deliberation. The question whether the party is strong enough and virtuous enough to keep Mr. Blaine in order after the election, has already been decided in the negative. To make the argument complete it must be assumed that there is a force in the background, which never gets represented in National Conventions—a veiled and unseen moral power—which will hold Blaine and his kind in subjection after they are clothed with actual power, and that this unseen power will make itself felt not by voting against Blaine, but by voting for him! The truth is that there is no such thing as a power in politics which never asserts itself. Such a power is non-existent. It is a myth, a delusion, or at most only a remembrance.

THE SUCCESSION IN HOLLAND AND LUXEMBURG.

The long-expected death of Alexander, Prince of Orange, Crown Prince of the Netherlands, has finally taken place. It is an interesting and perhaps serious event in the dynastic history of Europe. The Prince was the younger of the two sons of King William III., by his first consort, a daughter of William I., of Würtemberg. The elder son, Prince William, died in Paris in 1879, after years of low life in that city which made his name a by-word even among the most degraded of debauchees. Some months before, their father, then sixty-two years of age, married his second wife, Emma, a beautiful German Princess of the House of Waldeck, thirty-one years his junior. The only offspring of this marriage, and now the only child of King William, is the Princess Wilhelmina, not fully four years old. The old monarch, whose career, remarkable neither for virtue nor wisdom, is believed to be rapidly drawing to a close, has neither a brother, nor a nephew, nor a cousin. In the absence of such male relatives, the infant Wilhelmina is, by the provisions of the Dutch Constitution, prospective successor to the throne, though not to the grand-ducal crown of Luxemburg, a personal inheritance of her father, forming no integral part of the Netherlands, in which the Salic law prevails. Princess Sophia, the King's sister, a lady of sixty, married to the Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar, is the next in the line of presumptive succession, and after her follow her son, grandsons, and daughters, and other German members of the House of Orange-Nassau, male and female.

Summoned home from Carlsbad shortly before his son expired, King William held a conference with his Cabinet, and the resolution was adopted, in agreement with the fundamental laws passed in 1848, to convene the two Chambers of the States-General in a plenary Congress of 78 Senators instead of 39, and 172 Deputies instead of 86. This Congress is to proclaim Princess Wilhelmina successor, under a Council, with Queen Emma as Regent, and the President of the Council as Chancellor. The German branches of the royal family are to be refused any share in the tutelage. Queen Emma as Regent will probably be as jealous of the independence of the kingdom as her husband has always shown himself to be, who, in his aversion to the thought of a German succession, is said even to have secretly affianced his infant daughter to Prince Baldwin, the nephew of King Leopold II., of Belgium, who, on the death of his uncle and father, is thus to reunite the crowns of the two kingdoms separated by the revolution of 1830. But if Emma's child should not long survive her royal father, a German subject of the Imperial throne of the Hohenzollerns would become King of the Netherlands. This idea is abhorrent not only to the rulers and diplomats of all non-German countries, but most intensely so to the Dutch themselves, who have long been tormented by the thought that it is the ambitious design, if not the manifest destiny, of the new German Empire to absorb all its weaker Teutonic neighbors, and first of all Holland, whose coasts, and navy, and colonies would render Germany at once a first-class maritime Power. Be that as it may, Bismarck has not only betrayed his deep concern in Dutch affairs by suddenly appointing his own son, Count Herbert, Ambassador to the Hague, but, according to the latest reports, he has also, "during the illness of the Prince of Orange, caused the German representatives at the various European courts to declare that any attempt to make the succession or regency in Holland a European question would find instant opposition from Germany."

It is widely believed that it is the wish of Bismarck, if circumstances favor, to raise to the throne of the Netherlands a member of the German or ducal branch of the House of Nassau, which Prussia dispossessed of its duchy after the war of 1866, but subsequently conciliated by a treaty of compensation. Princess Wilhelmina stands in the way of this transaction. But, as we have said, she is not in the way of a German claimant to the succession in Luxemburg. This German Grand Duchy was given to the House of Orange, as a family possession but as a member of the Germanic Confederation, by the treaties of 1815, and was severed from Germany on the dissolution of the Confederation in 1866. King William III., who was deep in debts and a Prussophobist, in 1867 entered into a negotiation with Napoleon III. for the sale of it to France. The bargain was secretly concluded, but before its consummation the King, fearful of the victors of Sadowa, communicated the secret to the Prussian Ambassador, and Bismarck's decided and threatening declaration concerning the affair, in the North German Reichstag, forced Napoleon to allow William III. to abandon the business. A complete retreat was, however, impossible to the French Emperor, whose prestige had already suffered too much by the recent victories of Prussia, and he thus peremptorily demanded the withdrawal of the Prussian troops from the fortress of Luxemburg, which the Government of Berlin claimed to have an international right of garrisoning even after the dissolution of the former Germanic Confederation. Moltke was for answering Napoleon's demands with the sword, but Bismarck, satisfied with having baffled the French attempt at annexation, accepted the decision of a Conference of the Powers at London, neutralizing the territory of Luxemburg, and stipulating the razing of its fortress. And thus, in order to avert a war with France immediately after the war with Austria, the German troops were withdrawn from a German land, famous in the mediæval history of the Empire, and often fought for against France. The moment to reoccupy it for Germany will come when William III. dies—and his days are said to be numbered. Whether the rulers of Germany will then be content with this gain, is a graver and obscurer question.

SPANISH AFFAIRS.

There is a lull in the internal politics of Spain. The Conservative Cabinet of Cánovas del Castillo is in almost undisturbed possession of power, the election of two months ago having given it an overwhelming majority in the Cortes. Even Sagasta's Fusionists, but recently a powerful body, have dwindled to a faction. The Dynastic Left, Marshal Serrano's great party amalgam, is more insignificant still. Castelar's Posibilistas and Salmeron's more irreconcilable Republicans number together half-a-dozen. The Carlists are nowhere, and the Ultramontanes support the Government. The fugitive Zorilla's emissaries have egregiously failed in their late attempts to incite rebellion against the throne. The Black-Hand Anarchists of Andalusia have been mercilessly chastised for their murders, and are apparently crushed.

Aguero's insurrectionary movement in Cuba has ceased to be alarming. The financial troubles, the dislike of King Alfonso, the annoying press persecutions, the dissatisfaction among the many scores of unemployed generals, and similar evils, are not new, and thus cause but light ripples on the surface of the political current of the day. In almost any other constitutional country a government thus situated would consider itself happy and destined for long life; in Spain, where nothing is more stable than political instability, a lull like this is, perhaps, less enjoyed by the rulers than dreaded as a presage of an approaching violent commotion of some kind or other.

There is, however, a little cloud on the horizon of Spanish foreign affairs, which diverts the attention of parties, factions, leaders, and intriguers from the scenes and memories of parliamentary contests and excitements, and seems to presage an outburst of patriotic feeling which may unite all shades of political opinion. The wounds inflicted last year on the honor of Spain by the insolence of Parisian mobs, on the occasion of Alfonso's visit to the French capital, have scarcely been healed by the placating action of the President of the Republic, when a new provocation from beyond the Pyrenees threatens to cause a general recrudescence of anti-French sentiment. That France is anxious to extend her Algerian possessions westward, across the Moroccan border, as she lately extended them eastward by the virtual annexation of Tunis, has never been a secret. This desire of France is as offensive to the Spaniards as the aggression upon Tunis has been to the Italians. But the clashing of national interests and rivalries over the inheritance of the decaying Moroccan empire was, a short while ago, hardly deemed imminent, and, in fact, the first direct provocation was expected to come from Spanish rather than French encroachments upon the rights and territories of the Moorish Sultan. France, however, humbled and hemmed in in Europe by a foe she does not yet dare to challenge anew, is now actuated by an irresistible desire of expansion and conquest on other continents. Not satisfied with "glorious" achievements and other gains in Tunis, Madagascar, on the Congo, in Anam and Tonquin, and unmindful of the alienating influence which her ambitious African schemes have already exercised upon two friendly and kindred nations, Italy and Spain, driving them into the net of Bismarck's great coalition, she has almost openly turned her diplomatic engines, apparently precursors of military intervention, in the direction of Morocco, profiting by the present embarrassments of England, whose opposition to a further extension of French power and influence in Northern Africa might otherwise be dreaded.

All Spain is alarmed and excited in consequence. The general belief is that the present object of French ambition is the acquisition of territory adjoining both the northern and central portions of Algeria, including the town of Figig, and that, to achieve that end, M. Ordega, the Minister of the Republic at Tangier, has been using intrigues of all kinds, in that diplomatic capital of Morocco as well as in the interior—intrigues finally backed by threats and warlike demonstrations. Within the last month or two M. Ordega has been particularly active and demonstrative. The Sultan's Foreign Chancellor, residing in Tangier, is said to have been ensnared in the French interest, and the Sherif of Wazan placed in defiant antagonism to the Court of Fez. A rising of tribes in the interior and the arrival of a strong French squadron in the harbor of Tangier are reported, and, according to news from that place, M. Ordega has presented to the Moroccan authorities, for the Sultan's signature, a treaty "rectifying" the frontier of Morocco and Algeria. There may, however, be some exaggeration in all this, and perhaps France will not be too hasty in throwing down the gauntlet to the Spanish nation, which since last year's exchange of royal and princely visits has become a close ally of Germany.

THE LIBERAL EDUCATION OF THE FUTURE.

THE magazines and newspapers have lately contained some discussions of the nature and value of a liberal education; but no abstract discussion could present the position of this question in so strong a light as does the little announcement sent out by Harvard College, containing a list of the Freshman studies at Cambridge for the coming year. The prescribed studies are the following: Rhetoric and English composition, German or French, Physics, and Chemistry. Twenty years ago, the bulk of these (if not all of them) were not studied at Harvard in the first year of the course. In the list of electives, on the other hand, the three first studies are Latin, Greek, and mathematics. It appears, therefore, that the studies which formed the corner-stone of the Harvard education of twenty years since have become optional, and the circular appears to bear no other interpretation than that hereafter the Harvard diploma will not imply the possession of any more Latin, Greek, or mathematics than is now required for entrance to the Freshman class. They are still required studies for admission; but after admission they need not be pursued at all. This is the most momentous change in education which has taken place in recent years and marks the formal and final abandonment by one of the leading American universities of traditions handed down from father to son for four hundred years. President Eliot has recently contributed an article to the *Century* on the subject of liberal education, in which he shows how the standard has changed from period to period; but none of the changes in standards which he mentions are so serious as that which he himself has introduced; for ever since the revival of learning in Western Europe, and in this country since its settlement, the hall-mark of a liberal education has been in one sense the same; it has always implied a certain familiarity with the same branches of learning. A man graduated at Harvard or Yale or Oxford or Cambridge in the latter half of this century, would undoubtedly, as President Eliot says, study many things that Erasmus and Bacon, or even Milton and Gibbon would not have studied, and would follow new methods of study in the old branches of learning; but could he meet Erasmus, or Bacon, or Milton, or Gibbon, he would meet them, in a certain sense, on common ground. He might know vastly more about the universe than they did; his whole conception of life and philosophy might be clearer, but he would be able to bear with them, and endure and even enjoy their society, because the basis of his training would have been the same. He would have conned the very same propositions in some American Euclid which they had bothered over in the original; he would have the same familiarity with Cæsar's bridge-building on the Rhone—and, we may add, the same want of familiarity with the great engineering feats of modern times; he would know the same old stories of Plutarch's men, and how the geese saved the Capitol, and the opinion of Pythagoras about wild fowl, and the fall of Troy, and the wanderings of Ulysses, and the whole story of Greece and Rome, and the mighty lessons which they taught the world; and much more useful and also useless knowledge. He would up to a certain point have spoken the same language with them, had the same thoughts, looked at the world through the same eyes.

Now, if the changes adopted at Harvard are to become general, it looks as if the traditional freemasonry of a liberal education would soon be a thing of the past. Under this new system the diploma granted by a college will not enable us to know what learning a man possesses. A Harvard graduate may have devoted himself to Greek, Latin, and mathematics during most of his course, or he may have devoted his time mainly to the natural sciences, or to a *mélange* of learning consisting simply of the optional studies known among undergraduates as "soft," *i. e.*, those in which examinations from one cause or another can be passed most easily. The grant of the diploma by the college will signify not the possession by all its holders of a common fund of knowledge which is recognized by the educated world as constituting a liberal education, but the possession by each man of something which the college warrants as a liberal education, the nature of which, however, is left indeterminate and fluctuating. It is easy to see that the new system will be likely to produce consequences shocking to conservatives. Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., in his address on Greek, seemed to think that he disposed of the whole matter by inquiring of what "use" Greek was to anybody. But this, if we are not mistaken, is rather an appeal to the prejudices of a very practical-minded country than an argument properly speaking. A liberal education has never been limited to studies which can be shown to be of direct utility to the wants of mankind. In fact, the object of a liberal education is something different from this. A man may go through life perfectly well, and even make a large fortune in dry goods or stocks, without knowing what an isosceles triangle is, or who Plato was; and it would be very difficult to show the "use" of a knowledge of Plato's dogmas as you can show the use of Kent's Commentaries to a lawyer, or a knowledge of mechanics or chemistry to an inventor. It has always been assumed that knowledge is, like virtue, an end in itself, which proves its

value to its possessor. If every branch of learning were to be made to prove its utility by an appeal to what it "does for a man" in practical life, we fear that little would be left of liberal education. Mr. Adams may be quite right in his hostility to Greek; but it is only fair to point out that the experiment which Harvard has entered upon is a momentous one, and involves the consequence which we have endeavored to suggest here, but which seems to have escaped attention elsewhere—that in future the degree of the college which adopts the new system to its full extent will indicate nothing very definite as to what its possessor knows. It marks and signalizes the termination of an ancient bond of union among liberally educated men. Hereafter a liberally educated man may know who Solon was, and never have heard of Turgot or Ricardo; or he may be deeply versed in economical lore, but stare if you allude to Alcibiades or the Sicilian Expedition.

THE METHODS OF ENGLISH PLAYWRIGHTS.

AN enterprising London editor, following the example of M. Dreyfus, of whose symposium of French dramatists we gave an account recently, has succeeded in inducing a number of leading English playwrights to describe their individual methods of composition. Their communications are not quite so entertaining as those of their French confreres, but they are more serious, and in several cases they give really helpful advice and suggestions about the technical side of their art. Of course, however, like the Frenchmen, they profess themselves entirely unable to communicate the real secret, and their answers to the question how to write a play are still like that of the boy who said that the way to find the centre of a circle was to make a hole in the middle of it. But they all agree in pointing out the stumbling-blocks in the playwright's path—the peculiarities and capabilities of the actors for whom he is writing, the character of the theatre, the fashion of the day, the obtuseness of the licensing censor; and one of them has a prompt and, if true, a satisfactory explanation of the alleged scarcity of good English plays—that, except at the one house where they do appear, the Princess's, the money for them is not forthcoming.

The first thing Mr. G. R. Sims does when he gets a commission to write a play—and the last, too, we suppose—is to decline it, because it means months of mental misery and a long period of physical prostration to follow. Six commissions has he thus declined within the last few months. In the apparently rare cases when he determines to desert the "Dagonet Ballads" and "Horrible London" to try for another "Romany Rye," or the 250 nights of "The Lights o' London," he proceeds as follows: The story is first planned, and built up scene by scene. This he writes in a book and alters and alters until he has a clear story which he can tell, act by act, to a friend, taking care that at the end of each act there shall be an effective situation. As soon as the story is thus clear he begins to look at the motives which actuate the villain and hero, and if they are weak he casts about for stronger ones. When they will account reasonably for all that happens he completes the piece, that is, he writes the dialogue act by act. If a scene that is necessary does not come at once, he leaves a space for it, thus:

Scene.—Martin and Henry, leading up to the quarrel and blow.

Playwriting is both an art and a trick, and the great secret is to know what not to write. It is very satisfactory to find that Mr. Sims, whose cleverness has become a byword, resembles Turner in knowing no genius but the genius of hard work. His method of writing plays, he says, is to take infinite pains—it is the method which is the surest road to success, and it is because it is so seldom employed that the "dramatic ring" remains still so small a circle.

Mr. A. W. Pinero begins by conceiving a story. Mr. Thomas Hardy is probably of opinion that Mr. Pinero sometimes begins by conceiving other people's stories—"The Squire" and 'Far from the Madding Crowd,' for instance. This done, he settles upon the necessary number of people, endows them with such distinctive and peculiar qualities as memory and invention suggest, and christens them. Then he walks about with them for a week or a year, as the case may be. Next, by means of sketches, photographs, and plans, he gives them local habitations; then he splits the dialogue into acts, and arranges entrances and exits. The dialogue he writes as Weston walks, leaving the track only for slumber and refreshment. Result: "The Money Spinner" in eight days, "The Squire" in three weeks.

The forty plays which bear the name of Mr. Palgrave Simpson have been produced in much the same way: first, subject; second, plot; third, *scenario* (*charpente détaillée*, the French call it); fourth, dialogue; fifth and most important of all, cutting out—especially cutting out anything supposed to be exceptionally fine. Mr. H. A. Jones, the author of "An Old Master," "A Bed of Roses," "A Clerical Error," and the joint author with Mr. Herman of the immensely successful "Silver King" and the new play of "Chatterton," writes strongly in favor of moral purpose. Three kinds of knowledge are indispensable to the playwright, he says, besides the natural, inborn dramatic instinct: first, a thorough knowledge of the laws and conditions of the stage to-day, as of a trade to be learned like a carpenter's; second, a knowledge of life and men; third, some knowledge of the best literature. But more than all this, he well says, a play should mean and teach something, and have a definite aim—though not an obtrusive one—beyond stopping a gap in the foolish leisure of foolish people. Shakspere must be the playwright's eternal model in this respect, and his whole work leave a final impression of sane, joyous, well-ordered human life in a sane, joyous, well-ordered world. Mr. Jones's individual method is similar to those already described: first, abundant excogitation; then each scene planned in detail, with entrances, exits, business, etc. He differs from Sims, Pinero, and Simpson in writing the dialogue of each scene as soon as it is constructed, the passionate parts composed at a dash and left, the comedy introduced at any time and frequently polished. In all the papers there is nothing better than Mr. Jones's simile to explain his statement that a play must be of such a nature that you are always forced to think of it as one thing: "It is a great thing to find a story, a theme, a mustard-seed that will grow and expand, and throw skywards one great broad trunk of interest with an infinity of living branches of character and incident. A play should have the unity of a tree, the vital, organic connectedness—a grand simplicity of outline and action, with endless variety of circumstance and character." Mr. Henry Herman, one of the authors of "Claudian," so brilliantly successful, and the collaborator of Mr. Jones in several plays, writes in an equally lofty and cheerful tone about his art. He has no fixed way of working, he says; all that the playwright can do is to be a careful gardener. His best work is done in the early light of summer evenings. He can write fluently on fine summer and autumn mornings, but his best ideas come in the calm and quiet of a fading summer day. He would have the stage hold up the mirror to the best traits of human nature, and prove that there is truth in man and love in woman, reverence in youth and honor in old age. "I delight in my work," he adds, "and it gives me strength and health far beyond what I have the right to expect after more than fifty years of varied fortunes." Such views go far to explain the success of Messrs. Jones and Herman's plays, and justify the hope of still better work to come.

"Mr. Punch's" contribution to the symposium is, as usual, chiefly an advertisement of its editor, Mr. F. C. Burnand. To make a play, he adds, let the audience and the press be unanimously enthusiastic about it. Then that play is made. Mr. Punch further advises a Zola-like study of locality. For instance, "Messrs. Augustus Harris and Pettitt, who are engaged on a drama for Drury Lane next season, which is to be all about General Gordon, have already started for Khartum, and will be soon riding toward that place to the inspiring air of 'The Camels are Coming.'" As regards the disputed question of when the dialogue is best written, Mr. Punch says at rehearsal. "Give the actors the situations and let them say what naturally occurs to them. You, as author, will note it down on the spot and crystallize it. Then it will sparkle."

Mr. Sidney Grundy's contribution is amusing enough to be quoted in full if space permitted, but there are no new suggestions in it. Close adaptation is, from start to finish, collar-work. Original writing is a luxury, but one which only rich men can afford. There was more time, he says, spent over the studio scene in "The Glass of Fashion" than over the three acts of "La Cosaque"—now having a successful run at the Royalty Theatre in London—twice told. But the game was not worth the candle, he thinks. No doubt he speaks for a good many of his fellow-playwrights when he says he cannot tell "how he makes a play," for the simple reason that he never makes one. If he wrote what he considers a play, it would not be accepted. If it were accepted it would not be licensed. If it were produced it would be damned. And very likely he couldn't write one if he tried. Therefore he doesn't try.

All the English playwrights who have thus described their methods agree that the practice of their art, however fixed and clear the theory of it may be, is little better than a lottery. As the ancients would not venture to pronounce a man happy till death had rendered change impossible, so no play can be pronounced a success until the curtain has fallen before a satisfied audience, and to bring this about or to prevent it there are countless considerations apart from its intrinsic merit. Given an author with genius, a happily-found plot, a play constructed with infinite pains, and in the present condition of the theatre the only way to escape disappointment is to be resigned to failure. And if there are any would-be dramatists to whom this profusion of gratuitous advice seems to point the way to managers with open arms and crowded theatres resounding with the cry of "Author!" let them ponder the statement of Mr. James Albery, whose "Two Roses" introduced Henry Irving to a London audience, that during the fourteen years he has worked for the stage he has had only one play accepted that was not written to order—and then it was not produced. It is the old story—*rien ne réussit que le succès*: there is no secret of dramatic success, and if there were,

the playwrights would not fill the columns of a newspaper with discussions of it. As one of them frankly says, whoever found it out first would patent it.

PARTY ORGANIZATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 2.

THE growth of population in England seems slow when compared with that of the United States or the Australian colonies. But it is rapid when compared with that of any part of Continental Europe, or of England herself during the centuries that preceded the nineteenth. As the population has grown, so has the country become also smaller by the extension of railways and telegraphs through every corner of it. The people are better educated, more intelligent, more interested in public affairs. Newspapers are more than twice as cheap and as numerous as they were twenty-five years ago. The consequence of all these changes has been to bring political questions within the knowledge of a far larger part of the nation, and to make their details more familiar to the humbler classes now than they were to the middle class at the time of the great Reform Act. The constituencies also have been so much enlarged, first by that act in 1832, then by the Act of 1867, that far more effort is needed to know and get at the voters than was formerly required. All these causes working together naturally tended to promote political organization and to place it on a popular basis. Yet for some time the progress was slow. Association and discussion, although perfectly free, have no great inherent charm for an Englishman. He forms a society or a committee, he makes or listens to speeches, if there is some practical object in view. But he does not enjoy the process for its own sake so much as many of his neighbors. Up till 1870, although there were Liberal Associations and Conservative (or Constitutional) Clubs in most large towns, they had no very active life, and did not sensibly tell upon our politics. They consisted of any members of the party who liked to join and pay a small subscription; they held meetings now and then to listen to addresses or pass resolutions—that was all. About ten or twelve years ago, however, there grew up in Birmingham and some of the other West Midland towns, a new kind of party organization. It was based on the representation of local areas. Each ward held a meeting of Liberals, and sent from this meeting delegates to a central council, which, taking its name from the number of delegates, was called the Three Hundred, or Six Hundred, or Nine Hundred, as the case might be. This body was held entitled to represent and act for the whole party in the constituency, especially in selecting the persons who were to be candidates at the next Parliamentary election. The disasters which the Liberal party experienced at the general election of 1874 were largely due to the fact that in many constituencies Liberal candidates ran in opposition to one another, thus letting the Conservative candidates in. As the new representative organization promised a means of preventing these divisions because it enabled the party to decide which candidate or candidates they adopted, and so to discourage any others, it began to be talked about, and was widely adopted by the Liberals in the greater towns. It is now known to its friends as the Birmingham system, and to its enemies as the Birmingham caucus, that word being deemed to have an odor of corruption and trickery. The results have been encouraging. In 1874 the Conservatives were relatively better organized than the Liberals. They had the liquor-sellers on their side, so that nearly every public house was a centre of Conservative activity. In some districts, and particularly in Lancashire, they had also the clergy of the Established Church on their side, so that the schools attached to the churches were usually Conservative committee rooms. At the election of 1880, however, the Liberals were better organized than the Conservatives. Much was due to the zeal of the nonconformist ministers. But much was also due to the local party associations, some formed on, others stimulated by, the Birmingham model.

Another cause came in to intensify local political life. After the Bulgarian massacres of 1876, a vehement agitation, led by Mr. Gladstone, was raised against the foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry. As there was a strong and united Tory majority in the House of Commons, the Liberal Opposition was obliged to agitate in the country; and for three years every platform resounded with denunciations of the conduct of the Beaconsfield Cabinet in Turkey, in Afghanistan, in South Africa. These harangues excited the rank and file of the Liberal party in the towns; and while they promoted the growth of party organizations, they accustomed the people to feel a more constant and lively interest in current politics than had existed before. The Conservative defeat which followed, in 1880, was attributed by the Conservatives partly to the "Birmingham caucus," partly to the incessant and impassioned declamation of Mr. Gladstone and his coadjutors. Ever since, therefore, they have set themselves to learn and practise the same arts, just as in ancient Greece a city whose militia was defeated by the superior discipline of the Spartans used to train a special band till, like the Argives, or like the Thebans under Epaminondas, it was to face or overcome those redoubtable warriors. How to organize your party, how by the stimulus of frequent stump speeches to keep it in fighting humor, is the problem of the hour in England for a large section of politicians. The Tories, although they deplore the un-English character and demoralizing tendency of the Birmingham caucus, asserting that it enslaves both the mass of the constituency and their member of Parliament to a small gang of wire-pullers, have felt it necessary to have something of a similar kind. As the associations founded on the Birmingham plan are gathered into a Federation of Liberal Associations, whose standing committee makes suggestions for joint action (it has, I believe, no title to do more than suggest) to the local bodies, so the Conservatives have formed a National Union of Conservative Associations, which is intended to secure similar joint action. And out of this has grown the pretty little quarrel and reconciliation which amused England so much a month ago.

The chairman of this National Union of Constitutional Associations was Lord Randolph Churchill, an active young man, restless, clever, ambitious, and above all audacious. One of the vice-presidents was Mr. Gorst, member for Chatham, a man quite equal in ability to Lord Randolph, older and more experienced, and drawing an unusually large knowledge of the constituencies from the office, which he held for some years before 1874, of General Central Agent of the Tory party. He and Lord Randolph have been close political friends since the beginning of this Parliament, and it is commonly believed that he sketches out the lines of Lord Randolph's action. Now, there is an older authority in the Tory party, called the Central Committee, and managed by a knot of the recognized Parliamentary chiefs. This Committee, disliking the insubordinate ways of Lord Randolph and his friends, and feeling jealous of the Union of Constitutional Associations, frowned upon it, and gave it notice to quit the rooms which it occupied in London as tenant of the Central Committee. Moved by a natural resentment, Lord Randolph wrote a biting and in part somewhat insolent letter to Lord Salisbury as the head of the Central Committee, reproaching him and his coadjutors with ignorance both of the necessity for reorganization and of the new democratic spirit which is stirring in the Tory party, and in fact renouncing allegiance to him and them. The leading Conservative organs reprimanded Lord Randolph, and preached the duty of union under Lord Salisbury and Sir Stafford Northcote; but the Liberals were childishly gleeful, and applauded the rebel who seemed likely to divide the enemy's force. In Lord Beaconsfield's later days no such revolt would have taken place, or it at least would have been quickly suppressed; but now the generals cannot afford to ignore the sentiment of the inferior officers. Lord Randolph is popular with the locally active Tories through the country on account of his bold skirmishing and warm invectives against Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Gorst retains much influence among the Conservative clubs and associations, especially in the northwest of England. And the power of these two proved so great that after a few days it was announced that by the mediation of Alderman Arthur B. Forwood, of Liverpool, one of the ablest of the local Tory leaders, the schism had been healed. Lord Randolph and Mr. Gorst returned into the party fold, and resumed their places in the direction of the National Union of Constitutional Associations which they had resigned when the breach took place. Considering the terms of Lord Randolph's letter, this was practically a victory for him, and he has since emphasized it by twice refusing to follow the nominal leaders of his party in the House of Commons. Such an incident is the best proof of the importance which the local organizations have gained, for the Conservatives have hitherto been much more docile and united than the Liberals, and more disposed to adopt and applaud whatever course such an aristocratic chief as Lord Salisbury might adopt.

It is also an evidence of the desire among the Tories of the great towns to have some positive popular programme to offer. The nobility and landed gentry have hitherto dictated the policy of the Tories, and have, of course, been chiefly concerned to resist the rising tide of democratic change, to safeguard the rights of property, to defend the Established Church and the House of Lords. This is all very well, but it is too negative. It has given the Radicals the advantage of being able to represent their antagonists as obstructives, concerned to protect their own interests, but jealous of popular power, and indifferent to the bettering of the condition of the people. Disraeli, who had to the last a spice of his old democratic leanings, was never satisfied with the policy of mere resistance, and tried to pose as the friend of the town populace, as well as of the agricultural peasantry. Several times in his later years he descanted on social reforms, insisting that it was from the upper classes that the masses had most to expect. Even Lord Salisbury has once or twice tried to use similar phrases, but they slip less easily from his tongue. At present the leading apostles of Tory democracy are Lord R. Churchill in Parliament and Mr. Forwood out of it. There are no signs, so far, that it will draw off a large section of the workingmen from their allegiance to the Radical leaders. But it puts heart into the rank and file of the Tories—for in Lancashire, at least, there are plenty of workingmen Tories—and it may accelerate the passage of democratic measures by dividing the sympathies of Tories themselves. Already it is their unwillingness to seem to dread the people that keeps the Conserv-

ative leaders from openly opposing the Franchise Bill. And when questions come up, as they are more and more beginning to do, in which the interests of land-owners stand in the way of popular demands, there will be a pressure from their own side which the Tory land-owners will find it hard to withstand. It is, therefore, not the Radicals only that are leading England to democracy; it is the Tories also, not to speak of Mr. Parnell and the revolutionaries of Ireland.

Meanwhile the Liberals are chuckling over the dissensions in the Tory camp, and find in them some consolation for their own mishaps abroad. It is a delusive consolation, for no faults, or follies, or quarrels of their antagonists will save them from defeat if things turn out worse in Egypt. Although the reasonable course would be for those who think the Opposition still worse, to go on supporting the Government, men think more of the present than the future, and are apt to gratify their anger even when the gratification involves greater evils. Y.

GUIZOT'S CORRESPONDENCE.—II.

PARIS, June 5.

M. GUIZOT was Ambassador in London in 1840, and he learned in England, after his arrival, of the formation of the Cabinet of M. Thiers. He did not much like the political ideas of M. Thiers, especially in foreign affairs, but he would not resign at once. He wrote to the Duc de Broglie, who always remained his most intimate friend: "There is danger that this Cabinet will go too much to the Left. The mere appearance of this movement is a great evil, for there will result a new progress in the moral weakness of power. But we can struggle against this danger. I will do it here, you will do it in Paris; and when the deviation shall become real, I will at once resign. No more here than in Paris will I be associated with a bad policy—with a policy which will give way before the evil passions, instead of resisting them." Guizot, in his new position, had to see Lord Palmerston every day; he was already intimate with Lord Holland, Lord Clarendon, and Lord Lansdowne. Lord Melbourne seemed to him a curious mixture "of *insouciance* and authority, of *bonhomie* and command." Guizot became a lion in English society, but he wrote to his old mother: "I see much company, and people are very polite; but their habits are always a little *tendus*, and they have neither in their mind nor in their character the *laisser-aller*, the wealth, the movement, the prompt and sweet kindness which gives charm to the social relations." Guizot, however, was, and became even more in England, what the French call an *Anglomane*; few Frenchmen have understood so well the English language and the English character.

He did not at first understand Lord Palmerston very well, and he allowed the shrewd statesman to deceive him completely in the Eastern question, which had become the great question in 1840. M. Guizot was ignorant to the last that on the 14th of July Lord Palmerston had succeeded in uniting the four great European Powers, to the exclusion of France, in a treaty of alliance. "This is grave," he writes to his mother on the 31st of July, "and might become even more so. I do not doubt that some persons will throw the responsibility for it on me. . . . In the end, I think there will be in all this more noise than evil. England really does not wish a war, nor a rupture with France. The English public is cold and divided on the Eastern question. Lord Palmerston has committed his country to a bad course, but I am inclined to think that his country will stop when danger becomes imminent. France, notwithstanding the present agitation, will not make war without an evident and pressing necessity. . . . Pray God, you and my children, to give me light and courage." The King, Louis Philippe, was determined not to go to war in the face of this most formidable coalition; he saved France from the ambition, the restlessness, and the imprudence of M. Thiers. He had seen France twice invaded; he knew the miseries of war and of revolution, and he felt that his mission was to keep France intact. Lord Palmerston took his opportunity. He had deceived M. Guizot; M. Guizot left London, but he returned to France only to take the place of M. Thiers and to form a new Cabinet. France had been humbled, but peace had been preserved. "We shall see," wrote M. Guizot to his friend M. de Barante; "we will not long remain out of the general affairs of Europe. It is well for all that we should be in Europe. France is too great a country for the void of her absence not to be soon felt. We shall wait till it is felt, and till we are told that it is felt. I am excessively disgusted with *fanfaronnade*, but we can wait tranquilly and keep the liberty of choice." This terrible Eastern question, which agitated Europe in 1840, is always open; and in 1884, as in 1840, France has the liberty of choice.

The opposition of M. Thiers became formidable in 1840, and M. Guizot, with the King, had to struggle not only against the coldness, the ill-will of Europe, but against unscrupulous enemies in the interior. The death of the Duke of Orleans was a terrible blow to the King and to the country. "Since three years ago," wrote Guizot to General Bugeaud when he sent him the staff of a Marshal, "you and I have carried on a terrible war. We have both had some successes. But I feel that I am even more than you far from the end of the war; and I have more battles to fight than you in the future. It will be as it pleases God. I am not accessible to discouragement." In 1844 Guizot accompanied the King to Windsor, on a visit to Queen Victoria; the journey was very successful. The Government felt very strong, as the country felt much satisfaction from the continuation of peace, and from what was then called the *entente cordiale* with England. The King was determined to rise always above the small questions, the small incidents, and, with the help of England, to maintain peace in Europe. M. Guizot had become very intimate with Lord Aberdeen and wrote to him confidential letters. Some of these letters are very characteristic: fancy in 1845, M. Guizot, Prime Minister, explaining to Lord Aberdeen, almost in an apologizing spirit, in the most minute details, the preparations of the French navy and of the French ports, sending to him notes on the port of Calais, etc. It was, to be sure, the time when M. Thiers, in a conversation of eight hours, explained the new fortifications of Paris to Lord Palmerston, who had come on a visit to Paris.

The Spanish marriages interrupted the famous "cordial alliance." This time Lord Palmerston was as completely defeated as the French Government in 1840. In a letter to Mme. de Gasparin (November, 1846), M. Guizot says: "Lord Palmerston counted on four things: first, on our drawing back; second, on a strong opposition in the Cortes; third, on insurrection; fourth, on the adhesion of the Continental courts to his policy. Four mistakes. The last one is very bitter to him. In 1840, on the miserable question of Egypt, England had the victory in Europe. In 1846, on the great question of Spain, she is beaten, and she is alone. It is not only because we have played our game well: it is the result of six years of good government. This is why our success is pardoned even by the courts which do not like us." The Queen of Spain offered to make M. Guizot a duke. "I will be neither duke nor prince," he writes. "I have refused it to the Queen of Spain, and I have told my King that if ever I had the fancy of being a duke I would be one of his making, but that this fancy would not take me." To M. Bresson, the Ambassador of France in Spain, who offered him officially the duchy and the *grandeza* of Spain: "No, I am not a puritan, nor a democrat. I have no more contempt for titles than for all the other exterior signs of greatness—neither contempt nor appetite. I only care for two things: in my lifetime, for my political strength; afterward, for the honor of my name. If I thought that the *grandeza* and the duchy could add something to-day to my strength, and later to my name, I would accept them with pleasure. I believe the contrary. I think there is more strength for me now, and that there will be more honor later, in my remaining M. Guizot, *tout court*. If our House of Peers was hereditary—if I could leave to my descendants, to sustain them in their mediocrity of merit or of fortune, my titles and my honors—I should perhaps act differently."

Lord Palmerston had fought in Spain against M. Guizot a battle in which he had been defeated. From that moment he became bitterly hostile not only to M. Guizot, but to King Louis Philippe. The revolution of February was almost hailed by him with joy. The monarchy of July fell when it seemed completely assured of the sympathies of Europe and of the world, and of the fidelity of France. A handful of Anarchists upset a King who had become old and who was unwilling to shed the blood of the people. Louis Philippe had been led to the Hôtel de Ville and to the Tuileries by the National Guard of Paris: he was the King of the "bourgeoisie." When the National Guard joined the opposition in the cry for electoral reform he abdicated, and the abdication was the signal of one of those revolutionary storms which from time to time go over Paris and France, and change the face of all things for a whole generation. M. Guizot fled to England; and took a small house near Broughton. He lost there his old mother, who had joined him. He spent most of his time with his children, and began quietly some literary and historical works. He wrote to his friend M. Vitet: "We have spent in seventeen years all the capital of good sense and of political courage which the country had saved since 1789. In 1848 the country could no more honor our drafts. It has failed. How much time will be necessary to form a new capital? I do not know." To the same friend he says: "My greatest trouble in all this is the wound given to my national pride. I cannot console myself for paying so dearly for such a spectacle offered to Europe."

M. Guizot returned to France in 1849; he was not molested on his return, and was even politely received in Normandy. The Revolution of 1848 had deranged nothing at the Val-Richer, an ancient abbey which M. Guizot had bought, and which was his summer resort. He lived there most quietly, calm, in a certain sense detached from everything; he was not dissatisfied with himself, though he did not feel exactly as Metternich, whom he once had met in London, while they were both exiled. "I have one consolation," said Metternich: "I am conscious that I have not committed a mistake." "I am happier than you," answered Guizot, "for I have made some and I have perceived it." In his retreat, M. Guizot felt that France would not long remain under the rule of the men who were called the Republicans of 1848—men, by their education, by their low instincts, and their ignorance, unfit for the higher parts of politics. A reaction had taken place almost immediately

after the Revolution; a strong government was desired. Some looked upon Louis Napoleon, some upon the Comte de Chambord. France had the choice between two dynasties—the new dynasty that had issued from the Revolution, and the old and traditional dynasty. Louis Philippe, in his exile at Claremont, advised himself a return to the legitimate and traditional monarchy. Guizot had the same feelings. They both felt that the years passed between 1830 and 1848 had been a sort of interregnum; that the principle of legitimacy was necessary to a dynasty; that heredity was the only solid basis of monarchy. There are, in the volume now published by Mme. de Witt, some most curious letters of Guizot on this question of the fusion. In a letter dated the 9th of July, 1850, he gives an account of a visit made to the King, Louis Philippe. The King told him: "It is a great misfortune, this want of union in the House of Bourbon. I will not add to it the disunion of the House of Orleans." There is a very interesting note on the fusion of November, 1850, which was placed by the Duc de Noailles in the hands of the Comte de Chambord. In this note M. Guizot declares himself for the union of the two branches of the royal family, and shows what concessions ought to be made by the Orleanists to the legitimists and by the legitimists to the Orleanists. I should not wonder if the new book had had for one of its principal objects the publication of documents which, in the present circumstances of France, have a new interest. Death has brutally done what the statesmen could never do; but many of the considerations into which M. Guizot enters have lost none of their value.

Correspondence.

MORE WESTERN LOCUTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As to the use of *right smart*, not long since, in examining a native Indianian who was testifying as to the value of a certain small tract of land, he was asked how many potatoes he had raised that season on the ground, to which he replied, "I raised a heap, for I sold a pile and had right smart left." That sentence is in the pure vernacular of Southern Indiana and Illinois. T. K.

Cincinnati, June 13.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the use of the expression "I allow," I would say that I have travelled extensively in Missouri and the Southwest, and have heard the expression used many times in both senses mentioned by previous correspondents, viz.: as "I intend" and as "I said." And I have often heard two other words used in a sense that may be new to you, viz: "fault" as a verb, meaning "to find a particular fault or imperfection." For instance, a farmer boasting of the excellence of his horse will say: "There he is, *fault* him if you can." The other word is "batted," meaning "closed one's eyes in sleep," as, "My child has been so sick for a week that I have not *batted* my eyes once."—Respectfully, Chas. L. Case.

St. Louis, June 16, 1884.

Notes.

The Index which usually accompanies the closing number of the *Nation*'s volumes, is unavoidably postponed till a later issue.

Mr. W. J. Linton's 'Wood Engraving: A Manual of Instruction,' a text-book for young engravers, will be issued at once by Scribner & Welford.

'A Trip to Alaska,' by George Wardman, the Revenue Inspector at the Seal Islands, is announced by Lee & Shepard.

J. R. Osgood & Co. have in press two summer novels, 'Miss Luddington's Sister,' by Edward Bellamy, and 'Where the Battle was Fought,' by Charles Egbert Craddock.

'Elizabeth Fry,' by Mrs. E. R. Pitman, will form the next volume in Roberts Brothers' "Famous Women" series.

McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics for 1884' is announced for publication in August by James J. Chapman. It will cover the period from August 9, 1882, to the adjournment of Congress, and in it particular attention will be given to the history of the tariff enactments.

Lyon G. Tyler, Esq., of the Richmond bar, the son of President Tyler, has ready and will publish at once by subscription 'Letters and Times of the Tylers,' in two octavo volumes. The work includes the biographies of Governor Tyler, of Virginia, and his son the President, and will contain many unpublished letters from eminent men, as well as speeches, etc., etc. It will be an interesting contribution to American history.

Porter & Coates authoritatively contradict the rumor that the Comte de Paris has suspended work upon his 'History of the Civil War in America' to undertake a history of the reign of Louis Philippe. He has completed the seventh and will soon finish the eighth volume of the French edition, both of which will be published here together as the fourth volume of the American edition.

Westermann & Co. send us the prospectus of the 'Collezione Fiorentina di Facsimili Paleografici Greci e Latini illustrati da Girolamo Vitelli e Cesare Paoli (Successori Le Monnier, Firenze).' The aim of this collection is to make accessible to scholars interested in paleography reproductions from Codices and documents belonging to the great Florentine libraries. When complete it will include about three hundred plates, published in twelve parts. The specimen page which accompanies the prospectus is admirably executed. The price is 50 lire for each part.

From the same source we have received three specimen plates of Julius von Pflugk-Harttung's 'Chartarum Pontificum Romanorum Specimina Selecta' (Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer). This work will consist of about one hundred facsimile reproductions of Papal papers, both genuine and forged, up to the middle of the twelfth century. In some cases fragments only of the documents are given, but sufficient to serve as illustrations. The first half of the series is nearly ready, and the price of the entire work is not to exceed 100 marks. The Berlin Academy of Sciences supports the undertaking.

The *Studio* will begin a new series on August 2, under the editorship of Mr. Clarence Cook, under whose charge it may be confidently expected that this art journal will increase in utility and interest.

The *Educational Courant* is a new monthly published at Louisville, Ky., and devoted to the educational interests of the State. The principal topic in its first number is the propriety and need of national aid to the South for the purpose of education. The increase of such publications is in itself a promising sign.

The last number of *Science* is of very varied interest and shows new strength. Its most curious article is one on the position of science in the Russian universities, translated from the *Viestnik Evropy* for November, 1883.

Outing for July is practically a midsummer number, and perhaps one would naturally expect a magazine of this title to do its best in the warm season. Several articles are sketches of travel, that on the Catskills, with its modest illustrations, being particularly entertaining.

As the warm season has come, and minds devoted to serious studies in winter may be unable to do more than divert themselves with trifles, we may be pardoned for recording some more instances of the havoc which types can make with the titles of books. A single catalogue gives us 'Clara Reeve's Old English Barn,' 'Swinburne's Century of Scoundrels,' and 'Una and Her Papuse.' But this is outdone by the bookseller in this city who offers for sale 'Blavatzky. Mrs. Izis Unveilled.'

'The Tourist's Hand-book to Switzerland' (T. Nelson & Sons, London), by Robert Albert, member of the Italian Alpine Club, is a very convenient guide to the mountain routes, and contains much varied and minute miscellaneous information. In particular it is plentifully provided with maps (twenty-four), plans, etc.

A similar work, 'The Isle of Wight,' comes to us from the same publishers. It is by the inexhaustibly fertile author, Mr. W. H. Davenport Adams, and besides being a guide-book is a compendium of the history, antiquities, science, etc., of that most delightful island. It is amply furnished with maps, distance tables, statistics, and the usual properties of such a work.

A novelty in Sunday-school literature has been put forth by Mr. Charles F. Dole, under the title, 'The Citizen and the Neighbor' (Boston: Unitarian Sunday-School Association). It is a pamphlet-like little book, full of questions and answers in regard to government, socialism, the relation of buyers and sellers, employers and employed, and similar topics of political economy, and concludes with a chapter on our international duties. It is distinguished from secular every-day primers only by a very frequent and almost humorous use of the words, "the Golden Rule," which are meant perhaps to give that suggestion of the odor of sanctity which cannot be altogether dispensed with, even by those who are willing to substitute Mill and Cairnes, or possibly Kelley and Mr. George, for the Pentateuch and the Gospels as Sunday study for infant minds.

"The Twenty-fifth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Cooper Union" exhibits the work of that institution in the past in a very strong light, and pleads, with all the force derived from this simple presentation of what has been actually done, for an endowment from its friends. The limit of its usefulness with its present resources is declared to be reached; and it is said that its proper development requires an addition of a million dollars to the funds, besides the one hundred thousand given by the will of Peter Cooper. The trustees, therefore, while acknowledging the gift of another hundred thousand from Mr. Cooper's heirs, inform the public that that philanthropist never expected to be able to endow the Union wholly from his own means, but hoped that others would join with him or follow his example. The trustees now urge that the change brought about in the circumstances of the institution by its founder's death offers a proper opportunity for such benevolence.

Volume iii. of John J. Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Political Science, Political Economy, and United States History,' Oat-Zol (Chicago: Melbert B. Cary & Co., 1884), with the general merits of which our readers have been made familiar by notices of volumes i. and ii. as they came from the press, is the largest in quantity and the best in quality of the series. The list of American writers embraces several names not included among the earlier contributors. Mr. Alexander Johnston furnishes, as in the preceding volumes, the articles on American His-

tory, the more important being those on the Ordinance of '87, Rebellion, Reconstruction, Returning Boards, Revolution, and Slavery. Mr. A. R. Spofford writes the articles on Parliament, Parliamentary Law, and States. Mr. Dorman B. Eaton gives his views on the subjects of Patronage, Primary Meetings, Removals, and the Spoils System—all of excellent quality and of immediate public interest. In the department of Political Economy Mr. Francis A. Walker contributes an article on Public Revenue, Mr. David A. Wells one on Taxation, Mr. Worthington C. Ford articles on Prices, on Refunding, and on Tariffs. Mr. Horace White furnishes a synoptical review of the Paris Monetary Conferences of 1867, 1878, and 1881. Mr. Simon Sterne writes with his customary vigor on the subject of Railways. Literary Property is treated by George Haven Putnam, Pauperism by F. B. Sanborn, Patents by F. W. Whitridge, Repudiation by George Walton Greene, Office-holders by E. L. Godkin, Tammany Hall by Talcott Williams, Prisons and Prison Discipline by F. H. Wines, Proportional Representation by Alfred B. Mason. These articles and names will serve to indicate the scope and character of the work to those who are not already familiar with it.

Two recently-completed works of local history and antiquities will be found to have a more than local interest. The first of these comprises the 'Proceedings at the Centennial Celebration of the Incorporation of the Town of Longmeadow' (Mass.), last October. Out of its more than 400 pages, nearly one-half are occupied with various historical appendices. The names of Storrs, Williams, Ely, Stebbins, and Wolcott are honorably associated with this attractive old town in the Connecticut valley. The book has seventeen admirable illustrations; and among the portraits will be recognized the strong face of the first Dr. Richard S. Storrs. The other volume is the 'Celebration of the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Organization of the Congregational Church and Parish in Essex, Mass.,' which occurred in August last. Essex was originally the Second Parish in Ipswich, and it was before the separation from the parent town took place that Rev. John Wise became its minister. Naturally, that part of the volume which possesses the most general interest is the careful and thorough historical address on John Wise, by Rev. Dr. Henry M. Dexter. Very clearly he points out wherein consisted the essential influence of John Wise on his own time, and on the Americans of the Revolutionary period. Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, it will be remembered, had already, in his 'History of American Literature,' said of Wise that, "Upon the whole, no other American author of the colonial time is the equal of John Wise in the union of great breadth and power of thought with great splendor of style." Dr. Dexter's address, amply fortified with references to authorities, places John Wise in his proper relation to the movements of his time.

The issuing of old books with new titles must be a profitable business if we can judge of the matter by the frequency with which one firm of publishers resort to the practice. G. W. Carleton & Co., of this city, have just issued four anonymous novels which they advertise as "New Summer Novels." To all appearances they are new, having copyright notices and dates of 1884, and with no intimation on the title-pages that they are old books. The names of the four are: 'A Faithful Lover'; 'Fettered, yet Free'; 'Love's Warfare'; and 'Rival Charms.' The first is a reissue of 'The Rangers and Regulators of the Tanaha,' by A. W. Arrington, published in 1856; the second is 'Undercurrents of Wall Street,' by R. B. Kimball, 1862; the third is 'Twixt Hammer and Anvil,' by Frank Lee Benedict,' 1876; and the fourth consists of two stories by Annie Edwardes, called 'A Blue Stocking,' 1877, and 'A Vagabond Heroine,' 1873. The author of a work, in publishing a new edition, may change the title to one more suitable to the book, if the change is not concealed, but here there is no question of this kind. The titles have been altered, and all evidence removed of the original names, evidently for the purpose of palming off on the unsuspecting purchaser books which he may have bought and read years ago. The only method, apparently, to protect the book-buyer from such practices is to give such publicity to these publishing methods as will stop the sale of the books, and so render the practice unprofitable.

At the tercentenary celebration of the founding of Emmanuel College at Oxford, last week, the degree of LL.D. was conferred on Professor Charles Eliot Norton, of Harvard College, who was present on the part of the University, John Harvard having been a graduate of Emmanuel. The honor could not have been more fitly conferred whether regard be had to Professor Norton's personal worthiness or to his character as representative of the best culture of America.

We learn on excellent authority that "Frederic Daly," the name on the title-page of the new biography of Irving, 'Henry Irving in England and America, 1838–1884,' is the *nom de guerre* of a Mr. Austin, who is Mr. Irving's private secretary. Under the circumstances, the unvarying eulogy of the biography is not surprising.

The statement which has been made in several quarters that the late Mr. Sam Ward left behind him in letters and notes sufficient manuscript material to form an autobiography is incorrect. During his last year in England Mr. Ward wrote the first part of the memoirs which he had long projected, and this was privately printed in a small volume and given to a few friends. As it deals, however, only with his life as a very young man, up to the close of his first visit to Europe, it is of no general interest and will not be published. Beyond this, Mr. Ward has left almost nothing of biographical interest. He had intended to live in London in retirement on his return from Italy until he had completed his memoirs, and indeed had engaged rooms for the purpose before he was taken ill. His reminiscences could hardly have failed to be among the most entertaining that have appeared for many years, since he had a thorough knowledge of men, and a very wide circle of acquaintances among the most interesting people of the last fifty years.

The *Academy* reports that an interesting point has been made bearing upon the identity of William Herbert with the W. H. of Shakspere's Sonnets, in rebuttal of the objection that Shakspere would not have urged a youth of eighteen to immediate marriage. Rev. W. A. Harrison has found in the Calendar of State Papers that "when William Herbert was only seventeen his parents had negotiated a marriage for him with Bridget de Vere, of the Cecil family; and that Herbert's mother, the Countess of Pembroke, Sir Philip Sidney's sister, was specially anxious for the match. Moreover, the confidential agent and servant of the Earl of Pembroke in the matter was Arthur Massinger, the father of Philip Massinger the dramatist; and thus a link between the Massingers and Shakspere is probably supplied, for that in 1598 Shakspere knew the Countess of Pembroke no reader of the Sonnets can doubt who remembers the lines—

"'Thou art thy mothers glasse; and she in thee
Calls backe the louely Aprill of her prime.'"

Another matter of interest to Shaksperian scholars is the translation of "The Merchant of Venice" into modern Greek by Mr. Bikélas—Ὁ ἔμπορος τῆς Βενετίας. This task offered exceptional difficulties, but it will be very novel and entertaining for an Englishman to read *Gobbo's* fun in the language of Aristophanes. The *Academy* praises the translator's work.

The Slavs of Lusatia, popularly known as the Wends, are, if we may believe Traugott Pech, one of their distinguished scholars, experiencing a revival of national feeling and taste for literature. This little people, he says, composed largely of those engaged in manual labor, read the journals and books published in their own language, even the works of a high order of literature. Herr Pech has just brought out a translation of the section of Pypin and Spasowicz's great history of the Slav literatures, devoted to the literature of the Wends, under the title 'Das serbischwendische Schriftthum in der Ober- und Niederlausitz,' Leipzig, Brockhaus, with notes and complementary matter.

The course of Sunday talks on the Pentateuch, begun last winter by Dr. Heber Newton, Rector of All Souls' Church, in this city, was discontinued at the not very judicious request of his Bishop; the substance of them now appears in book form under the title: 'The Book of the Beginnings. A Study of Genesis, with an Introduction to the Pentateuch' (New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1884). "Neither deference to my Bishop," says the author, "nor the sincerest desire for peace can make it right that I, and the people who have so loyally upheld me in good report and in evil report, should rest under the misconstructions which have been placed upon the teachings of All Souls' pulpit." Dr. Newton writes not as an original critic, but simply with the purpose of popularizing some of the most valuable conclusions of modern Biblical criticism, and thus helping thoughtful students of the Bible to a better understanding of the Pentateuch. And he has performed this task in a very creditable manner. He has read the best books intelligently, and stated their results clearly, in a not unattractive style and in a reverent spirit. These "talks" will be acceptable to the general public who wish to see on what grounds the critics base their conclusions respecting the Pentateuch.

A very different "book of the beginnings" is that to which Mr. Gerald Massey has been devoting his time for the past twelve years, of which the conclusion is now given us in two quarto volumes containing over a thousand pages. The nature of the work may be judged from the title: 'The Natural Genesis, or Second Part of a Book of the Beginnings, containing an attempt to recover and reconstitute the lost origines of the Myths and Mysteries, Types and Symbols, Religion and Language, with Egypt for the Mouthpiece, and Africa as the Birthplace' (New York: Scribner & Welford). It is an enormous conglomeration of facts set down with entire indifference to scientific principles of comparison—not without utility as a bare collection of things (though the statements cannot always be relied on as correct), but, as far as the author's aim is concerned, absolutely worthless.

The first part of the long-expected *Prolegomena* to Tischendorf's eighth critical edition of the New Testament has appeared under the editorship of two Americans, C. R. Gregory, of Leipzig, and the late Ezra Abbot, of Cambridge (Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). Very little of the matter is Tischendorf's. This first part contains the apparatus criticus, canons of textual criticism, grammatical forms, the form of the text, the history of the text, and the uncial manuscripts; the cursives, versions, and ecclesiastical writers are reserved for the second part. This is by far the most complete and accurate treatise on the points discussed that has yet appeared, and, together with Westcott and Hort's second volume (which gives the historical, scientific New Testament text-

criticism), will be a thesaurus for students of the text. In so large a mass of details the editors will hardly hope entirely to have escaped errors, but from these the book seems to be singularly free. Like Tischendorf's own *Prolegomena*, this is written in Latin.

The *Bulletin Critique* has made the latest contribution to the literature of plagiarism. M. Merlet, it appears, in the second and third parts of his 'Tableau de la Littérature Française, 1800-1815,' just issued, has been guided in his judgments to a very remarkable extent by Sainte-Beuve, and not merely in his judgments, but in his very sentences, his comparisons, his metaphors, his commencements, and his conclusions. He has read and reread Sainte-Beuve so many times, and his memory is so good, that he retains everything, often in its proper order, not mixing up the various articles in the least, and never saying of one great man what Sainte-Beuve had said of another. And yet, after all, the result is not Sainte-Beuve, but Merlet, for one can take a writer's ideas and figures and words even, and yet not catch his style. Here, at least, M. Merlet is original. For instance, it would be difficult to find in Sainte-Beuve a metaphor like this: "Mingling like horse-flies, their busy buzzing with innocent plots which were spoiled in the egg, and in which there were more sharp phrases than poignards," nor does he weary his readers with ambitious but vague clauses like "the furtive gleams of an indistinct dawn," or "the equivocal emphasis of an evasive and ambiguous style." Where Sainte-Beuve is easy, natural, vivid, M. Merlet is pretentious, artificial, periphrastic. He develops Sainte-Beuve, and on the whole it would be shorter and more satisfactory to read that critic in his own essays. The sole advantage of seeking to make his acquaintance in the arrangement of M. Merlet seems to be that he is not the only author who has been read and used; one gets his observations mingled with those of many others, Montégut's, for instance, and this may be a treat for those who like pot-pourris.

—*Harper's* for July is the first to arrive of the hot-weather magazines, and, perhaps with unpremeditated fitness, its three travel sketches, with their profuse illustrations, bring suggestions of coolness from the mere fact that they concern great bodies of water. "The Nile," being a principal topic in the public mind, leads off the number, and it contains several pleasant bits of Oriental myth and festival, given with picturesqueness and bright local coloring; of the articles on the St. Lawrence and the approaches to New York not so much can be said. These are all very light reading, and in fact there is little in the whole number to detain attention with any second thought. The appreciative notice of the deaf and dumb schools of Kendall Green at Washington affords a fine, though slight, instance of the curious modifications which the ideas of the blind or deaf suffer, and which in their thoroughness must be practically inconceivable to persons who are whole. The anecdote is characteristic of a child's mind, but is the more touchingly illustrative on that very account. The pupil was telling the familiar story of George Washington and the cherry tree, and wrote out the conclusion on the blackboard thus: "'He took his hatchet in his left hand, and told his father he did it.' 'Why did he take his hatchet in his left hand?' asked the teacher, surprised at the expression; and the answer came promptly, 'Because he had to use his right hand to tell his father.'" Anthropomorphism in a form at once so simple and so transparent, is seldom met with in persons of sound senses. This article, in fact, is the most suggestive of all; but some of the sex to which it would naturally appeal most directly will find more entertainment in the learned gossip of Miss Alice Comyns Carr about the professional beauties of the last century, and in particular the Gunnings, whose triumphs will rouse the envy of generations of fashionable women yet to be. Mr. Joseph Hatton's account of Harrow is valuable mainly for its illustrations of the school and its neighborhood. In the "Easy Chair," Mr. Curtis has a characteristic memorial note on "Tom Appleton." Harper's best illustrations are those to "Approaches to New York."

—The *Atlantic* has not reached its summering period. Mr. Torrey's "Bird-Gazing in the White Mountains," which is a charming nature-piece, belongs to late spring and the time of lingering snow-drifts, and "The Underworld in Homer, Virgil, and Dante" is suggestive of anything but the cheerful June weather. The most interesting article is really of a depressing kind; its very title is "The Gospel of Defeat." The mood it presents, however, is rather the languor than the sorrow of the soul, and its "defeat" is of the sort that can be enjoyed only in the quiet and uncultivated beauty of a remote country seat. It is made up of a discussion of the thoughts of Senancour, as set forth in 'Obermann,' and of Maine de Biran and Henri-Frédéric Amiel, as set forth in their private journals; but the discussion is remarkably ineffective. What "gospel" there is either in these writers, or in the critic's reflections we entirely fail to discover. All of these three Frenchmen had singularly beautiful detached thoughts—one should rather call them sentiments; but if they were kindred to the great spiritualistic writers, to St. Francis, Thomas à Kempis, Pascal, they were so only in their susceptibilities, not in their activities, and if they "remind us of David and Job," it is by contrast surely. These three sentimentalists (we do not use the word disparagingly), who made self-confession their serious intellectual business, lacked power; and in the spiritual life, as in all life, power is the only sign of the real presence, if we may use a mystic word to express a psychologic fact. The praise of weakness, or, to adopt the phrase given, "the gospel of defeat," is, in fact, a sort of coddling of the religious instinct, and the effort made at the conclusion of this article to identify the career of these three high-bred recluses with that of Him who bade his disciples go forth into all the world and preach to all men, is just one of those errors of Christian rhetoric which only go to discredit the Christian ideal in the most practical minds. Of the other articles, "The Haunts of Galileo" is excellent both in interest and style, and "Beaten by a Giaour," a short story, is fresh and entertaining. Mr. Aldrich's "Five Quatrains" make the fine thing of the number, the third, in particular, being equal in immediacy, impressiveness, and a certain high simplicity of style to any work of this kind.

—Mr. J. Morrison Davidson, a well-known London journalist and barrister, who will be remembered here as the author of a volume of clever sketches of "Eminent Liberals," has just issued, under the title of "The New Book of Kings," a series of articles on the English monarchs, contributed to *Reynolds's Weekly News*, an English Radical and popular paper of enormous circulation.

"It is the unspeakable misfortune of Englishmen that the true history of their monarchy has never yet been written by a competent hand. The Humes, Freemans, Froudes, Macaulays, and Greens are scholars and polished writers, but 'the root of the matter is not in them.' . . . Wanted—A competent English historian. None but Republicans and Democrats need apply."

This passage, with the motto on the title-page, "Put not your trust in Princes," sufficiently indicates Mr. Davidson's point of view. From William to Victoria—including Cromwell—is, according to him, one long series of outrages upon the rights and patience of the English people, and against most of the monarchs he brings charges of various vices and crimes—often, it must be said, with too much truth, although with indiscriminate invective, which defeats its own scathing purpose. William I., in this new history, is a "monster"; William Rufus "a greater villain even than his father, if his more limited opportunities are taken into account"; Henry I. "a miracle of treachery, vindictiveness, and avarice"; Stephen "a mere swashbuckler"; John "an incomparable scoundrel, whose character is summed up in one sentence of contemporary hate, 'Foul as it is, hell itself is defiled by the fouler presence of John.'" As these essays, in their original form, have possibly passed under the eyes of a million readers, whatever may be their faults of historical perspective, they can hardly have failed to accomplish their author's purpose—to call attention, namely, to the inductive basis of the divine right of kings.

—Mr. David Gill, her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, continues with unabated zeal his career of exceptional activity. He became well known years ago as the astronomer in charge of the observatory of Lord Lindsay (now the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres), the two coöperating with enthusiasm in astronomical investigations of a high order. In 1877, under the auspices of the Royal Astronomical Society, he made a series of parallactic observations of Mars at the island of Ascension, his reduction of which has given us without much doubt the most accurate individual determination of the sun's distance ever made. On his return to England, early in the present year, the secretaries of the Royal Astronomical Society invited him to address that body relative to the work upon which he had been engaged for the past five years at the Cape—work which has been of two kinds: new investigations, and the clearing up of arrears of old observations; for his predecessor in office, although he had done much of this latter sort, had still left unpublished materials for valuable catalogues of stellar positions (which Mr. Gill has now completed and put to press), and in addition a large mass of occultations of stars by the moon, which Mr. Gill has now rendered available for the purposes of astronomical research, through the coöperation of Professor Newcomb. But the present and projected labors of Mr. Gill are in a still more interesting direction. Not only have the meridional observations been kept up at the rate of five thousand per annum, numerous observations of occultations and cometary positions made, the longitude of Cape Town determined telegraphically for the first time, the survey of the Cape organized and set on foot, and a regular series of tidal observations instituted at four stations (with the prospect of the corresponding harmonic reductions), but Mr. Gill has also devoted himself assiduously to heliometer observations of a few stars in the Southern hemisphere, for the purpose of ascertaining their annual parallax and distance from the solar system. In these researches he has had the collaboration of Mr. Elkin, now of the Yale College observatory, and their methods of procedure in this work have led to results of unusual precision. These two astronomers have presented to the Society a detailed plan for future observations of stellar parallax which they hope to execute during the next ten years, the conclusion of which may be expected to mark a great advance in our knowledge of the laws governing the distribution of the stars in space.

—Paris has a new school of painting, or at least a new word to express a style of painting. A young painter, M. Jean François Raffaëlli, has invented the term *la beauté caractériste* for portraits that are not beautiful, handsome, nor pretty, but have character. The thing is certainly nothing new, either in life or in painting. There have always been men who very much preferred *la beauté caractériste* to statuesque beauty or to doll prettiness. Pre-Raphaelitism was in some sort an analogous feeling; but the character heads of M. Raffaëlli are by no means pre-Raphaelite. They are decidedly of to-day and of Paris. The word suits the prevailing Parisian style of face exactly, and the journals seize upon it with eagerness, contrasting their countrywomen's vivacity with the coldness which they love to attribute to the English *mees*, and the placidity which they maliciously assert is the only characteristic of the German beauty. M. Raffaëlli is called the Meissonier of poverty. He has exhibited some 150 pieces this spring —paintings, drawings, etchings (for he has a diversity of talents)—and even one realistic statue of an old poor man, bowed down with the weight of years and of endurance. He evidently has made an impression. Perhaps, one of these days, like the painter after whom he is nicknamed, he may attain the glory of having one of his pictures burned by a rich American.

— One of the most entertaining features of the London picture season is the regular exhibition of the works of Mr. J. McNeill Whistler, with its strange mixture of wisdom and folly. This year it is called "A Harmony in Flesh-Color and Gray," and consists of the familiar "Notes," "Harmonies," and "Nocturnes," about seventy in number. It is held in a small room in Bond Street, hung with flesh-colored serge, carpeted with gray, and presided over by an elegant attendant in evening dress of the same colors. The pictures themselves are the same as usual—Piccadilly in a fog, bits of sea views, mist always predominating; reclining maidens whose anatomy can be discerned only by the eye of faith; sketches on Dutch and Venetian canals which occasionally raise a doubt whether they have not been inadvertently hung upside down. Half-a-dozen of the seventy are charming, violating none of the laws by which other painters consider themselves bound, and possessing in addition the touch and color peculiar to Mr. Whistler. Before the others, the unenlightened outsider can only stand in the attitude of the man to whom a mystery is shown. Every one will admit, however, that they all come up to the artist's own standard in suggesting no effort, and in not "reeking of the sweat of the brow." With one enormous exception, the largest picture in the exhibition does not measure much more than eighteen inches by a foot, and a good many valuable hints may be got from the manner in which they are framed. The frames are flat wood, without mounts, with one or two plain bevels running round, and they are colored with metal leaf or metallic paints to harmonize with the picture. The favorite tint is Dutch gilt—a kind of buff silver—and after that various tones of copper. A particularly pleasing effect is produced by a delicate little sketch of an old shop in Chelsea, in which there is a good deal of pink, with the paper left white in the background and foreground, and a broad, flat frame of buff silver. Mr. Whistler's harmonies of color are, perhaps, rather more audacious than usual—violet and amber, red and pink, pink and opal—and his cherished "accidents of alliteration," "variations in violet," "a bravura in brown," equally amusing.

— But the apologetico-philosophical introduction prefixed to the dainty catalogue is the most characteristic part of this year's exhibition. It is called "L'Envoie," and is signed with Mr. Whistler's private mark, a nondescript insect-looking thing, resembling the familiar black-beetle which represents the Sergeant-at-Arms in *Punch's* Parliamentary sketches. "A picture is finished," Mr. Whistler pronounces, "when all trace of the means used to bring about the end has disappeared. To say of a picture, as is often said in its praise, that it shows great and earnest labor, is to say that it is incomplete and unfit for view. Industry in art is a necessity, not a virtue; and any evidence of the same, in the production, is a blemish, not a quality; a proof, not of achievement, but of absolutely insufficient work, for work alone will efface the footsteps of work. The work of the master reeks not of the sweat of the brow, suggests no effort, and is finished from its beginning. The completed task of perseverance only has never been begun, and will remain unfinished to eternity, a monument of good will and foolishness. 'There is one that laboreth, and taketh pains, and maketh haste, and is so much the more behind.' The masterpiece should appear as the flower to the painter, perfect in its bud as in its bloom, with no reason to explain its presence, no mission to fulfil, a joy to the artist, a delusion to the philanthropist, a puzzle to the botanist, an accident of sentiment and alliteration to the literary man."

RECENT POETRY.

We are drawing near to those dog-days during which, as Christopher North maintained, no poet has a right to expect praise from a critic. Yet they are also days when a new volume of poems fits well into pocket or portmanteau; and the selection should be made with care and not without duly meditated advice. It is a significant fact that, with due reference to the season, the poets have taken to singing of Arcadia, two recent volumes, at least, being express tidings from that enchanted land, although their messages differ widely. In Mr. H. C. Bunner's 'Airs from Arcady' (New York: Scribners) we have, in what may be called the title-poem, a conceit so pretty and graceful as to float, in the mercantile sense, all the rest of a rather commonplace volume. Miss A. Mary F. Robinson's 'The New Arcadia and other Poems' (Boston: Roberts Brothers) is a very grim antidote to the cheery levity of our New York bard; her Arcadia is about as attractive as Schopenhauer's view of human life or Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis's novels. She finds in all the picturesqueness of rural England only brutal men and wretched, outcast women; her realism in this direction is more merciless than the roughest of Browning's recent poems; it is "The Bitter Cry of Outcast London" carried into Kent and Devonshire, and utterly drowning the voices of nightingale and skylark. There is something fearful in the transition from the "Handful of Honeysuckle" with which Miss Robinson crowned herself when first entering literature to such a prologue as this:

> "Oh, help! help! it is Murder that I cry,
> And not a song to sell. Now if you smile
> And hear me you are mad; you are mad, or I.
> For I do not sing to enchant you or beguile;
> I sing to make you think enchantment vile,
> I sing to wring your hearts and make you know
> What shame there is in the world, what wrongs, what woe;
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "Then let me sing, and listen to my song,
> Though it is rough with sobs and harsh and wild,
> And often wanders, and is often long,
> As mothers tell the death bed of their child.
> My child was gentle visions, and all were wrong,
> And false, and cruel; and I bury it here:
> Lend me your spades—I do not ask a tear."
> (Pp. 10-11.)

There is certainly something strong and heroic in a woman who, while still under thirty, turns by preference to strains like this; and yet there is an impression left behind which, like the over-vehemence of Ruskin, tends to defeat itself.

'The Happy Isles, and Other Poems,' by S. H. M. Byers (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), might seem by its name to keep us also near Arcadia; and here, too, as in Mr. Bunner's book, the title-poem is the best. There are, moreover, some verses of parental sorrow that would be sweet and plaintive but for the flavor of something approaching affectation that appears—as in so many American poems—in the foreign name given to the child. "Baby Heléne" (p. 21) means nothing in any known language: if the name is plain English, it should be Helen; if it is French, it should be Hélène. To translate a child's name into a foreign language, and then print it eleven times over with the wrong accents, is really something that paralyzes all human sympathy.

Akin to these Arcadian verses is the dainty volume in which Mr. Andrew Lang, author of 'Helen of Troy,' has collected what he calls, after Spenser, 'Ballades and Verses Vain' (New York: Scribner). It must be confessed that the various archaic forms of verse now in fashion are already promising to become as tiresome as Queen Anne architecture. Mr. Lang and his tuneful kindred occupy the place filled in the last generation by Leigh Hunt and Barry Cornwall: they are purveyors of daintinesses flavored by a little humor and a very little sentiment, though we may look through all their volumes in vain for anything likely to last so long as Hunt's trifle, "Jenny kissed me." It is one peculiarity of those engaged in this pretty manufacture of literary confectionery, that they seem to form a kind of joint-stock company and write preludes to each other's volumes; in this case it is Mr. Dobson who supplies the two preliminary verses. It is also a peculiarity that in looking at their volumes we instinctively turn to the department of translations for material of rather more solid quality than is offered in the main book. Mr. Lang gives us an appendix of good translations, one especially from Victor Hugo's pretty verses on "The Birth of Butterflies" (p. 149), in which he attributes the origin of these airy things to the floating fragments of torn love-letters.

To the same class of butterfly-and-thistledown literature belongs Mr. Cholmondeley-Pennell's 'From Grave to Gay' (London: Longmans; New York: Coombes). It is announced as "a volume of selections from the complete poems" of the author, and there seems no reason why it should not furnish an adequate substitute for the *opera omnia*. Mr. Cholmondeley-Pennell has published three previous volumes, of which 'Puck on Pegasus' passed through several editions; and he is dear enough to his readers, apparently, to make them desire his portrait on the first page of 'From Grave to Gay.' It must be said of this pretty little volume that its title well describes it, only that the grave is not very grave nor the gay of the gayest. He, too, belongs to the recognized fraternity of modern *jongleurs*, and the hero whom he recognizes as leader in the craft is Mr. Locker, to whom he inscribes a poem. His volume, like Mr. Locker's, would probably be regarded as good summer reading, and the rather monotonous facetiousness of either might admirably promote slumber, if combined with a hammock.

Gayety, stretching even to the verge of the grave itself and beyond it into the realm of the ghosts, may be found in 'Rhyme? and Reason?' by Lewis Carroll (New York: Macmillan). Mr. Carroll, alias Mr. Dodgson, has had thousands of American readers, old and young, through his 'Alice in Wonderland' with its companion volume; and the "Hunting of the Snark," which this present work contains, has also given plea-

sure to a smaller audience. Apart from that, this volume can hardly be regarded as enjoyable; either the author has found artists less sympathetic than before, or his theme is more difficult, so that the ghosts portrayed are too coarse and carnal to be impressive, and the vanishing grin of the Cheshire cat in "Alice" is worth them all. Nevertheless, there is much in the book that is wildly funny, both to eye and ear—for instance, "The Three Voices"; and there are some graceful things like the following, although it would be well if this stopped where our extract closes, and with the accompanying design of the perplexed papa:

"A GAME OF FIVES.

"Five little girls of Five, Four, Three, Two, One,
Rolling on the hearth-rug, full of tricks and fun.

"Five rosy girls, in years from Ten to Six;
Sitting down to lessons—no more time for tricks.

"Five growing girls, from Fifteen to Eleven;
Music, Drawing, Languages, and food enough for seven!

"Five winsome girls, from Twenty to Sixteen;
Each young man that calls, I say 'Now tell me which you *mean*?'"

(P. 120.)

Dr. Frederick Peterson's 'Poems and Swedish Translations' (Buffalo: Paul) has a really charming flavor of the North of Europe; the translations are not placed by themselves, but are intermingled with the original contributions; and so completely has the author caught the trick of the literature with which he deals that many of his own poems—the best of them, indeed—might as well be Swedish folk-songs also. The principal translation is that of Tegnér's "Axel," which hardly fulfils the promise of "Frithiof's Saga," by the same author. The following is a good specimen of the shorter versions:

"NECKROSEN.

[From the Swedish of C. W. Böttiger.]

"A lad leaping down to the ocean strand,
There after a lily extended his hand;
But God will add unto his angels!

"Meanwhile as he stood, from the breakers there,
A mermaid arose green-mantled and fair:
But God will add unto his angels!

"'Oh bring me the lily which near to thee stands,
I cannot quite reach it, so little my hands!'
But God will add unto his angels!

"The maid plucked the lily for him as he smiled,
But lured him into the waters wild,
For God would add unto his angels!"

(P. 103.)

The Marquis of Lorne's 'Memories of Canada and Scotland' (Montreal: Dawson Bros.) have a retrospective flavor, as it is right they should, and though both verses and speeches are in themselves a little tame, they have the merit of local coloring and of really referring to the places they attempt to describe. All the addresses and half the poems are Canadian, the rest of the verse being Scottish; and many a picturesque rock and Indian tradition here gets its first simple rendering into verse. There is something odd, for the ears of us readers in "the States" when we come to such a mingling of the bird of Freedom with the Lion and the Unicorn as this:

"Away to the West! Westward ho! Westward ho!
God's hand is our guide, 'tis His will that we go!
To lands yet more happy than Europe's, for here
We would the young nation for Freedom to rear.
Full strongly we build and have nought to pull down,
For true to ourselves, we are true to the Crown;
The will of the people its honor shows forth,
As pole-star, whose radiance points steadfastly north."

(P. 39.)

But the Crown has certainly done handsomely by the Marquis of Lorne, and none can grudge him his little burst of loyalty.

It is very difficult to take seriously a drama so wildly melodramatic as 'How Much I Loved Thee' (Washington, D. C.: Raymond Eshobel). The scene is laid during the Civil War, and some of the incidents are said in the preface to have really happened at Richmond; but we should doubt if this soliloquy of a Union soldier was ever paralleled anywhere:

"O boy, you have medicined my life! Courage, come back! Liberty, I can shake thy hand again! My prison's burst and I am out, naked, free as air. O to be a slave to others' knowledge, to be a top for any man to spin, is to be worse than to be damned! Now have I this Ricardo's head in a vice; and, O Satan, but I'll wrench it! I'll make it so hot he shall wish to cool his feet on coals. To his gaping grave I'll harry him. But slow! Let me go slow! Let me creep to it, and when his time comes, jump on him" (p. 96).

It is possible, however, that this simple utterance of spontaneous emotion might be received with thunders of applause at the Bowery Theatre.

'Ten Years: an Old-World Story,' by Henry Rose (London: James Nisbet; New York: Putnams), is the legend of a wanderer long banished from his home, the story being told on the scale of some of Mr. William Morris's legends, but more languidly. It is rather hard to find in it salient points, or much that is interesting, and it might be another of the books well suited to summer hammocks. Mr. H. T. Mackenzie Bell's 'Old-Year Leaves' (London: Stock) merits a higher position, especially for his poems of travel and for the modest tone of his preface. Mr. John Gosse—whose name is possibly only a pseudonym for that of John Gosse Frieze, in whose name the copyright is taken out—has been less fortunate in his themes. To begin with a dramatization of Solomon's Song, under the name of 'The Royal Pastoral' (New York: Youngs), and to end by a versification of the Book of Ecclesiastes, is surely a tempting of Providence, so far as the critical reader is concerned; and though the interior pages of the book contain some pleasing verses, it is weighed down, as a whole, by this mistaken selection. Mr. Calvert's 'The Nazarene' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) has also a Scriptural theme, but is much briefer, and is marked by some boldness as well as tenderness.

An exceedingly curious book is 'Cyril and Lionel, and Other Poems: a Volume of Sentimental Studies,' by Mark André Raffalovich (London: Kegan Paul). The author deals in a variety of languages worthy of his cosmopolitan combination of names; he composes in French and German as easily as in English, wielding all three languages with a certain grace and tenderness. On the other hand, he remorselessly gives us, in his "Song Out of Season," such rhymes as "hopeless" and "hope less," "love town" and "of town," "Paris" the shepherd and "Paris" the city. The title of the book, too, is perplexing—"Cyril" consisting of forty-five detached poems, short and long, having no apparent connection with Cyril; and "Lionel" of a single short poem, equally disconnected from Lionel. The most pleasing of all these, to our taste, are the two sonnets on pp. 42–3, in the Shaksperian sonnet measure, of late rather avoided by English sonneteers, who now adhere to the Italian model.

'Plantation Lays,' by Belton O'Neall Townsend (Columbia, S. C.: Calvo), has a subject just now attractive: it being a curious fact that, while the social prejudice against the negro is greater than against the Indian, the literary interest is in inverse ratio, so that 'Uncle Remus' is popular while the aboriginal legends fall dead. A circular accompanying the book gives an ample biography of the author, perhaps a little anticipating the march of fame. Mr. Townsend has, we believe, done some good work in prose, but we cannot find his verse to be very far above mediocrity, though his themes are sometimes fresh and his moral often good, at least in the following lines:

"Oh, Northern people, watch it!
The coming Southern race,
In arts and money-making,
Are going to give you chase!
'Twas sternest of necessity
That forced them to the plow,
But of himself each Southerner
Can take the best care now.
Some of the olden manners
Could not sustain the fight,
And, moping, brooding, drinking,
Soon sank from public sight.
But now no work's degrading:
Too many of the *ton*
Are plowing, clerking, teaching—
All sneer at idle Don.
I now think slavery error:
Although the North must own
'Tis hardly found entitled
First at us to 've thrown the stone."

(P. 41.)

The book is dedicated to Mr. Howells, some of whose complimentary epithets the author quotes in his preface.

We are constantly beseeching from our American poets more of Americanism, both in feeling and in local color; yet when it comes to the handling of native names some discretion must be observed. The late Edward Everett thought our Indian names hopeless in verse, yet they have proved to be music on the lips of Longfellow, when rightly selected. Most of Mr. Augustin L. Taveau's volume, 'Poems, Vol. I.' (New York: Putnams), is devoted to a long poem on Montezuma; and when he give us such craggy lines as:

"When good Quetzalcol o'er Anahuac reigned,"

or

"Huitzilpo came—Tezcatli's Son-of-War"

(p. 21),

he certainly disregards the proposition with which he begins, that the Muses should sing in tuneful numbers. In the rest of the volume, what with "Songs of Anteros" and "Cantileras," the author has an easier vocabulary to manage. Another volume which has some good local coloring is 'Legends, Lyrics, and Sonnets,' by Frances L. Mace (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), who writes of Kineo and Norembega and other picturesque points, real or traditional, in her native State of Maine. She is best known, however, by her religious poem, "Only Waiting," which has attained a wide popularity and is included in this modest volume. Héloïse Durant, also, in her 'Pine Needles, or Sonnets and Songs' (New York: Putnams), gives us a spirited poem on Raquette River, in the Adirondack region. Her work is printed with much generosity as to type and paper, but with a singular dinginess of illustration. Local coloring comes again, at least in the form of dialect, when we open the little book called 'Rustic Rhymes and Ballads,' by Mrs. E. T. Corbett (New York: Gillies Brothers); nor do we see why these rural idyls are not quite as good as those of Mr. Carleton, which have been so very popular. But by far the best contribution to literature on the part of new American poets is the very pleasing and promising 'Songs at the Start' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), by Louise Imogen Guiney. This young lady—whom we judge from internal evidence to be the daughter of a brave soldier, Colonel Guiney, of the Ninth Massachusetts—has put into her verses a grace, flow, and simplicity that deserved a less abrupt and ungraceful title.

No poet of wide English fame is so little known in America as Lewis Morris, and his American publishers wisely append to his 'Songs Unsung' (Boston: Roberts Brothers) many pages of those flattering newspaper notices which are, for some reason, much more profusely displayed between the covers in England than here. We regret to say that we never have been convinced that Mr. Morris's wine would bear exportation very well, and yet we must confess to liking 'Songs Unsung' better than 'The Epic of Hades.' The name of the new volume is well chosen, to begin with; the songs are certainly unsung, for the author's genius, whatever it may be, is as far as possible from the lyrical. His lays never really sing themselves; he is at his best advantage in narrative or didactic poetry, or in such brief sketches on the thumb-nail as this—a style to which he is much given—under the general designation of "Pictures":

"A flare of lamp-light in a shameful place,
Full of wild revel and unchecked offence,
And in the midst, one fresh, scarce-sullied face,
Within her eyes, a dreadful innocence."
(P. 4.)

Mr. Morris's classical and mediæval studies are not to be compared with those of Browning, for instance; and, after all, the part of the volume which has most staying power consists of the three Breton poems at the end—taken from the "Barzaz Breiz"—which are rendered with great vigor and condensation.

American eyes must be forgiven if they rest rather impatiently on the first appearance of "Alfred Lord Tennyson," on a title-page; it affects us a little as if we opened upon his portrait in cap-and-bells. Passing by this, however, one may find some real power, and a tragedy only too unrelenting and unbroken, in the first drama of "The Cup and the Falcon" (New York: Macmillan), while there is only a "most lamentable comedy" in the second drama, where the rather trite story of the knight who slew his falcon for his lady's dinner is served up with such ineffectual garnishing as to make us ask whether Lord Tennyson himself is sacrificing his high-soaring aspirations to his sovereign Lady. In both plays, however, there are lines and interludes that are essentially Tennysonian.

With the new volumes there arrive some reissues and new combinations of the old. Mrs. Oliphant gives us an admirable edition of Cowper (London: Macmillan), with a very fresh and discriminating analysis of what she well calls "the gentle originality" of Cowper; she also has done a good work in arranging many of the shorter poems so as to form a sort of autobiography. 'English Lyrics' (New York: Appleton) is a delicious little volume, parchment bound, and small enough for even a small pocket, yet clearly printed and admirably edited. A strict judgment must always question the propriety of including in lyric poetry any composition which does not sing itself or lend itself to song; yet where the result is so delightful, none can complain. A great contrast in external execution is to be found in the American reprint of 'With the Poets' (New York: Funk & Wagnalls). This book has a dingy look at best, and is frankly intended for a cheap issue; but the more crowded pages of the latter half of the volume are very unsightly. The collection is made by Canon Farrar, and is well enough—for why should not every man of taste, or of no taste, make and print his own *florilegium*? But in this case the editor wantonly invites comparison with the taste, or distaste, of others, when he comes to classify part of his bards as "Minor Poets," and puts them in a manner below the salt. To open a book which includes among the major poets Addison and Dr. Johnson, Collins and Hogg, while Herbert, Sir Philip Sidney, Ben Jonson, Landor, and Blake are assigned to the humbler class—this is something which, as Pet Marjorie says, "human nature's self can't endure." Yet this is what Canon Farrar has done, and he has, moreover, clipped his poets of their full number of verses—see, for instance, "The Sands of Dee," p. 264—as ruthlessly as if he were editing a hymnal.

This offence cannot be charged upon Mr. N. Clemmons Hunt, whose 'Poetry of Other Lands' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates) does full justice to all the polyglot poets whom it represents—justice perhaps too ample, indeed, for it strikes us that the book would be helped by pruning. Mr. Hunt has brought together translations from the classical and Oriental languages, with those of modern Europe, and though it may be a question whether he has always hit upon the best translators, he has certainly given us great wealth and some new items of literary information. He states, for instance, and we suppose upon some definite authority, that the late Mrs. Sarah Austin was the author of that exquisite paraphrase of Uhland's ballad, beginning:

"Many a year is in its grave
Since I crossed this restless wave."

This poem first became famous through its introduction into Longfellow's "Hyperion," where, in answer to Mary Ashburton's question as to the author, Paul Flemming answers, "I do not know; I wish I could find him out." Mr. Hunt, it appears, has succeeded; and certainly Mrs. Austin's prose translations from the German were always so admirable that no one can grudge her the poem.

Of all the poetic volumes that lie before us, that which has given us most pleasure is the volume called 'Wind Voices,' by Philip Bourke Marston (Boston: Roberts Brothers). If it does not place its author among poets of the first class, it certainly ranks him high in the second. Mr. Marston is a young Englishman, blind from early childhood, and the son of Dr. J. Westland Marston, himself a poet and a correspondent forty years ago of the American Transcendentalists. The son is understood to have been greatly aided in writing out his verses and in preparing them for the press by an American lady, well known and esteemed among us, Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton. To her the volume is dedicated as "true poet and true friend." It seems wonderful that one without sight can have written such graceful delineations of natural beauty, such striking representations of human loveliness. There are passages that powerfully analyze some of the deepest emotions, as in "The Temptress" (p. 153); and fine pieces of sheer imagination, such as "Caught in the Nets" (p. 48), founded on the old tradition in Sir Richard Baker's chronicle of a merman, thus captured and compelled to live on shore. Most charming of all is a series of poems in which he seems to throw himself into the very souls of the flowers, and live with them in fancy through their brief existence. We may well close with this, the first act of a little drama of the life of violets, entitled "Before and After Flowering":

"BEFORE.

FIRST VIOLET.

"Lo, here! How warm and dark and still it is!
Sister, lean close to me, that we may kiss.
Here we go, rising, rising, but to where?

SECOND VIOLET.

"Indeed, I cannot tell, nor do I care,
It is so warm and pleasant here. But hark!
What strangest sound was that came through the dark?

FIRST VIOLET.

"As if our sisters all together sang—
Seemed it not so?

SECOND VIOLET.

"More loud than that it rang;
And louder still it rings and seems more near,
O, I am shaken through and through with fear—
Now in some deadly grip I seem confined!
Farewell, my sister! Rise and follow and find.

FIRST VIOLET.

"From how far off those last words seemed to fall!
Gone where she will not answer when I call.
How lost? How gone? Alas, this sound above me—
'Poor little violet, left with none to love thee!'
And now, it seems, I break against that sound.
What bitter pain is this that binds me round?
This pain I press into? Where have I come?

A CROCUS.

"Welcome, dear sisters, to our fairy home!
They call this—Garden, and the time is Spring."
(P. 103-4.)

On the whole, it is Mr. Marston's 'Wind Voices' that we recommend for summer reading.

THE EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN OF 1882.

Report upon the British Naval and Military Operations in Egypt in 1882. By Lieut.-Com. Caspar F. Goodrich, U. S. Navy. 2 vols. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1883.

THE report of Lieutenant-Commander Goodrich is the first complete account which has appeared in this country concerning the British operations in Egypt in 1882. Mr. Goodrich was attached to the United States squadron at Alexandria at the time of the bombardment, and he accompanied the British headquarters in the subsequent campaign from Ismaïlia to Cairo. He was thus an eye-witness of the operations which he describes. His report is terse, concise, filled with technical details on just those subjects upon which a professional reader seeks information; it is profusely illustrated with diagrams and heliotype reproductions of photographs, and in every way is an admirable and valuable document. It is issued as No. 3 of the series of publications of the Office of Naval Intelligence, recently established in the Navy Department; and it may well serve as a model for future reports to the same office.

The work is divided into three parts: first, the bombardment of Alexandria; second, the campaign ending at Tel-el-Kebir; and third, the miscellaneous technical details relating to the organization, equipment, armament, and transportation of the troops. The bombardment of Alexandria was the first instance in which modern great guns and modern armored ships were brought into action, and much was expected of it at the time in the way of practical experience in regard to the changed conditions of naval warfare. But the contest was so unequal that little or nothing new was really developed. The eight ironclads that made the attack constituted the most powerful fleet afloat. The forts were of old-fashioned masonry, supplemented by barbette batteries of sand and earth. The fleet had thirty-nine large guns (from nine to eighty-one tons); the forts had but twenty-seven modern guns, the largest of which was but eighteen tons. And the fleet had the choice of position, so that the odds against any one fort were about five to one. Under these circumstances, the ships knocked down the masonry forts, ploughed up the sand batteries, dismounted a large number of the shore guns, and inflicted a loss of about five hundred upon the defenders; while the British loss was only six killed and twenty-seven wounded, and "not a gun was really disabled, nor the fighting qualities of a single ship affected." The Egyptians made no use of torpedoes, although they had abundant material: hence no light was shed upon the practical value of this most important and most uncertain factor of modern naval engagements; and as their defence was thoroughly passive, it was naturally to be expected that the forts would be battered down. The only feature of note is that the ammunition of several of the ships was so reduced that they could not have continued the engagement an hour longer. The author draws two broad inferences from this engagement, the justice of which is at once apparent: first, "that vessels are not yet and never will be able to fight on even terms with forts"; but, second, this does not "touch the question of the ability of forts to stop the progress of modern ships: in this respect, and unaided by other means of defence, by obstructions, etc., the works at Alexandria would have been utterly powerless against the British fleet, which need hardly have paid them the compliment of a passing shot."

The flank attack made by General Wolseley's army from Ismaïlia, which terminated the land campaign in so short and brilliant a manner, was made possible by the stupidity of the Egyptians in not blockading the canal; and the author makes the very pertinent remark that the neutrality of any great canal will depend simply upon the amount of naval force with which the neutrality is supported. This campaign was carefully planned and successfully executed in less than a month, with only one serious engage-

ment and a few skirmishes, and at a loss of but little over 400 men to the assailants, although the defenders lost as many thousands. The British Expeditionary force, including the Indian Contingent, numbered about 35,000 men; although General Wolseley reported that at Tel-el-Kebir he could only "place in line about 11,000 bayonets, 2,000 sabres, and 60 field guns." The Egyptians had on the theatre of war about 94,000 men, of whom 60,000 were regulars; but at Tel-el-Kebir they had only one-third of their whole force. This, however, outnumbered the British by more than two to one, and it occupied a strongly fortified position. In everything else except numbers the advantages were enormously on the side of the British. In *morale*, in organization, in equipment, in armament, in all that distinguishes an army from a mob, the superiority of the British was so great that the campaign conveys no lessons, except for situations of the same character should they ever occur again—which is not unlikely in view of the small wars in which England is constantly engaged with semi-civilized people in all quarters of the world. Considering the circumstances it cannot be denied that the campaign was admirably planned and admirably executed. The Commissariat and Transport Service broke down completely, but everything else worked as smoothly as on a field day. And the principal cause of success was the fact that the Commanding General based all his plans upon a careful, not a rash, consideration of the enemy's inferiority. It was this which led him to select for a landing place a miserable harbor where the canal authorities had stated that there was not room for more than two ships; to push out his pickets and hold advanced stations with a mere handful of men which an enterprising enemy would have destroyed at once; to leave his communications unguarded, feeling sure that the Egyptians would not molest them; and finally to risk the whole campaign—and completely gain it—on a night attack across an open plain. With a civilized enemy such things cannot be done in these days, but with an enemy who, in addition to a thousand other faults, "keeps a very bad lookout," such things are not only justifiable but necessary, in order that the work in hand may be accomplished with the least possible expenditure of blood and treasure. It was precisely in attempting these usually impossible feats, and in carefully weighing how far it was safe to be audacious in disregard of ordinary rules, that the merit of the Egyptian campaign consists. And that it was most meritorious, whether judged by the criterion of complete success, or examined step by step in the events which led to that success, cannot be doubted.

We have left no space to comment on the more strictly professional part of this work, the part which relates to military and naval details, and which occupies fully half of the book. This portion describes everything connected with the expeditionary force on land and sea, from the dimensions of a haversack or canteen up to the great troop ships that England alone possesses. All of these descriptions are most clear, and, being accompanied with a profusion of elaborate drawings, they are of the highest professional interest.

A Catholic Dictionary, containing some account of the Doctrine, Discipline, Rites, Ceremonies, Councils, and Religious Orders of the Catholic Church. By William E. Addis and Thomas Arnold. New York: The Catholic Publication Society Co. 1884.

A BOOK like this is almost a necessity to the reader of European history who desires to form a clear and intelligent conception of the influences which have governed the development of civilization and of many events which have affected the destiny of the modern world. Even the man of more limited interests will find in it much that will elucidate movements still in progress, and customs and beliefs which are in full activity around us. The theology of Catholicism has become so exceedingly complicated, and the evolution of its ritual has created such a multitude of observances, that no one who has not made a special study of the subject can have more than the faintest acquaintance with its technology; while the relations of the Church to the state and to the body of the faithful are such that some knowledge of the peculiarities of the ecclesiastical vocabulary is necessary to a comprehension of the present as well as of the past. To the student of sacred art, also, a volume such as this is almost indispensable.

The authors have done their work fairly well, and we can recommend the volume as a convenient book of reference for all who desire to see the Catholic view of history and the presentation of Catholic dogma and practice in their moderate and least aggressive aspect. Of course, impartial accuracy in historical matters is out of the question. A believer in a divinely appointed infallible Church must of necessity reject all evidence of its fallibility. It would be useless to quarrel with him for so doing, for he cannot help himself—if history will not accord with infallibility, so much the worse for history. Besides, in a book of this kind, original research is for the most part impossible. It covers too much ground for any one lifetime to suffice for the requisite collection, sifting, and comparison of original material, and its authors must perforce rely almost wholly on the second-hand authorities which are regarded in the Church as trustworthy. It is not their fault if the Catholic history which they conscientiously present is so often a distortion of facts, accomplished by the *suppressio veri* and the *suggestio falsi*. With the most evident disposition toward fairness, it would not be easy to find a more violent *petitio principii* than in the paragraphs devoted to proving the papal supremacy over general councils (pp. 228–30). In fact, the frame of mind of an honest, well-meaning, but devout Catholic historian is a marvel of human intelligence not easy to fathom. For instance, in the article on the "Scapular" our authors resolutely detail and expose the Carmelite fraud through which the devotion of this curious fetish originated; yet they evidently have no sense of the absurd contradiction involved when, under "Indulgence," they allude to the special remission of sins granted by Pius IX., in 1854, to the wearers of the magic blue Scapular of the Immaculate Conception. Both articles, we may remark, would have been more complete had the authors related the origin of the modern revival of the Scapular worship (bearing so close a resemblance to the Carmelite fraud), when a sister of charity, in 1846, had some visions of Jesus Christ holding a Scapular in his right hand, and Pius IX. made haste, in June, 1847, to accord special indulgences to the wearers of the Scapular of the Passion of Christ, giving rise to a very profitable trade on the part of the Congregation of Missions, which has the monopoly of their manufacture.

Of course it is impossible that such a work should be without omissions, and in turning it over we have noted a few, such as "Diocesans" and "Oblations," of which the technical meanings might well have been given. We also observe that nothing is said about the Vision of God which the saints are to enjoy in Paradise, the exact nature of which is a point of sufficient importance to have required contradictory decisions by the infallibility of successive popes. In 1333, John XXII. decided that the saints have no distinct vision of the Divine Essence and will not have till the Day of Judgment and Resurrection, and he proceeded to persecute the wretches who held the contrary opinion. Yet only two years later, his immediate successor, Benedict XII., proclaimed that the saints do enjoy a distinct vision of the Divine Face, and in 1336, in full consistory, he decreed that all who thought otherwise should be punished as heretics. The production of a recantation and submission to the decision of the Church, purporting to have been signed by John the day before his death, saved the Pope from the scandal of digging up his predecessor's bones and burning them, which would have been a necessity under the canon law of the period. We can hardly expect to meet with incidents such as this in an orthodox work of reference intended for the faithful, but it is perhaps worth mention as an illustration of some of the difficulties under which orthodox students and writers labor.

The Temple of the Andes. By Richard Inwards, F.R.A.S. London: Printed for the author by Vincent Brooks, Day & Son. 1884. 4to, pp. 32, pls. 19.

IT is difficult to find any *raison d'être* for this elaborate production, since it adds nothing of importance to our previous knowledge concerning the antiquities of the basin of Lake Titicaca. The writer's sketches, made during a visit to Tiahuanaco, are, indeed, somewhat more numerous than those of Orbigny, Squier, and others. But except the more accurate details in the monolithic doorway of Tiahuanaco, so often represented by visitors to the place, they possess little value and give but a very imperfect idea of the mass of material available for study in the village of Tiahuanaco.

In connection with these sketches much is said of the great antiquity of the buildings, the remarkable size of some of the monoliths used in their construction, and the comparatively high state of civilization which, according to the author, must have existed in Tiahuanaco at the time of their erection. As matter of fact, nothing has yet been found in the ruins of Peru or of Central America, either as regards the style and finish of the buildings or the beauty of ornamentation, to denote anything beyond a simple type of architecture. Neither do the tools and utensils, the garments, or the gold, silver, and other ornaments, dug up about these ruins, indicate that the native of those primitive times was more civilized than his successor of to-day. Huge buildings made of gigantic stones, or the cutting of great monoliths, imply only a numerous population under absolute control, ready to do the bidding of a dominant caste or an all-powerful chief.

In Plate VI. the author attempts a reconstruction of the buildings at Tiahuanaco. A careful comparative study of the remains of the Temple of the Nuns on the Island of Coati, or of the Palace of the Incas on the Island of Titicaca, would have given him radically different ideas of the probable shape of the original structures. His restoration reminds us forcibly of some of the ruined temples of Yucatan and of Mitla. In the light of our knowledge derived from the ruins of Yucatan, it seems unnecessary to discuss the author's statement that these buildings were roofless. He will also find it difficult to convince his geological readers that the trachitic rocks used at Tiahuanaco were moulded rather than carved, because he could see no mark of the chisel on any of the stones. The reasons which have induced the author to lead a canal up to the steps of his restored palace are not apparent. If he has taken as his guide in this supposition the raised terraces indicating the ancient level of Lake Titicaca, he has placed

the antiquity of the temple far beyond that of historic times. It is much to be regretted that a field for archæological study so interesting as that of Lake Titicaca should still remain practically unexplored, and that the most recent publication on the ruins of Tiahuanaco should be so unsatisfactory.

Lotze's System of Philosophy: Logic, pp. 538; Metaphysics, pp. 539. Translated from the German by Bernard Bosanquet, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press series.

It was Lotze's intention to revise and greatly amplify the third or psychological part of his metaphysics, and to add a third ethical volume to his "system." After his death, no materials for the latter were found sufficiently advanced to be printed. His general views, however, may be found in an article on the principles of ethics (in *Nord und Süd*, June, 1882), and may also be gathered from his earlier and best work, 'Mikrokosmus,' a translation of which is promised soon. The translations now published were begun under the direction of the author by the late Professor Green, who executed a part of it himself and commissioned others to undertake other chapters, so that the two volumes present considerable diversity in style, as well as in the rendering of many of the less important technical words. These are sometimes pointed out, and occasional notes and references to related or explanatory passages in other parts of the author's works are given, which add somewhat to the value of the book. The work is heavy reading—heavier even than in the original; for the metaphysics, at least, most students will content themselves with the more concise dicta recently printed from his lectures in the same field.

None of the mental sciences are in greater confusion now than logic, not only with reference to the opinions advocated by eminent experts, but with regard even to its proper scope and range. On opening a new logical treatise we may find it devoted to the consideration of being, substance, reality, etc., and hardly distinguishable from metaphysics; or, again, it may be occupied with the syllogism, or, like Wundt's, with practical methods of the special sciences *seriatim*, with a logic for each; or, it may be a logic of algebra and chiefly mathematical, as in the case of the Boolists, etc. According to Lotze, logic comprises first the doctrine of thought, or pure logic, treating of the concept and its formation, of the theory of judgment and its forms, and of inference. The second part treats of investigation or applied logic, comprising the forms of definition and proof, fallacies, derivations of numerical propositions, the discovery of laws, and the calculus of chances. The third book treats of knowledge or methodology, involving scepticism, the world of ideas, the *a priori* and the empirical methods, the real and formal significance of logical acts, and *a priori* truths. This selection and order of topics is, in the present condition of logical studies, like everything coming from Lotze's hand, eminently sensible, but not particularly novel or epoch-making. The earlier parts of the book were obviously written for the sake of the latter, for in the third part all the freshness and interest of the book are found. Thought, whose function is to add the notion of coherence to connected ideas, may lead us to scepticism if accidental is mistaken for real coherence. It, however, presupposes truth and knowledge, but doubts their identity. Delusions can only be detected by fresh knowledge, and the general doubt that things are as they seem is self-contradictory. The validity of our ideas is a very difficult notion, and should not be confused, as is so often done, with their existence. Neither must we judge of knowledge by our notion of its origin, so that psychology cannot help logic much. Proof is far different from the reason of the law by which proof is made. The work concludes with the argument that a synthetic and at the same time necessary development is the supreme goal of science. Despite, too, the author's disclaimer, his logic is essentially psychological, and would more correctly have been termed the psychology of logic. It is this that constitutes its chief charm, and gives point to his happy characterization of Hegel's method and of Boole's attempts.

Metaphysics is characterized as the final elaboration of facts and as giving a basis to psychology, and not as accepting one from it. The new philosophy, it is said, regards the philosophic lucubrations of recent scientific men with the same kind of pitying complacency as that with which they regard the moribund philosophic systems of half a century ago, and especially the so-called natural philosophy of Germany. With commendable grandmotherly care, metaphysics takes the sciences under its protection, and even gives them a basis as logic does a method. Here again the charm of the author, which consists chiefly in the fact that to him everything takes on a psychological aspect, has made even this most arid of topics interesting as well as simple. The first book, on the connection of things, treats of their being, quality, reality, and unity, and also of becoming and change. The second part, on cosmology, discusses time, space, matter, motions, and the forms of the course of nature. The third part is devoted to psychology, and treats of the metaphysical conception of the soul, sensations, and the course of ideas, the mental act of "relation," the formation of our ideas of space, and the physical basis of mental activity. To those familiar with Lotze's previous writings, the most interesting and novel chapter is probably that on the mental act of "relation," which is referred to attention and interest.

The Elements of Botany: Embracing Organography, Histology, Vegetable Physiology, Systematic Botany, and Economic Botany, arranged for School Use or for Independent Study. By W. A. Kellerman, Ph.D., Professor of Botany and Zoölogy in the Kansas State Agricultural College. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co. Pp. 358, 12mo.

Plant Analysis: A Classified List of the Wild Flowers of the Northern United States, with Keys for Analysis and Identification. Same author and publisher. Pp. 253.

After a modern fashion for school books, these volumes bear no date on the title-page, but in a preface we find the date 1883. "For independent study" we should say that the 'Elements' traversed much too wide a field in a merely touch-and-go way. For "school use" the same objection applies, except in the case—we fear rather rare—in which an extended course of botanical instruction is given by a really competent teacher, who uses this volume as a text-book. For that it seems fairly well adapted.

The second work, which supplements the first but is more elementary than the 'Elements,' consists of a simple introduction to the structure and conformation of phænogamous plants, of less than twenty pages, two upon classification and three or four of practical directions, a glossary and index, while all the rest is analytical tables and lists of names, the former leading to the latter. It has an arid look. But nothing better can be expected when the botany of a great country has to be compressed into a couple of hundred small pages. Some of the figures are good, some are bad. In the letter-press, where all generally reads very well, one is horrified by the statement that "very often the petals are inserted immediately before the sepals," etc. "But the petals may alternate with the sepals also," etc. "May," indeed! This is in the 'Plant Analysis.' Turning to the 'Elements' (p. 44), we find essentially the same statement.

Molière's 'Les Précieuses Ridicules,' edited by Andrew Lang, M. A.—*Beaumarchais's 'Le Barbier de Séville,'* edited by Austin Dobson. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

These two neat little volumes are on the plan of the edition of Horace published by Mr. George Saintsbury, and each of them contains among the prolegomena an "Essay on the Progress of French Comedy," by that competent writer on French literature. A careful perusal of the twenty pages devoted to this essay will richly repay the student. They present a brief but very interesting and complete history of French comedy, which, Mr. Saintsbury justly holds, "From Adam de la Halle [in the 13th century] to Sardou, is as continuous as the history of the English Parliament from Simon de Montfort to Lord Beaconsfield." As true, again, is his assertion that "of modern nations France is the special home of comedy." Nor have the respective editors of the two plays confined themselves to the usual explanatory notes. Mr. Lang gives us a very good "Life of Molière," a brief sketch of "The Comic Stage in the Age of Molière," and an "Introduction to the 'Précieuses Ridicules,'" which are well worthy of attention. The euphuism of language and affectation of manners which Molière laughed out of existence seem to revive occasionally, and even in our day, an American Molière might find Cathoses and Magdelons to hold up to deserved ridicule, without crossing the ocean.

The "Life and Writings of Beaumarchais" will be read with interest. His active participation in the cause of the American Revolution is but briefly alluded to, but his literary and political career is well depicted, and Mr. Dobson's opinion of his singularly contradictory traits of character is probably correct. "The Stage in the Time of Beaumarchais" and the "Introduction to 'Le Barbier de Séville'" explain the furore created by this witty production, Beaumarchais's best title to fame, although his "Mariage de Figaro," given nine years later, produced a still greater sensation and (some French critics claim) inaugurated the Revolution.

The plan adopted for this series of French plays, in course of publication by the Clarendon Press, is excellent. The care and research shown in the prolegomena and notes give them especial value.

Philosophy of the Unconscious. By Edouard von Hartmann. Authorized translation, by William Chatterton Coupland, M.A., B.Sc. In three volumes. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

This long promised, long-delayed translation is made from the ninth German edition. Since the work was first stereotyped, in the fifth edition, in 1873, no changes of any moment have been made, except the addition of an appendix on the physiology of the nerve centres, and miscellaneous addenda, altogether making about one hundred and fifty pages of the English work. The body of the present treatise has been so fully reviewed in several previous numbers of the *Nation*, that little remains to be said save that the translator's task, which was a very easy one, seems to be creditably done. The shallowness and uncritical quality of the author's work are equally shown in the dull résumé of psycho-physic explanations appended. This work constitutes the

first part of Hartmann's system; the second is the well-known 'Phenomenology of the Moral Consciousness,' and the third and most recent part is devoted to a psychological analysis of the religious consciousness, its metaphysical postulates and ethical consequences, and also to a critical history of religion in the past, as a basis from which its future development is predicted.

Unser Elternhaus. Von Paul Hertz. Als Manuscript gedruckt. Hamburg: 1883. Pp. 141. [Our Old Home. Privately printed.]

HAMBURG is one of the brightest, busiest cities of Germany. It is now about to be united in the Customs Union, and this change from its old position as one of the free cities of the empire is marked by some great improvements in its harbor. In making these many of its old houses and canals will disappear. In view of this a German merchant has printed a little book, giving in a very attractive way the story of the home and home life of his family for half a century and more. The story of the old house is well worth telling in brief, as characteristic of the life of a German town and its progress. Built in 1626, the house still stands in stately dignity on a canal that dates from 1327, while behind it runs another water course laid out in 1469. Near it are the gardens that mark fortifications built in 1531. The ground on which the house stands was in 1559 part of a large property, which was subdivided in 1587, and finally improved by the house built by a purchaser of 1618. He was one of the Netherlands Protestants who fled from Holland when it was ravaged by the Spaniards under Alva, and who contributed by their industry and enterprise to build up Hamburg, and have left their mark there as they have wherever they found refuge and protection. The changes of ownership are easily followed in Hamburg, where, in spite of fire, old records are well preserved, and the successive occupants are enumerated. The house changed hands in 1645, and again in 1654, and then in 1680, remaining in one family for 107 years, in another for forty years, and since 1833 in still another.

This last, living in the good old patriarchal fashion, three generations under the same roof, together with the counting-house in which a great shipping business was carried on with the remotest parts of the globe, offers annals of the purest domestic felicity, of the happiest youth, manhood, and old age, and of commercial success, civic honors, and reverent love for the once Free and Imperial City of Hamburg. From the harbor in front of the old house went and came a fleet of vessels far and wide, carrying and fetching great cargoes, and making the name of the Hamburg firm familiar abroad and at home. Factories in Africa, agencies in Asia, correspondents in America, North and South, and branches in England and the British Colonies were all directed from the modest counting-house, while ship captains, merchants, geographers, and representatives of foreign governments were heartily welcomed and hospitably entertained in the living rooms of the home of the old merchant. Two generations celebrated their golden weddings within its walls, and sons grew to manhood, went forth to learn the lessons of business and other pursuits, and returned to carry them on in and near the old home. Daughters married and went to found new families in other cities and countries, and then, returning to their native city, made pious pilgrimages to the old home. Every room is full of the recollections of childhood, lovingly told for the rising generation which will look in vain for the old house, when the improvements already in progress that are to give Hamburg its much-needed commercial facilities, have forever changed the outlook of the old quarter of the town in which this homestead was a landmark.

The simple life, the careful training, the wise education, the love of music, the culture of all intellectual resources, the close intimacy between parents and children, the lively interest in common affairs and in the various pursuits of the growing members of the family, furnish a beautiful picture of the German interior, which we may hope will long survive its change of habitation, and those greater transformations which make the Hamburg of to-day so unlike the city of half a century ago.

Broken English. A Frenchman's struggle with the English language. By E. C. Dubois. Boston: Lee & Shepard. New York: Charles T. Dillingham.

THIS little book, the publication of which was suggested, probably, by the success of that laughter-provoking absurdity, 'English as She is Spoke,' does not justify the choice of its title. The English used by the so-called Frenchman is generally correct, save a few sentences that serve to illustrate the misuse of the English preposition by foreigners. As much cannot be said of the French part of the book, notwithstanding the author's claim that it is "instructive as a handbook of French conversation." It bears evidence of a translation from an English text, being plentifully sprinkled with Anglicisms. No Frenchman would use such expressions as "difficile pour moi—d'autant plus parce que—ma tête serait assez longue—je ne vois pas le point!" The jokes are stale, the wit not very exhilarating. As for the misspelt French words, misplaced accents, and fitful punctuation, these are faults for which it is usual, charitably, not to hold the author responsible.

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ERRATA.

Page 98, col. 1, line 29. Dele the comma between Anthimos and Gazes.

Page 191, col. 1, line 9 from bottom. For "Saton" read "Satow."

Page 249, col. 3, line 8 from bottom. For "Massimi" read "Lanceolotti."

Page 250, col. 2, line 2 from bottom. For "metal-like" read "metal." Col. 3, line 16. For "stucco" read "metal." Line 6 from bottom. For "archaic" read "archaistic."

Page 260, col. 1, lines 32 and 31 from bottom. For "notorious" read "victorious."

Page 339, col. 2, lines 20 and 6 from bottom; col. 3, line 6. For "Famedrio" read "*Famedio*."

Page 542, col. 3, line 13. For "Rhone" read "Rhine."